

**THE ROLE OF TOURISM DEVELOPMENT AND
OF HRD IN THE TOURISM SECTOR IN
PROMOTING ECONOMIC GROWTH IN ERITREA**

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SUPERVISOR'S CONSENT

As the candidate's supervisor I have /~~have not~~ approved this dissertation for submission.

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DECLARATION

This dissertation presents the work conducted by Yosief Hidru Tecele in the School of Business, University of KwaZulu-Natal, Pietermaritzburg campus and in Asmara, Eritrea.

This dissertation is the original work of the researcher and has not been submitted previously, in part or in whole, to any other university. Where use has been made of the work of others, it has been duly acknowledged in the text. The research was carried out between January 2003 and November 2004 under the supervision of Jessica Schroem.

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Date

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ABSTRACT

Eritrea is a young state and a developing country faced with major problems and constraints, one of which is a shortage of professional, skilled and semi-skilled human resources. With the country's considerable and diverse attractions, tourism is a promising option for economic development in Eritrea. The objective of this research paper is to examine the role of human resource development in contributing to the creation of a modern and internationally competitive tourism sector in Eritrea, as well as increasing tourism's contribution to economic growth and sustainable development.

Tourism is one of the major socio-economic sectors of the world and is also a rapidly growing sector. However, it has both positive and negative impacts. In order to maximize the positive and minimize the negative impacts, most countries now are opting for responsible tourism or sustainable tourism development. Not all countries and regions have benefited equally from tourism, and competition in the tourism market is fierce, especially for small countries and new entrants like Eritrea. One of the factors for optimising the contribution made by tourism is human resource development (HRD) in the tourism industry. This paper investigates how the economic contribution of tourism can be increased, and suggests approaches to revitalizing the human resources of the tourism sector, both quantitatively and qualitatively.

The study shows how HRD can play a vital role in supporting tourism development and ensuring the continuous supply of quality human resources to meet the industry's growing requirements. Based on human capital theory in relation to the tourism industry, and considering the sector's special employment characteristics, it presents a comprehensive analysis and assessment of current tourism human resources in Eritrea in terms of various HRD variables such as education, training, experience, and foreign language competence. The results indicate that significant gaps exist between the supply of and demand for human resources as the tourism industry grows in Eritrea. The findings reveal that all-round training is required across the spectrum of tourism occupations, places, levels of management and stakeholders including the public at large. The lack of trainers and training infrastructure is identified as a key factor responsible for inadequate professionalism in the Eritrean tourism industry. As a result, the study identifies specific policies, strategies and recommendations to be adopted if Eritrea is to be in a position to face the challenges posed by international tourism competition.

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ACRONYMS

EMOE	ERITREA MINISTRY OF EDUCATION
EMOF	ERITREA MINISTRY OF FINANCE
EMOFI	ERITREA MINISTRY OF FISHERIES
EMOI	ERITREA MINISTRY OF INFORMATION
EMOLH	ERITREA MINISTRY OF LABOUR AND HUMAN WELFARE
EMOT	ERITREA MINISTRY OF TOURISM
GDP	GROSS DOMESTIC PRODUCT
HRD	HUMAN RESOURCE DEVELOPMENT
HRM	HUMAN RESOURCE MANAGEMENT
HTTC	HOTEL AND TOURISM TRAINING CENTRE
ILO	INTERNATIONAL LABOUR ORGANIZATION
LDC	LEAST DEVELOPED COUNTRIES
OD	ORGANIZATION DEVELOPMENT
SSA	SUB-SAHARAN AFRICA
STD	SUSTAINABLE TOURISM DEVELOPMENT
TIM	TRADEWINGS INSTITUTE OF MANAGEMENT
UN	UNITED NATIONS
UNEP	UNITED NATIONAL ENVIRONMENTAL PROGRAM
UNESCO	UNITED NATIONS EDUCATIONAL, SCIENTIFIC AND CULTURAL ORGANIZATION
UOA	UNIVERSITY OF ASMARA
USA	UNITED STATES OF AMERICA
VFR	VISITING FRIENDS AND RELATIVES
WTO	WORLD TRADE ORGANIZATION
WTTC	WORLD TRAVEL AND TOURISM CENTRE

CHAPTER 1 - INTRODUCTION

1.1. BACKGROUND AND RATIONALE FOR THE STUDY

Eritrea is a young country, liberated from successive colonial rules as late as 1991. Various socio-economic problems have resulted from the devastating thirty-year liberation struggle. Eritrea's population is estimated to be 3.5 million. Of the total population, about 80-90 percent is engaged in subsistence agriculture (discussed further in Chapter Two).

Labour has a major role to play in enhancing economic development. This is especially true in Eritrea, where labour is abundant in relation to other resources, which were destroyed as a result of deliberate policies of successive colonial powers. Eritrea's abundant labour resource is not utilized appropriately, as there is a quantitative and qualitative discrepancy between demand for and supply of labour. At Independence, Eritrea inherited a large number of unemployed as a result of Ethiopia's policy of a centrally planned economy, which paralysed the whole economy in general, and the private sector in particular. The situation has been aggravated by an increasing number of Eritrean returnees (mostly from Ethiopia and the Sudan), demobilized combatants, and a sizeable number of school leavers and dropouts.

Though the total labour force is growing rapidly, there is an acute shortage of skilled manpower required in the different sectors of the economy. This situation calls for urgent corrective measures, which aim at both solving the problem of unemployment and ensuring maximum utilization of labour to bring about rapid economic development. It is envisaged that in the foreseeable future, the tourism sector will be able to absorb a large number of individuals, including those with no adequate pre-employment training.

To alleviate the various socio-economic problems facing the country a number of development policies and programmes have been formulated and implemented by the government, one of which is sustainable tourism development by the Ministry of Tourism.

{ It is widely believed that tourism contributes to economic development through its employment generation, foreign exchange earnings, government revenues, backward and forward economic linkages, and development of entrepreneurial, managerial and other skills. Tourism is a multi-

disciplinary activity that involves several industries of the economy and draws upon a variety of skills. For this reason, the benefits of tourism spread over a wider section of society than is the case with other sectors. If the tourism sector is to have a significant positive impact on the development of a given destination, it has to have the maximum linkage to other domestic sectors (Tisdell and Roy, 1998).

The Government of Eritrea is keenly aware of the importance of tourism for economic development and poverty alleviation. Eritrea promulgated its National Tourism Development Plan 2000 – 2020 in July 1999. The development plan spells out the policy of the sector as being to develop tourism on sustainable bases. The policy aims to conserve and enhance natural and cultural resources for tourism for continuous use in the future, while still bringing benefits to the present society and distributing them widely throughout the society. This will be achieved through government partnerships with the private sector and community members in developing the sector. Creation of a unique and safe atmosphere for tourists is targeted, and a marketing strategy for overseas tourists has been developed. The attraction of overseas Eritreans to visit their home country is considered an important component of international tourism. Tourism resources identified in the development plan include a rich cultural heritage, the existence of an attractive natural environment, beach and marine resort tourism, urban tourism, adventure tourism, health tourism, agro and rural tourism, business and conference tourism, and cruise tourism. The development plan comprises both national and regional components (EMOT, 1999).

According to the Heckscher–Ohlin theory of factor endowments, countries with an abundance of a certain resource will benefit from a comparative advantage for the production and export of products utilizing this resource. This is also true for natural resources, which are very important for international tourism because many tourism products use comparative advantages provided by a country's natural resources. Therefore, the international tourism specialization of a country will be directly linked to an abundance of the resource necessary to develop the supply of tourism products to be aimed at an international clientele. "Factor endowments are the basic components of the production of tourism products. They include natural resources (historic, artistic and cultural heritage), human resources in employment and skills and capital and infrastructure resources" (Vellas and Becherel, 1995: 64-66).

One of the key factors for maximizing the benefits of tourism for economic development is human resource development. Among other things, HRD is seen as a key factor for tourism development, like any other sector. By investing in the human factor, there is the potential to revitalize the sector, which in turn has an impact on the overall development of the country through its potential economic impact. The need to develop the required human resources in various segments of the tourism industry has

become imperative as a consequence of the rapid growth in tourism, rapidly changing technology and dynamic changes in the international tourism market.

Tourism is a labour intensive, 'people oriented' industry. As such, its success depends heavily on the availability of a high quality and committed work force. More specifically, there is a need to define human resource 'costs' as 'human investment to improve productivity' in the tourism sector. One of the more specific needs that must be specifically addressed is for enhanced development of the human resource base in tourism through education and training (Pearce and Butler, 1993: 193).

Thus there is a need to assess and analyse the human resources of the sector, i.e. whether HRD is really a decisive factor for Eritrea; and if that is the case, what kind of HRD and for whom; in which levels of management and specific areas of specialization; and which kinds and methods of training need to be implemented. Therefore, analysing and researching the interdependence between human resource development, tourism and economic growth is expected to produce relevant information for policy makers.

1.2. PURPOSE OF STUDY

The broad aim of this study is to highlight prospects for tourism development in Eritrea and its contribution to overall economic development, and to analyse the role of HRD in the tourism sector development.

More specifically, the key objectives of the study are as follows:

- To highlight the potential contribution of tourism development to economic growth and development, and to consider what kind of tourism development is feasible in Eritrea;
- To examine the role of human resources in tourism development;
- To draw up a detailed profile of the human resources currently employed in Eritrea's tourism sector; and

Based on the above, to identify specific deficiencies and HRD needs of the emerging Eritrean tourism industry, and make policy recommendations to enhance tourism's contribution to economic development in Eritrea.

1.3. METHODOLOGY

The study relies on economic theory as a foundation for analysing the empirical situation in Eritrea. Moreover, as tourism is multidisciplinary in nature, theories in other disciplines such as management will be used where necessary. Literature reviews will be undertaken to provide an understanding of the relationship between tourism and economic growth and development, and of the role of HRD in successful tourism development.

The HR of the Eritrean tourism sector will be quantitatively and qualitatively assessed by means of secondary data from EMOT and labour market information from the Ministry of Labour, and discrepancies between demand for and supply of labour will be identified. Moreover, a comprehensive survey will be undertaken of the human resource of the tourism establishments in the major centres, namely hotels, pensions, restaurants, travel agents, air lines, car hire, boat hire, recreation centres, as well as EMOT. (See Appendices 1 and 2 for the questionnaire and forms for human resource assessment.) Existing training programmes will be evaluated by means of a review of government papers and interviews with tourism role-players in the government and private sectors. These findings will be used to arrive at policy recommendations.

1.4. STRUCTURE OF THE STUDY

This chapter has set out the basic background and rationale for the study. As the study focuses on the Eritrean situation, the socio-economic background of Eritrea is presented and discussed in Chapter Two.

Chapter Three provides the conceptual framework for the study, reviewing the definitions of the key concepts under discussion (importantly, *tourism*, *sustainable tourism development* and *human resource development*) and exploring key features of tourism employment that make HRD particularly pertinent to this industry.

The role of tourism development in promoting economic growth is discussed in Chapter Four, based on a review of the relevant theoretical literature and empirical evidence. Tourism trends worldwide and in Africa, East Africa, and Eritrea are then considered. Thereafter, the discussion turns to the role of HRD in economic development in general, and tourism development in particular. In economic terms, HRD can be seen as investment in human capital; this perspective is also presented here.

In Chapters Five and Six, following an explanation of the methodology used in conducting the primary research for the study, a comprehensive, quantitative and qualitative assessment and analysis of the HR of the Eritrean tourism sector is presented and discussed.

In the last chapter, based on the overall analysis and discussions, conclusions are drawn as to what should be done in order to maximize the contribution of tourism to economic development in Eritrea. Focusing on the role of HRD, recommendations are made regarding the optimisation of the contribution of the human resources of the tourism sector.

CHAPTER 2 - SOCIO-ECONOMIC BACKGROUND OF ERITREA

2.1. A BRIEF HISTORY OF ERITREA

Eritrea is a young African country in that although its existence dates back more than 100 years, until recently it was ruled by various successive colonial regimes. An independent country was born declared in 1991 after a thirty-year liberation struggle, and received international recognition in 1993.

Before the advent of Italian colonial rule, at the end of the 19th century, the history of Eritrea was characterized by the domination of various powers, such as the Turks and the Egyptians. From 1557, the Massawa coastal area was under the rule of the Ottomans until the Egyptians took possession in 1865. The Italians took possession in 1889 when they formally declared Eritrea as their colony. Italian rule lasted till 1941, when the British at the onset of World War II ousted them. Eritrea was placed under British military administration until 1952, when it was federated with Ethiopia (1952-1962) and was finally annexed by Ethiopia. The unpopular Federation and Ethiopia's subsequent annexation of Eritrea led to an armed struggle for liberation, which began in September 1961 and lasted for 30 years. Eritrea, after 100 years of successive colonial rule and after a thirty-year protracted struggle for liberation against annexation by Ethiopia, became independent on 24 May 1991. Its sovereignty and territorial integrity were ascertained through a UN supervised referendum in April 1993, which was supported by 99.805% of the population (EMOI, 2003 and EMOT, 2000).

A two and a half year border war with Ethiopia that erupted in 1998 ended under UN auspices on 12 December 2000. Eritrea currently hosts a UN peacekeeping operation that will monitor the border region until an international commission determines and demarcates the boundary between the two countries.

2.2. GEOGRAPHIC LOCATION

Eritrea is located in the horn of Africa north of the Equator and lies between 12 and 18 degrees north latitude and 36 and 44 degrees east longitude (See Map in Appendix 6). Eritrea is bounded to the northeast by the Red Sea (over 1200 kms or 700 miles long), to the southeast by Djibouti, to the south by Ethiopia, to the North and West by Sudan. Eritrea is also bordered by Saudi Arabia and Yemen across the Red Sea. Eritrea covers an area of 125,000 square kilometres or 45,754 square miles,

including the over 350 islands of the Dahlak Archipelago. It has more than 1200 kms of pure, pristine coastline, two deep-water ports (Massawa and Assab) and a great variety of cultural, natural, historical and archaeological attractions. Eritrea comprises three main geographical and climatic zones: the eastern slope and coastal plains, the Highland and the Western Lowlands (EMOT, 2000).

The geographic location of Eritrea along the Red Sea provides strategic control of the entrance to the Indian Ocean from the Suez Canal and serves as a crossroad and bridge between the rest of Africa and the Middle East. The strategic stretch of the Red Sea is a gateway that links the Mediterranean Sea and the Indian Ocean. Thus this strategic location of Eritrea is an advantage to the country, being in proximity to the world major tourist destinations of Europe, Africa, the Middle East, and South East Asia.

2.3. POPULATION

The population of Eritrea is estimated to range from 3,520,000 to 4,000,000; out of these about 1 million live outside the country, basically owing to the colonial situation that prevailed in the country for three decades. At present nine nationalities or ethnic groups inhabit Eritrea. These are the Afar, Kunama, Hidareb, Bilen, Rashaida, Saho, Tigre and Tigrigna. Moslems and Christians (primarily Orthodox, but also Catholic and Protestant) make up the overwhelming majority of the Eritrean population. The people are engaged predominantly in agricultural and pastoral activities. 20 percent of the population is believed to live in urban centres, in cities and towns (EMOI, 2003).

2.4. NATURAL RESOURCES

Eritrea is strategically located on an important international shipping route, possessing more than 1200 kilometres of coastline. With its varied climate and topography it is endowed with natural resources necessary for development of agriculture, fisheries, industry and mining. Its economy is predominantly agricultural.

Eritrea has promising agricultural potential particularly in the western and eastern lowlands. It is also endowed with high quality breeds of cattle and sheep. The country's once abundant flora and fauna appear to be recovering. Eritrea is endowed with sizeable quantities of a variety of mineral deposits which are commercially significant such as gold, silver, copper, zinc, lead, iron, potash, sulphur, gypsum, feldspar, silica sand, granite, marble, slate and limestone. Gas and oil deposits are also believed to exist in the Red Sea area. Eritrea's coastline yields fisheries, water desalination plants and tourist attractions (EMOI, 2003).

2.5. SOCIO-ECONOMIC BACKGROUND

The effects of the three decades of war have been quite devastating. The economy as well as the nation's human resource base, especially the skilled and trained manpower, has undergone extensive deterioration. Educational institutions at all levels have suffered severely. The quality of teaching, academic standards and discipline, have all witnessed untold degradation.

Before the liberation war period, the Eritrean commercial and subsistence agricultural sectors were extremely active and productive. A wide variety of cereal, vegetable, fruit, and other crops as well as livestock products fed both domestic and export markets. Trade in food products was once the country's foreign exchange earning mainstay. An industrial sector, based mostly on light manufacturing plants for processed food, textiles, and chemicals, also figured importantly in what was generally regarded as a modest but healthy, vigorous, and mostly self-sufficient economy. The situation at the time of liberation was dramatically reversed. Eritrea's economy and infrastructure were critically damaged, and in some parts of the country almost totally destroyed, during the years of warfare and attendant population displacements, and by the acts of misadministration and mismanagement of the former regime (EMOFI, 1993).

The war, drought, and rigid policies of Ethiopian 'Dergue' (socialist rule) contributed to extreme and widespread poverty in Eritrea. Eritrea is among the poorest countries in Sub Saharan Africa (SSA). Poverty is both a rural and an urban phenomenon. The country's education and health indicators all reveal a picture below the average for SSA. Illiteracy rates stand at 80% versus 50% across SSA as a whole. The gross enrolment rate for primary schooling is 50% versus 67% for SSA, and for secondary schooling is 14% versus 18%. Life expectancy is 46 years versus 52 years for SSA. The infant mortality rate is 76 per 1000 live births versus 93 per 1000 for SSA (UOA, 1998).

At liberation in May 1991, Eritrea inherited various socio-economic problems resulting from the devastating three-decade liberation struggle. Enterprises were non-operational or working at low capacity, food production had declined, and infrastructure including roads, ports, and water supply, had been ruined. Its human resource base had also depreciated during this period. Exports, which used to be as high as US \$ 100 million in the early 1970s, had declined to less than US \$ 10 million in 1992. Despite these facts the country has shown tremendous improvement in economic growth, recording growth as high as 67% per annum in the first 8 years of its existence, which was later curtailed due to the border conflict with neighbouring country Ethiopia. Over 1992-2002, real GDP grew at an average rate of 5% per annum.

Since winning its independence, Eritrea has demonstrated a strong dedication to the goals of nation building, economic reconstruction and rehabilitation and pragmatic support for a liberal market economy, based on the policy of self-reliance. Due to enormous problems following the war with Ethiopia and recurrent droughts, however, the government of Eritrea had to appeal to the outside world for humanitarian and development assistance.

Like the economies of many African nations, the economy is largely based on subsistence agriculture, with 80% of the population involved in farming and herding. It is estimated that more than 80% of the population depends on the production of crops, livestock and fisheries for income and employment. The current contribution of agriculture to GDP is low: agriculture, including livestock, fisheries, and forestry, on average accounted for just 21% of national output for the years 1992 – 2002, as compared to service sector which accounts for about 60% for the same period (See Appendix 3 Table 2.1).

2.6. TOURISM POTENTIAL

Situated along the Red Sea coast, Eritrea is a historical place with fascinating scenery. Its coastline provides recreational facilities, which include beaches, islands, marine parks, sport fishing, sailing, scuba diving, mountain hiking, camping grounds, hot springs, spas, and deserts. Many of the country's historical sites and buildings are of international architectural importance and are being restored as a national heritage. A recent additional attraction consists of hundreds of kilometres of trenches, containing underground hospitals and factories built during the armed struggle. Investment opportunities in the tourism industry include the construction and operation of hotels and related facilities, development and operation of recreation spots or facilities, tour service operation (domestic and interregional), and the exploration and development of historical sites (EMOT, 1999).

Based on the scenic and topographic diversity of the country, this sector has huge potential to attract foreign investment. The coastline of pristine sandy beaches, the many islands and the clear water with abundant marine life makes development of recreational facilities a viable possibility. Apart from this, health spas and mountain hiking trails can be developed.

Tourism, however, has become a fiercely competitive business. For tourism destinations, competitive advantages are no longer based solely on natural resources, but increasingly on man-made resources driven by science, technology, information and innovation. As such it is not simply the stock of natural resources of Eritrea that will determine the country's competitiveness in tourism, but rather, how these resources are managed and to what extent they are complemented with man-made innovations.

The national tourism development plan acknowledges that, with its many natural and cultural attractions and a location relatively near to the major tourist markets in Europe and the Middle East, Eritrea could participate in the growth and benefits of tourism. Notwithstanding all the above-mentioned advantages, Eritrea has not been able to realise its full potential in tourism. As such the contribution of tourism to employment, small business development income and foreign earnings remains limited (EMOT, 1999).

2.7. CONCLUSION

This chapter has demonstrated not only Eritrea's urgent need for economic growth and development, but also the country's potential as an exceptional tourist destination. The following chapter provides a conceptual framework for the further examination of tourism as a development instrument, and of the role of the sector's human resources.

CHAPTER 3 - CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

Before the potential contribution of tourism can be discussed, or the role of human resources in its development be can be assessed, it is necessary to establish some definitions of the key concepts under discussion (specifically, *tourism, sustainable tourism development* and *human resource development*). This chapter sets out to provide those definitions, and thereafter identifies some particular characteristics of employment in tourism that make HRD especially pertinent to this industry.

3.1. DEFINING TOURISM

According to many scholars such as Lundberg (1995), Middleton (in Bennett 1995), McIntosh, Robert Goeldner and Charles R. (1995), and Holloway (1998), definitions of tourism vary considerably and are constantly evolving. For example, Lea found that “the word tourism is capable of diverse interpretation with one survey of eighty different studies finding 43 definitions for the terms Traveller, Tourist, and Visitor” (Lea 1993: 4). Some restrict the definition of tourism to numbers of miles away from home, or overnight stays in paid accommodation, while other authors consider only travel for the purpose of pleasure or leisure. Others even think that tourism should not be referred to as an industry. All the definitions show that tourism has several dimensions and complex interactions and their consequences that occur before, during, and after a tourist trip. Consequently tourism as a concept can be viewed from different perspectives. It is an activity in which people are engaged in travel away from home primarily for business or pleasure. It is a business providing goods and services to travellers, and involves any expenditure incurred by or for a visitor for his trip.

In view of Tucker and Sunberg (1988:145) tourism is not a conventional industry, but rather a composite of a number of industries including transportation, attractions, accommodation, food services, retail trade, and so on. Non-tourists also purchase many of the commodities produced by these tourism industries. Further, tourists also purchase non-tourism commodities such as groceries, newspapers, clothing, and health care products that are not accounted for in tourism statistics. For this reason, Tisdell and Roy (1998) have argued that there has been much controversy about what constitutes the tourism industry and a tourist.

Because of these conceptual difficulties and the multidimensional nature of tourism, it is not easy to show the contribution of tourism to national GDP and national employment levels. It is often included with the services industries.

Bennett proposed tourism to involve the following elements:

- Activities concerned solely with aspects of daily life outside the natural routines of work and social commitments;
- Travel and transportation to and from the destination;
- Activities engaged in during the stay at the destination;
- Facilities provided to cater for the needs of tourists (Bennett 1995:6).

What can be concluded from the above is that researchers face an array of tourism definitions in the literature depending on the type, scale and geographical location of tourism activity under study. Perhaps the most useful and comprehensive definition for the purpose of this paper is the one suggested by the World Tourism Organisation (WTO), which describes tourism as follows:

Tourism comprises the activities of persons travelling to and staying in places outside their usual environment for not more than one consecutive year for leisure, business, or other purposes not related to the exercise of an activity remunerated from within the place visited (Holloway 1998:2).

In the context of the Eritrean Ministry of Tourism, the latter definition is used, and tourism is considered as an overarching business comprising various components, such as hotels, pensions, boat hire, car rental, airlines, railroads, travel agents, tour operators, and restaurants, that sell goods and services or entertain tourists. A tourist is anyone who has travelled to a community but who does not plan to stay there on a permanent basis. Included as reasons for making tourist trips are vacations, sightseeing, business trips, visits to friends and relatives, attendance at conventions, special events such as festivals, and participation in a sports event.

3.2. DEFINING SUSTAINABLE TOURISM DEVELOPMENT

It has been argued by many authors that tourism should lend itself to the concept of sustainable development because in so many cases, tourism growth depends upon maintenance of the natural environment and natural processes for its development (Wahab and Pigram 1997). The environment is a resource base for tourism development. As a result, tourism can certainly contribute to

environmental degradation and be self-destructive; it also has potential to bring about significant enhancement of the environment (Pigram 1993).

Among other things, the success of tourism depends on the availability of natural resources (including cultural and historical resources) a country possesses. Since these resources are not unlimited, it is imperative to use and exploit them in a wise manner. Moreover these resources belong not only to the present generation but also all incoming generations. Therefore, they should be exploited in such a manner that each generation transfers at least the equal natural resources as it inherited from its predecessors to its successive generation. Each generation must care for the next generation. Sustainability can be seen as a question of inheritance of resources both natural and man-made from generation to generation on a continuous basis (Pearce and Butler 1990).

The WTO has provided the following comprehensive definition of sustainable tourism development:

Sustainable tourism development meets the needs of present tourists and host regions while protecting and enhancing opportunities for the future. It is envisaged as leading to management of all resources in such a way that economic, social and aesthetic needs can be fulfilled, while maintaining cultural integrity, essential ecological processes, biological diversity and life support systems. (WTO 1995: 30 as cited in Wahab and Pigram 1997: 278).

For the tourism sector, the concept of sustainability implies meeting current uses and demands of tourism without impairing the natural and cultural heritage, or opportunities for collective enjoyment of tourists of the future (Hawickes and Milhams 1993 as cited in Wahab and Pigram 1997).

Thus the concept of sustainability expresses the idea that humankind must live within the capacity of the environment to support it or in an environmentally friendly manner. The guiding principles to achieve such an objective as suggested by Wahab and Pigram (1997) include the following:

- Conservation and enhancement of ecological processes;
- Protection of biological diversity;
- Equity within and between generations;
- Integration of environmental, social, economic considerations.

The Government of Eritrea is keenly aware of the importance of tourism to economic development and poverty alleviation. Eritrea promulgated its National Tourism Development Plan 2000 – 2020 in July 1999. The development plan spells out a policy of the sector as being to develop tourism on

sustainable bases. The policy aims to conserve and enhance the natural and cultural resources for tourism for continuous use in the future, while still bringing benefits to the present society and ensuring that the benefits of tourism are widely distributed throughout the society. This would be achieved through government partnership with the private sector and community members in developing the sector. Creation of a unique and safe atmosphere for tourists is targeted, and a marketing strategy for overseas tourists has been developed. Attraction of overseas Eritreans to visit their home country is considered an important component of international tourism. Tourism resources identified in the development plan include a rich cultural heritage, existence of an attractive natural environment, beach and marine resort tourism, urban tourism, adventure tourism, health tourism, agro and rural tourism, business and conference tourism, and cruise tourism. The development plan comprises both national and regional components (EMOT 1999).

3.3. DEFINING HUMAN RESOURCE DEVELOPMENT (HRD)

A consideration of various authors' definitions of 'human resource development' (HRD) is undertaken here, to reach an understanding of what is meant by HRD in the context of this dissertation.

According to Muqtada and Hildeman (1993), HRD in an integrated sense encompasses education and training, health care, nutrition, population policies and employment.

Gilley and Egglund proposed the following narrative definition of HRD:

The mission of HRD is to provide *individual development* in order to improve the performance related to a current job; to provide *career development* in order to improve performance related to future jobs; and to provide *organizational development (OD)* related to both optimal utilization of human resources and improved performance, which together lead to the efficiency of the organization (Gilley and Egglund 1989: 14).

Rothwell defined HRD from the perspective of an individual organization as:

the process of changing an organization, stakeholders outside it, groups inside it, and people employed by it through planned learning so that they possess knowledge and skills needed in the future (Rothwell 1989: 16).

Similarly, Doswel explained that:

HRD covering education and training at all levels addresses 1) to offer competitive conditions and career opportunities to ensure the adequate recruitment of all levels of personnel, 2) to provide educational and training opportunities for all occupations and specializations at agreed and specified levels of skill wherever necessary in the country (Doswel 1997: 265-6).

Harbison and Myers provided an economic perspective on HRD, which they define as:

the process of increasing the knowledge, the skills, and the capacities of all the people in a society. In economic terms, it could be described as the accumulation of human capital and its investment in the development of an economy (Harbison and Myers 1964:2).

They further explained that human resources are developed in many ways, including:

- Formal education (primary, secondary, higher education, technical and vocational institutes);
- On the job training (through systematic or informal training programs in employing institutions including experience);
- Adult education programmes;
- Self development (correspondence or self reading);
- Improvements in the health of the working population through better medical and public health programs;
- Improvements in nutrition, which increase the working capacity of people, on a man-hour basis as well as over a working life.

Some economists such as Salvatore and Dowling use human capital as a synonym for HRD, defining it as follows:

Human capital refers to the productive quantities embodied in the labour force. These refer to the level of education, skills, health, and nutrition of the labour force. The more educated, skilled, healthy and well nourished the labour force, the more human capital is said to have embodied and the greater is its productivity and income (Salvatore and Dowling 1977: 23).

From the above definitions, HRD is most commonly defined as bringing quantitative and qualitative enhancement to human resources as a factor of development, so as to increase performance and productivity. It encompasses education, training, organizational development, career development,

health care, nutrition, population policies and employment. All these components are aimed at developing or improving individual, group, and organizational efficiency and effectiveness.

For the purpose of this dissertation, HRD is taken as referring to the integrated use of education and training to develop the productive capacity of individuals, groups, organisations and institutions. The other aspects of HRD, though important, will not be considered here. The education, training and development to be dealt with will be looked at from the perspective of how they relate to economic development.

3.4. CHARACTERISTICS OF TOURISM EMPLOYMENT

In order to determine why HRD is necessary for tourism, as well as the nature and extent of development required, it is necessary to discuss some key characteristics of tourism employment.

As explained in the section defining tourism above, tourism comprises establishments that provide goods and services to tourists' prior their departure at their origin, during travel as well as during their stay at their destination. Hence tourism establishments mainly include tour operators, travel agents, transport, accommodation, catering, and leisure and business facilities. Thus direct employment in tourism includes the variety of jobs done by people working in these establishments.

According to Davidson (1993), tourism employment possesses the following special characteristics.

Shift and overtime work: As tourists' needs must be met both day and night, shift and overtime work are an important feature of tourism employment. As a result, hours of work are often outside the normal office hours, and can be long and irregular.

Seasonality in demand: Often, the tourism sector suffers from seasonal fluctuations in demand. This creates a lack of continuity in operation. As a result, employment in tourism is affected by seasonality, i.e. it fluctuates between on and off seasons.

Contacts with non-local residents: Even though tourism establishments may also serve locals, most of the time customers in tourism are non-locals who are on vacation or on business or VFR (visiting friends and relatives). As a result, tourism workers are in regular contact with visitors from outside their region or country.

Enjoyment for others: Tourism staff work in the sphere of providing enjoyment for others. Thus tourism workers are expected to work hard to receive, feed, entertain, inform and clean up for tourists

of heterogeneous nationalities, status, occupation, culture, gender, and religion, who may not always be polite or pleasant to deal with. They are therefore required to possess patience and tolerance.

3.5. ATTITUDES AND FEELINGS IN TOURISM

Tourism involves hospitality, which itself involves significant exchanges of feelings between the host and the guest. This means that the warmth and concern of the server are critical components of quality service. In this regard the service employee must pay attention, not only to meeting customers' expectations but exceeding them. On the other hand, the employee's personal feelings and attitudes may be an important factor in determining how that employee functions in relation to the guest (Hartline and Ferrell 1996). Such attitudes are most significant when displayed by the workers responsible for delivery of front-line tourism services.

Attitudes towards tourism are an important factor in determining how the host-employees and the tourists interact. The issue is so important that initiatives in many countries involve investing heavily in programmes that pay attention to "professionalisation" of the industry, and to socializing tourism workers and the wider community to the importance of tourism.

As Davidson argued, the people who work in tourism are the key factors in the success of that industry. He further emphasized this by saying "attractive hotels, excellent transport networks, and a number of interesting things to see and do will not, by themselves, succeed in attracting tourists if the people working in the industry do not come up to the tourists' expectations"(Davidson 1993: 191).

Davis et al (1999: 203) as cited in Harisson (2001), support this view, saying that,

Human resource managers in tourism face numerous challenges, including the nature of tourism employment (which is often unskilled, seasonal, part-time, or casual), the low pay and little training workers receive. Coupled with a lack of employer commitment, these all may result in high labour turnover. As a consequence the industry is viewed as an industry lacking a firm career structure, being an employer of temporary staff, who tend to be working there while looking for a real job.

In order to serve satisfactorily or to meet the expectations of tourism or to offer superior service, the whole range of tourism staff should be equipped with the necessary skills and attitudes. Happy customers, in this case tourists, are not only return customers but also will pass on their best memories and experiences to others, mainly their friends and relatives. That is to say, offering superior service is one way of promoting the tourism product. Thus to acquire the necessary skills and attitudes all

tourism staff, employers and other stakeholders should be trained and educated so as to develop professionalism in the tourism sector.

3.6. TOURISM SKILLS AND REQUIREMENTS

In order to address the above-mentioned special tourism employment characteristics and attitudes, Davidson (1993) has suggested those working in tourism need to demonstrate the following special skills and requirements.

3.6.1. Occupational Skills

These are the basic skills that enable people working in tourism to do their jobs competently. For example a waiter must know how to take orders from tourists and how to serve food and beverage; similarly a chef must be able to cook foods, and a marketing specialist must know how to market the products and so on.

3.6.2. Customer Relations Skills

Every tourism establishment and its staff should work effectively and efficiently to satisfy tourists or to meet their expectations wholly and fully. Thus in addition to occupational skills, tourism staff are required to have customers relations skills. These are skills related to making tourists feel comfortable or welcome, properly looked after, and confident that they are receiving the standard of service they expect. They expect the tourism staff to be cheerful, polite and helpful at all times. Customer relations skills also include the ability to deal with complaints.

3.6.3. Information Skills

The other skills required by tourism staff are information skills. As tourists are away from their usual residences and are currently in unfamiliar places, they need information on a variety of topics such as travel directions, explanations of unfamiliar items on menus, where places are and what is there to see and do locally, and information on the history and traditions of places they are visiting. Tourism staff should be ready to provide tourists with such information confidently and accurately.

3.6.4. Foreign Language Skills

Most of the time tourists are not expected to know the national language (in the case of international tourists) or local language (in the case of domestic tourists). In order to perform the above-mentioned

skills appropriately, therefore, tourism staff should at least know internationally spoken languages such as English, French, Arabic and other languages of the majority of visitors to the tourist destinations.

3.6.5. Reward, Recognition And Employee Motivation

For the individual worker, the delivery of quality service is based on desire or motivation. Motivation is shaped in part by attitudes, which were discussed earlier. It is also influenced by whether or not the jobholders perceive that their needs are being met by the organization. Workers can be motivated primarily by money i.e. they would be more productive and satisfied on the job if they received more pay. They can also be motivated by more recognition and appreciation that would make them more productive and satisfied. Workers' motivation and hence performance is also affected by equity in relative pay and not only the absolute amounts. Thus it is important that managers pay attention to any concern about equity, since there may be a relationship between contact employees' perceptions of fairness and their customer service behaviours (Bettencourt and Brown 1997). This concern also extends to perceptions about the fairness of job supervision, pay and promotion rules.

3.7. CONCLUSION

This chapter has considered and defined the key concepts that are the subject matter of the investigation discussed in the subsequent chapters. Chapter 4 reviews the literature pertaining to the role of tourism as an instrument of development, and considers the contribution of HRD to development in more depth.

CHAPTER 4 - THE ROLE OF TOURISM DEVELOPMENT AND OF HRD IN THE TOURISM SECTOR, IN PROMOTING ECONOMIC GROWTH

Based on the available literature reviews, after analysing and discussing how the development of tourism contributes to economic development, this chapter will also show the role of HRD in economic development in general and tourism development in particular. In order to show empirical evidence relating to the tourism sector, tourism trends worldwide, as well as in Africa, East Africa and Eritrea will be analysed and discussed in this chapter.

4.1. TOURISM AND DEVELOPMENT

It is widely believed that tourism development is a pathway to economic development through its various contributions or impacts. Thus in many countries nowadays, the importance of tourism's contribution to the national economy is readily apparent. Many national leaders in Africa have recognized tourism's economic significance; for example in 1999 in Seychelles, Namibia, and Mauritius, tourism contributed over 20% of GDP. In other countries such as Mozambique, Zimbabwe, Tanzania, and Botswana, tourism represented 10-15% of GDP. In South Africa, Swaziland, Zambia, and Angola, tourism accounted for 5-10% of GDP (Christie and Crompton, 2001: 42).

Tourism is a multi-disciplinary activity that involves several industries and draws upon a variety of skills. For this reason, the benefits of tourism are spread over a wider section of society than is the case with other sectors. If the tourism sector is to have a significant positive impact on the development of a given destination, it has to have the maximum linkage to other domestic sectors (Tisdell and Roy, 1998).

However, some authors have argued that as tourism is a relatively income elastic commodity, both expenditure on tourism and time spent in tourism tend to be considerably higher in developed countries compared to developing countries. Furthermore, they claim that it is not tourism that permits development, but development that permits tourism. This could be partly true in the case of outbound and domestic tourism, but not in the case of inbound tourism, as the latter is not determined by the host country's income level or purchasing power but rather by that of the origin country. As shown in

Tables 4.1 and 4.2 (Appendix 3), the top 15 tourism spenders and earners are mainly developed countries.

The works of many authors such as Tisdell and Roy (1998), Doswel (1997), Tribe (1999), Theobald (1998), and Davidson (1993), detail and discuss how tourism contributes to economic development through its employment generation, foreign exchange earnings, government revenues, multiplier effects, development of infrastructure, and development of entrepreneurial and other skills.

4.1.1. Employment Generation

In the conceptual framework, it has been shown that tourism industry mainly comprises establishments that work for the satisfaction of tourists, i.e. organizing and arranging travel, guides, transport, food, accommodation, and entertainment for tourists. Thus employment in tourism involves the direct employment in these establishments mainly in hotels, restaurants and fast food cafés, tour operations and travel agents, airlines, car hire, boat hire, handicrafts and souvenir shops catering to tourists; and indirect employment of workers working in the establishments that supply goods and services to tourism establishments. Apart from these, employment in tourism also includes induced employment generated from local spending out of the salaries and wages of tourism employees as well as of profits earned by businesses. The tourism industry provides jobs that range from unskilled manual labour to positions for highly trained and educated professionals. Moreover, as Theobald (1998:65) claims, “tourism is more effective than other industries in generating employment and income in relatively less developed, often outlying regions of a country where alternative opportunities for development are more limited.” In addition to the above, employment is also created during the construction of tourism establishments and infrastructure.

Davidson (1993) has argued that as the tourism industry is labour intensive, it is much cheaper or requires less capital investment to create a job in tourism than in other industries. Tisdell and Roy (1998) has counter-argued that there is little or no evidence to support this as a generalization. While it may be the case for low standard traditional hotels, job creation in high standard modern hotels, which mainly rely on computerized production of goods and services, is not necessarily less capital intensive than in the rest of the economy.

Nonetheless, tourism is a significant employer worldwide. To take some real world examples:

- As the largest business sector in the world economy, tourism employs 200 million people, generates \$3.6 trillion in economic activity and accounts for one in every 12 jobs worldwide. (UNESCO, 2003).

- In Australia, tourism generated a total (direct and indirect) of 853,500 jobs in 1997-98 (10% of national employment), out of which the direct effects of tourism created 512,900 jobs (6% of national employment) while the indirect effects created 340,600 jobs (4% of national employment). In 2000-01, the number of persons directly employed by tourism had grown to 551,000 persons (World Tourism Organization 2000).
- In China, tourism generated a total of 27.6 million jobs (4% of total employment), out of which the direct effects of tourism created only 16.7%, indirect employment was 29.3% and induced employment was 54.0% (Yan and Wall 2001: 269).
- In 1999 tourism represented nearly 28% of all jobs in Mauritius and over 20% in Seychelles and Namibia, compared to 3.9% in Malawi and 4.6% in Congo. In other countries, like Tanzania, Zimbabwe, Mozambique and Botswana, tourism employment represents between 10-15%, while in Swaziland, South Africa, Zambia, and Angola it represents 5-10% of total employment (Christie and Crompton 2001: 43).

4.1.2. Foreign Exchange Earnings

Tourists, both domestic and international, since they are away from their usual residences, have to rely on the tourism establishments for their needs and wants. Tourism establishments, by nature, are opened to supply goods and services demanded by tourists, who in return have to pay money. These receipts of money are an injection (with multiplier effects) to the local economy in the case of domestic tourism; and similarly an injection (with multiplier effects) to the national economy in the case of international tourism. Hence, tourism stakeholders should strive hard to make the tourists stay longer and spend more so as to maximize the contribution from tourism. In particular, the latter group of tourists, since they are coming from abroad, brings foreign currency to the host country. This being the gross foreign exchange earning to the host country, the repatriation of foreign exchange earnings of foreigners working in tourism and of profits and dividends earned from tourism enterprises owned by non-nationals should be deducted, to arrive at the net foreign exchange earnings. International tourism is regarded as an invisible export because of its potential to bring in a flow of foreign exchange into the economy of a destination country through the provision of services to overseas visitors. Similarly domestic tourism has economic effects upon host regions of a country by distributing income spatially within the boundary of the country (Davidson, 1993, and Theobald, 1998).

Tourism is one of the top five export categories for as many as 83% of countries and is a main source of foreign exchange earnings for at least 38% of countries (World Tourism Organization 2000). In Malta, for example, with only 380,000 residents, tourism generated more than \$650 million in foreign

exchange earnings as 25% of GDP (and indirectly 40%) from 1.2 million tourists in 1999. Similarly 20% of Nepal's foreign exchange earnings are contributed by the tourism sector (UNEP 2002). In 1997, tourism in Ghana brought in about \$521 million in foreign exchange, representing 17% of total foreign exchange earnings (Christie and Crompton, 2001: 28).

This contribution of tourism, however, is highly sensitive to internal, regional or even international political instability. Especially when countries such as Malta have a limited number of export products, high dependence on tourism makes their trade performance vulnerable to shifts in international demand. For this reason tourism is termed by Tisdell and Roy (1998), as a volatile earner of foreign exchange or economically vulnerable sector. Thus many do not recommend a high degree of dependence on inbound tourism.

4.1.3. Contribution To Government Revenues

Another important contribution of tourism is the generation of government revenues. These revenues are generated primarily by taxes on incomes from tourism employment and tourism establishments' income taxes, custom duties, as well as from tourists' entry and exit visa permit payments. There are also indirect contributions which are originated from taxes and duties levied on goods and services supplied to tourists. For example in Ghana in 1997, tourism contributed an estimated \$304 million to government revenues (Christie and Crompton 2001:28).

4.1.4. Multiplier Effects

The abovementioned tourism expenditures or receipts do not stop there. Rather some portion of the tourism receipts of business establishments, tourism workers and governments are re-spent within the destination economy thereby creating further rounds of economic activity, or multiplier effects. This re-spending of tourism expenditures generates income and employment and hence economic growth. To maximize the multiplier effects (linkages) or to reduce the leakages, the economy should be highly integrated, that is, there should be considerable local purchases of goods and services for tourism. Greater leakages of tourism receipts to pay for imported goods and services reduce the multiplier effect. Likewise, the more the country relies on expatriate staff and owners of tourism establishments, the greater will be the leakage, or the less will be the multiplier effect (Theobald, 1998). It can be concluded that tourism can be an important catalyst to other economic sectors by providing a market for goods and services from other sectors such as agriculture, fishing and manufacturing.

There are other local revenues that are not easily quantified, as not all tourist expenditures are formally registered in the macro-economic statistics. Money is earned from tourism through informal

employment such as street vendors, informal guides and taxi drivers. The positive side of informal or unreported employment is that the money is returned to the local economy, and has multiplier effects in successive rounds of spending.

4.1.5. Development Of Infrastructure

No matter how diverse and attractive the tourist destinations a country possesses, if they are not easily accessible, the country is not in a position to benefit from its tourism potential. Thus development of infrastructure is a precondition for the full utilization of tourism potential. In this way, tourism aids the development of infrastructure such as road, bridge and airport construction in a tourist attraction's locality. However, in many cases, as these infrastructures are public domain or economically indivisible, they are open to use for other purposes, such as providing access for wider markets of locally produced goods and services. Thus tourism is acting as a locomotive for regional development (Tisdell and Roy, 1998). Tourism, therefore, can be a significant, even essential, part of the local economy. Furthermore, as the environment is a basic component of the tourism industry's assets, tourism revenues are often used to measure the economic value of protected areas in any given locality. Tourism can thus lead to the protection and maintenance of a country's natural assets.

4.1.6. Development Of Entrepreneurial And Other Skills

Last but not least, the economic impact of tourism development, impacts the development of entrepreneurial skills that are easily transferable to other sectors of the economy, through the establishment and management of tourism establishments, which most commonly are small-scale enterprises. There is also the possibility of learning other skills including foreign language competencies, hospitality and customer care skills, and interpersonal communications, all of which are easily transferable to other sectors of the economy. Thus governments should encourage more locally owned and managed small tourism enterprises.

4.1.7. Other Impacts Of Tourism

Although tourism has the potential of bringing benefits such as foreign exchange earnings, employment generation, higher government revenues, multiplier effects, and others, as has been discussed above, these are not without cost. The potential negative impacts, such as environmental degradation and pollution, as well as the socio-cultural impacts both at local and national level, are considered to provide the second edge of the two-edged sword of tourism. Some tourism activities such as trekking and camping have caused environmental pollution from unhygienic disposal of human waste, discharge of sewerage effluent into water sources, and littering. Without strict

regulations on appropriate land use, the erection of high-rise buildings such as tourist hotels, and control over the overwhelming number of tourists, congestion and the spoiling of much of the local scenery in some parts of the world with continue to occur.

Poorly planned tourism can mean that foreign visitors, with different values, invade villages, disrupting local rural culture. A decline in the participation in rural traditional and cultural practices follows. Modern buildings replace traditional houses, as the local culture is eroded. This initiates, therefore, the searching for less destructive approaches that minimize the negative impacts while maximizing the positive impacts. Many countries, including Eritrea, are opting for sustainable tourism, including rural tourism and eco-tourism, which causes little or no harmful impact, and generates increasing benefits to rural areas in terms of rural productivity, employment, improved distribution of wealth, conservation of the rural environment and culture, local people's involvement, and a suitable way of adapting traditional beliefs and values to modern times (Middleton and Hawkins, 1998).

4.2. EMPIRICAL EVIDENCE OF TOURISM TRENDS

In the previous section, the link between tourism development and economic development was discussed. In order to substantiate this link empirically, tourism trends worldwide, in Africa, in East Africa, and in Eritrea will be analysed and discussed in this section.

4.2.1. Tourism Trends Worldwide

Tourism is one of the world's fastest growing industries and provides a major source of foreign exchange earning and employment for many countries. Thus it is not considered without reason to be one of the most dynamic socio-economic sectors of the world.

According to the World Tourism Organization, in 2000, global tourist arrivals totalled to some 697 million, spending more than US\$478 billion. This is an increase of 6.8 percent from 1999 but fell by 0.6% or some 4 million to 693 million in 2001 (Table 4.3). Not all regions and countries, however, benefit equally from tourism. For instance, as can be observed in Table 4.4, in 2001 the highest share (57.7%) is reflected by Europe, followed by America (17.4%) and East Asia (16.6%). In the same year Africa, the Middle East and South Asia shared, very minimally, altogether less than 10%.

Moreover, the World Tourism Organization (WTO) estimates

'International tourism receipts, combined with passenger transport in 2001, total more than US\$575 billion - making tourism the world's number one export earner, ahead of automotive

products, chemicals, petroleum and food. Tourism employs 204 million people worldwide or one in every twelve workers, 10.6 percent of the global workforce. Tourism is the world's leading economic contributor, producing an incredible 10.2 percent of the world's gross national product. Tourism is the leading producer of tax revenues at US\$655 billion. Tourism is the world's largest industry in terms of gross output approaching US\$304 trillion. Tourism accounts for 10.9 percent of all consumer spending, 10.7 percent of all capital investment and 6.9 percent of all government spending." (TIM 2000).

Furthermore as Table 4.3 indicates, between 1988 and 2001, the number of international tourist arrivals had grown from 394 million to 693 million. Receipts from international tourism (excluding international fare receipts) reached US\$464 billion in 2001, a decrease of 2.5% from the previous year. Worldwide, the average receipt per arrival amounted to US\$670 (see Table 4.5). In addition, domestic tourism is of major importance in many countries.

4.2.2. Tourism Trends In Africa

Although Africa has tremendous tourism potential with a unique blend of geographical and natural features, its worldwide share was only between 3.6 and 4.1 percent of arrivals and 2.0 to 2.5 percent of receipts during 1995-2001. Out of this, the larger share is claimed by North Africa (1.5%) and Southern Africa (1.1%), while the remaining is attributed to East Africa (0.8%), West Africa (0.4%) and Central Africa (0.1%) (Table 4.4). Likewise, the proportionate share among countries is not the same as can be seen from Table 4.12. Of all African countries, three countries namely South Africa (22%), Tunisia (18.6%) and Morocco (15.1%) total 55.7%. 10 countries including Zambia (6.9%), Botswana (3.7%), Kenya (3.3%), Algeria (3.2%), Nigeria (3%), Namibia (2.8%) and Mauritius (2.4%), altogether, account for 81% of the total tourism arrivals to Africa; while the majority remaining countries account only for 19%. This indicates that tourism is still a missed opportunity or unexploited potential resource for the majority of African countries. The possible reason could be due to the fact that the continent is overwhelmed with cross-border wars and political instability.

However, as can be seen from Table 4.4, from 1995-2000 Africa experienced an average annual growth rate of 6.3% in visitor arrivals, higher than the average annual growth for all tourist arrivals worldwide, which averaged 4.8% for the same period. According to Table 4.5, in 2001, international tourist receipts for Africa totalled 11.7 billion, which is almost 1 billion more than in 2000. North, East, and West Africa earned US\$4.2, US\$2.7, and US\$1.2 billion respectively. Central Africa registered the highest growth rate of 15.6% in 2000/2001 (Table 4.4). Africa earned, on average, US\$414 per tourist arrival in 2001, which is substantially below the world average of US\$670, and is the lowest of all world regions (Table 4.5). In 2001, even though world international tourist arrivals

and receipts reflected a negative trend from the previous year's figures, Africa exceptionally, showed a positive trend of 4.3% and 8.8% for arrivals and receipts respectively (Table 4.3). "The share of Africa's tourism in the world total has increased from some 0.5 percentage points since 1995, reaching 2.5 percent in 2001. In the period 1995-2000, receipts for the region grew on average by almost 6% a year. West and central Africa significantly exceeded the regional average, with annual rates of 8.4% and 6.6% respectively" (WTO Tourism Market Trends 2002:23). Africa's share in world international tourist arrivals has increased from 1.5% in 1970 to 4.1% in 2000, showing a positive trend throughout. Its share from international tourism receipts has not shown significant improvement as in arrivals fluctuating between 1.8 and 2.5% (Table 4.10).

4.2.3. Tourism Trends In East Africa

According to Table 4.6, Eastern Africa's complement of the total arrivals for the African continent as a whole, increased from 2,852, 000 in 1990 to 5,860,000 in 2001, showing an annual increase of 5.2% which is less than Africa's annual average growth rate of 6.3%. During the same period, receipts registered an increase from

US\$0.4 billion to US\$2.7 billion, showing an annual average growth of 5.9%, the same as Africa's annual average growth. Similarly, East Africa's share of world international tourist arrivals has increased from 0.62% in 1995 to 0.85% in 2001 (Table 4.15). East Africa, with a share of 22%, is ranked third in Africa's share of international arrivals, following North Africa (37%) and Southern Africa (30%), which stood 1st and 2nd respectively between 1995 and 2001. Moreover as is reflected in Table 4.9, in 2001, three countries namely Zambia (6.9% share), Kenya (3.3% share) and Mauritius (2.4%), out of the top ten tourism destinations in Africa, are from the east. International tourist receipts to East Africa for the same period show more or less the same pattern as that of arrivals. But in terms of receipts per arrival, East Africa earned higher than Africa's average and highest of all sub regions in Africa for the period of 1995 to 2001 (Table 4.6).

4.2.4. Tourism Trends In Eritrea

Being endowed with historical sites, cultural heritage, archaeological sites and landmarks, beautiful beaches and islands, Eritrea has considerable potential for developing its tourism sector. Besides its diversified topographical and cultural attractions, Eritrea's tourist endowments are further enhanced by varied weather conditions in different locations of the country. It is not without reason that Eritrea Ministry of Tourism's (EMOT's) national slogan is '*Two seasons within two hours' drive*'.

As has been very briefly indicated in the historical background, Ethiopia colonised Eritrea, against the will of its people, from 1962 –1991 which is divided into two periods: 1962-1974 Haileselassie Era (capitalist rule) and 1974-1991 Dergue Era (socialist rule). The Eritrean tourism sector was relatively developed during the Haileselassie Era of the Ethiopian colony (Table 4.11). However, this progress deteriorated and even become non-existent during the Dergue Era of the Ethiopian colony (Table 4.12). Obviously no one would expect tourism to flourish in a war zone region, as most of the tourist attractions were under the control of the liberation movement. During this period, the influx of tourists to Eritrea was substantially impaired.

After independence, owing to peace and stability, coupled with the free market policy of the government, emphasis on the tourism sector improved. The number of hotels increased, facilities for serving the tourism sector improved, and as a result the number of arrivals rose substantially relative to the pre-independence period (Table 4.13). As can be observed from Tables 4.13 and 4.14, since independence in 1991, due to the stable and peaceful environment, there was a considerable increase in visitor arrivals with 124,290 in 1992 increasing to 416,596 in 1996, showing a slight decrease in 1997 to 409,544.

According to WTO's rank of the top twenty destinations in Africa by international tourist arrivals and by receipts in 1997, Eritrea was ranked 10th and 17th respectively accounting for 2% of arrivals and 0.9% of receipts in Africa. This shows that even though Eritrea performed well in attracting more tourists, it did not do well in making them stay longer and spend much (Tables 4.7 and 4.8). What matters is not only increasing the number of tourist arrivals but also increasing the earning of tourist receipts. Thus to optimise the contribution from tourism, countries should work not only to attract more tourists but also to make them stay longer as well as to increase average spending per arrival.

Eritrea's share in the world international tourism arrivals has decreased from 0.06% in 1995 to 0.02% in 2001. Similarly its share from Africa has decreased from 1.57% in 1995 to 0.40% in 2001. Its share from East Africa has decreased from 7.02% in 1995 to 1.96% in 2001. Likewise its share of international receipts has decreased from 0.71% in 1995 to 0.63% in 2001 and its share from East Africa has decreased as well from 3% in 1995 to 2.7% in 2001. This shows how fierce the competition in tourism is and the potential challenge for small countries and new entrants to the world tourism market like Eritrea (Table 4.15).

As can be observed from Table 4.6, Eritrea's receipts per arrival have shown a significant improvement with a 22.7% average annual growth between 1995-2000 in comparison to Africa as a whole (-0.4%) and sub regions within Africa, including East Africa, which registered the highest

average annual growth (0.7%) in the region. It further increased in 2001 to US\$655, much higher than Africa as whole and East Africa, which earned US\$414 and US\$468 respectively.

Since 1998, visitor arrivals have dropped due to the recent border conflict with neighbouring Ethiopia. In 1998 figures decreased to 187,647 showing a 54% decrease from the previous year. In 1999, these decreased further to 56,699 showing a decrease of 70% of the previous year's level. This illustrates that tourism, especially international tourism, is very volatile i.e. very sensitive to health, environmental and political conditions in a country or region

Tourism to Eritrea consists of two separate markets: Eritreans in Diaspora and foreigners. The Eritreans in Diaspora, who account for 48% of Eritrea's tourism market, comprise visitors mainly from Italy, Germany, UK, Scandinavia, USA, Saudi Arabia, and Yemen. Visitors from Africa, who account for 44%, dominate the foreign market. Visitors from Europe, USA, Middle East, Asia, and Oceania account for only 8% (Table 4.13).

In 2002, Eritrea hosted a total of 100, 828 international visitors. Overseas Eritreans continue to generate the bulk of international arrivals (74%) to Eritrea with Africa and Europe accounting for 9 and 8 percent respectively. Asia, Middle East, America and Oceania continue to be very marginal contributors, together accounting for less than 10% of the total international tourist arrivals. The fact that Eritrea is visited more often by its nationals in Diaspora than the non-Eritrean international visitors, could partly explain why Eritrea is not well promoted and developed as a tourist destination in the world tourism market (Table 4.13).

4.3. HRD AND TOURISM DEVELOPMENT

As previously discussed, tourism contributes significantly to both economic growth and employment. Tourism is now considered as the largest generator of jobs worldwide. This implies that tourism has the potential of providing jobs for the majority of developing countries, like Eritrea, which are characterized, on the one hand by a large number of unemployed citizens and, on the other hand, by an acute shortage of skilled and professional labour. Thus it is imperative that HRD be seen to play a strategic role in enhancing the quality of labour as one of the factors of production and thereby productivity, competitiveness and output - in this case tourism's contribution - for socio-economic development. This section addresses the role of HRD in tourism development.

4.3.1. The Concept of Human Capital Theory

The positive relationship between human capital investment and economic growth is best explained using the concepts of human capital theory. In this regard, Schultz (1981) and Becker (1964) have made useful contributions in recognizing the role of human capital in the process of economic development and regard it as a rational investment in people, which links present decision-making to future returns. According to Becker (1975), individuals, firms or society have forgone current consumption by investing in education and training in order to attain future earnings. This situation can be termed as an application of the opportunity cost concept (Bowman, 1987), and is an investment, as current income is substituted for increased earning potential in the future (Nicholson, 1987).

Following the work of Schultz (1961, 1963) and Becker (1962, 1975), various authors, such as McConnell and Brue (1995), Kaufman (1994) and Ehrenberg and Smith (2000) *inter alia* have discussed human capital theory extensively. Human capital theory focuses on the need to invest in people in order to achieve and sustain competitive advantage. Inefficient use of available human resources will increase labour costs which will result in higher production costs. Therefore, in order to remain competitive in the market, it is imperative for all countries in the world to pay special attention to developing their human resources.

A significant aspect of this theory is that the investment in knowledge, skills and health not only benefits the individual, it also increases the employers' and even a country's human capital resource pool and potential productivity. However, despite the benefit that employers are able to realize from supporting the education of their current and potential employees, they are often reluctant to pay for this training due to the possibility of some employees manipulating the situation purely for free training. Often the responsibility of increasing one's human capital still rests largely with the individual (Ehrenberg and Smith, 2000).

The proponents of human capital theory have solved this controversy by distinguishing between two types of human capital investments - specific and general. The former refers to training applicable to one firm only, while the latter refers to the training applicable to many firms. This requires individuals and corporations to evaluate the benefits and disadvantages of general training and specialized training respectively, based on their individual requirements and goals. Thus employers may be willing to pay for specialized training rather than general training, as the latter is readily transferable to another employer. Conversely, the employee may be willing to pay for general training rather than specific training, as the former is highly transferable, and it is likely that the skills acquired through this training can be applied to many alternative employment situations. "There are important

aspects of specific training that both the employee and employer should consider. Although specific training may be relatively costly and lengthy in comparison to general training, the employer may gain productivity in a very specialized and profitable area of business, and also gain loyalty from the employee. However, employees must consider the degree of specificity of the training. If they are trained in something too specific, such as a unique product or rare service, they may lose their job and have few prospects for alternate employment if the product or service is discontinued. In situations where the employer requires unique skills, and there are no skilled employees available in the region, specific training is essential to ensure productivity” (Becker, 1975, pp. 19-20).

Employers and their organizations need to be involved in, and influence, the education and training of the current and potential future workforce. Apart from actual investment by employers in training, they can be involved in contributing to the formulation of policies, which promote public and private investment in education, and training at all levels, both qualitatively and quantitatively, in order to prepare potential workers for current and future jobs in order to facilitate training and retraining in order to respond to the need for a multi-skilled and flexible workforce.

Harbison and Myers (1964: V) emphasize the role of human resources by saying that “the building of modern nations depends upon the development of people and the organization of human activity. Capital and natural resources play an important role in economic growth, but none is more important than manpower.” Human capital is one important factor affecting development and social progress. Only people can utilize physical capital and natural resource endowments to create development; non-human resources alone do not generate development (Harbison, 1973 in Todaro, 1992). As Harbison and Myers (1964:13) explain, “countries are underdeveloped because most of their people are underdeveloped, having had no opportunity for expanding their potential capacities in the services of society”.

This interaction requires a skilled, knowledgeable, healthy labour force and thus investments in human capital – education and health care. Harbison and Myers (1964) establish that human capital development has a statistically significant correlation with GNP. This fact has been verified for Eritrea by regressing human capital development (measured by both education and health expenditures) on GDP*. Highly developed human capital creates greater productivity and efficiency. Education enhances the ability of people to use their natural skills and ingenuity. Investment in education creates positive externalities. It is expected that increased education raises the average quality of labour, which in turn increases employability and thus plays a significant role in the growth of national income. Similarly health care is a necessary service to maintain people’s well being and their

• $\ln \text{GDP} = 5.14 + .0616 \ln \text{huc}$
 $t = 12.313 \quad 6.805$

$R^2 = 0.837$

$F = 46.306$

capability to contribute to society and to development. Thus there is a broad consensus that human capital development reflects a set of closely linked changes including productivity growth, improving health and life expectancy, increasing material prosperity, expanding education and communication and increasing social complexity.

The link between a country's potential for economic growth and higher employment, and its capacity to develop the skills and knowledge of its population, is now recognized by most governments as well as by all major international agencies. The acquisition of greater knowledge and improved skills raises the value of a person's human capital, thereby increasing employability, income potential and productivity, which should lead to higher earnings (Becker, 1992). Although in a broader sense, this link is not a new discovery, some researchers (for example Ashton and Brown, 1999) see the new focus by governments on human resources development (HRD), as a fundamental shift in the conceptualisation of the links between economic growth and the skills and knowledge of the workforce. Eritrea's national HRD strategy, reflects this paradigm shift and shares the global view that in the future, a country's ability to achieve economic growth (and therefore to maintain and increase employment), will depend on its human resources, rather than its natural resources or physical capital (EMOT 1999, Harbison (1973) in Todaro (1999). However, it is easier to say that people are the greatest asset, than to put necessary development structures in place to develop the potential of human resources. Thus there is a rationale to investigate empirically, the situation of human resources in the tourism sector of Eritrea.

Todaro (1992), however, discusses the failure of the unrestrained quantitative expansion of educational opportunities in the developing countries of Asia, Africa, and Latin America, which provide alternative policy options to third world countries in their attempt to evolve an educational system which will serve the needs and aspirations of all their people more effectively. Similarly, Ashton and Brown (1999) argues "an approach to HRD that focuses only (or largely) on the supply of skills in the labour force is likely to have a limited effect and can even be counter-productive by unjustifiably raising people's hopes for employment (or better employment)". Thus any programmes introduced by HRD must be thoroughly assessed and should also be demand driven. Training should not be for the sake of training or merely for the acquisition of certificates (degrees), but rather for attaining predetermined objectives and filling an existing skills deficiency or training gap identified from training needs assessments. If HRD policies are unplanned and not supported by clear developmental objectives and skills requirements, they will simply divert scarce resources from socially productive activities, such as direct employment creation, and thus hinder, rather than promote, national development (Rosegger, 1966).

Barro (1995) in Griffiths and Wall (1999), based on his empirical research for 98 countries over the period of 1960-86, argues that the main barrier for economic growth in LDCs is inadequate investment in human capital. Some economists, such as Griffiths and Wall (1999), however, consider human capital as a complementary input to physical capital, rather than a substitute. Supporting this argument, Rosegger (1966: 45) agrees that "people's education and training, and, with these, their ability to adopt easily and flexibly, technological changes are the key to improvement in real output."

"The fruits of HRD are evident in the much-publicized rapid development achieved over a short period of time by Singapore, Hong Kong, the Republic of Korea, Taiwan China, and earlier by Japan. The World Bank studies of East Asian development have identified the investment in human capital as one important factor accounting for the rapid development, enabling it to periodically upgrade labour skills and the economy" (World Bank, 1993: 6-7). Developing people's education, knowledge, skills and abilities, helps the economy to grow through the production and provision of marketable goods and services and by attracting investment. This, in turn, helps to create the surpluses needed to raise living standards through increased incomes, more equitable income distribution, increased employment opportunities, improvements in infrastructure and better social benefits (e.g. education, health care, housing and social security). By creating opportunities for upward mobility, HRD reduces social stratification and tensions. In high population growth countries, HRD contributes to population control because acceptance of smaller families comes with higher levels of education (Harbison and Myers, 1964).

4.3.2. HRD in the context of tourism

In the context of tourism, the key role of human capital has been expounded by Wahab and Pigram (1975:278) who argues that:

Due to multiple variables intervening, tourism is becoming a complicated developmental sector which requires expertise and professionalism. Tourism's multifaceted function, as a socio-economic and politico-cultural phenomenon, as a complex industry, and as a profession having its own rules and codes of ethics, requires a broad intellectual background and specialized education and/or training to enable its policy makers and professionals to keep abreast of the scientific and technological changes as well as to challenge the fierce competition.

McClelland (1993), as cited in Harrison (2001), explains the role of HRD in tourism development as a requirement to overcome the five gaps of service quality shortfalls emanating from the differences of perceptions and expectations among the parties (customer, management, and employee) in regard to

the service delivery as well as between specification of the service quality and actual delivery of the service. These signify the importance of effective communication between customers and service providers. The former constantly expect the best service and only when their satisfaction is demonstrated “through feedback or repeat business, can a hotel’s performance be measured. If such gaps are not bridged, customer satisfaction and thus success in tourism will not be achieved” (Harrison, 2001: 63). Thus, appropriate human resource development efforts are essential in order to increase the capacity and capability of the tourism industry.

As has been discussed in the conceptual framework, the traditional constraints of the hotel, catering and tourism industry – long, antisocial working hours, low pay, unstable, seasonal employment and low job status – make employment within the industry appear unattractive to many. The immediate and most obvious consequences of such a situation are the difficulty in recruiting suitable staff, and high staff turnover; both these effects are costly to the industry. There is, therefore, a perceived need for human resource development to raise the profile of the industry, increase productivity and provide decent, sustainable employment within the sector (Harrison, 2001).

Based on the above literature, HRD, in particular with regards to education and training, contributes significantly to economic development in terms of increased worker productivity and income. The economy becomes more productive, innovative and competitive through the existence of more skilled human capability. Thus, the quality of human resources will determine the success or failure of any development effort, especially concerning tourism development, adopting technical change and global market competition. Viewed from this perspective, HRD therefore requires special attention to complement changes in the economic profile of the proposed growth regions. All issues relating to HRD need to be properly addressed and appropriate policies, recommendations and programmes must be in place. Thus, in order to improve the economic performance and the competitive position of the tourism industry, HRD requires greater emphasis involving a need to plan, coordinate and implement HRD projects.

We have seen that the type of tourism that Eritrea has chosen is STD. Thus the objective of the tourism sector has economic, cultural, social, as well as political dimensions. HRD is a necessary condition for achieving all of them. The tourism sector both at national and regional levels requires personnel such as development planners, marketers, services managers, project analysts, statisticians, and human resource managers in top, middle and lower operational levels of management.

Likewise, the tourism industry at large requires a diversified and talented staff capable of delivering quality goods and services demanded by tourists. If the ministry is unable to develop its human

resources it will not be able to exploit and utilize natural resources, no matter how attractive they are, and will not achieve its intended objective of sustainable development.

The development of tourism is the result of human effort. It takes human agents to mobilize capital, to utilise natural resources to create markets and to promote a country as a tourist destination. Ministry staff members, possessing various skills and specializations, both at national and regional levels, are those who organize, manage, develop and promote tourism progress. The efficiency and effectiveness of their work depends not only on their own development but also on the knowledge, skills, and capabilities of those whom they lead. Thus, in a very real sense, the wealth of a nation and its potential for social, economic, political growth stems from the power to develop and utilize the innate capacities of its people effectively.

4.4. CONCLUDING REMARKS

From the discussions in previous sections, although the growth of the tourism industry in Eritrea has slowed down as a result of the border conflict, once the border is demarcated and peace and stability assured, it is expected that Eritrea will bounce back and regain its status as a fast growing tourism destination in Africa. As a result, development of the tourism industry will facilitate the creation of new employment opportunities and will provide an important source of foreign exchange. Hence, tourism is an activity that must play an important role in the economic development of Eritrea. If tourism policies are carefully developed, the tourism industry will not only result in an increased source of income and the creation of new jobs, it will also stimulate infrastructure development. In addition, an effective tourism policy could reduce poverty, foster entrepreneurship and promote growth of domestic industries, stimulate production of food and local handicrafts, facilitate cultural exchange and contribute to social goodwill in the country.

Human resources are one of the key factors for achieving all of these objectives. Thus necessary actions to develop the human resources of the sector should be taken at the right time. Bearing in mind these objectives, comprehensive assessment and analysis of the human resources of Eritrea's tourism sector will be conducted in subsequent chapters.

CHAPTER 5 - ASSESSMENT OF THE HUMAN RESOURCES IN THE TOURISM SECTOR IN ERITREA

In the previous chapter, the role of HRD in the development of tourism was addressed. Discussion included how the role of human resources (or labour) as a factor of production could be maximized in order to increase productivity, in this case with respect to tourism development. The current chapter outlines the survey methodology and then reviews labour market trends and the present state of education provision in the country. Thereafter, the quantitative survey results are presented and a detailed profile of personnel in the Eritrean MOT and tourism establishments is developed, and the key shortages of skills required for tourism development are identified and discussed.

5.1. METHODOLOGY

The methodologies used involved an assessment of human capital, education and training demands and specialized needs, as well as the distribution and collection of the human resources survey. This included both quantitative and qualitative research methods based on primary and secondary sources of information. Follow up consultations with key stakeholders were deemed necessary, with a view to verifying problems and constraints and determining actual human resource needs for sustainable tourism development.

Ministries and Institutions approached for secondary data were:

- The Ministry of Tourism and its departments and branch offices
- The Ministry of Education
- The Ministry of Labour and Human Welfare
- The Hotel and Tourism Training Centre (HTTC)

The following is a brief description of the methodologies used for the study.

5.1.1. Primary sources

A comprehensive survey of the human resources of 370 tourism establishments was conducted in four major cities: Asmara (the capital city), Keren (the second largest city), Massawa and Assab (port cities). Appendix 2 details the questionnaires used in the human resources assessment.

These establishments included hotels, pensions, restaurants and travel operations, and accounted for 2568 staff members. They represented a 36% random sample of all hotels, 35% of the pensions, 90% of the restaurants, and 100% per cent of travel operations; 33% of all the operations were from Asmara, 7% from Massawa, 6% from Keren and 1% from Assab. This breakdown was chosen based on the relative size and tourism significance of each city after discussions with tourism officials, and is believed to reflect more or less the overall distribution of these establishments across the four cities.

These break down as follows:

TABLE 5.1 BUSINESS OF ESTABLISHMENT: CITY CROSS TABULATION

BUSINESS	CITY				TOTAL		
	Asmara Total Surveyed	Assab Total Surveyed	Keren Total Surveyed	Massawa Total Surveyed	Total Establishments In Eritrea	Total Surveyed	%
Hotel	28	5	22	22	211	77	36%
Restaurant	120	0	8	29	443	157	35%
Pension	84	1	14	4	115	103	90%
Travel Agent	33	0	0	0	33	33	100%
Total	265	6	44	55	802	370	46%
Surveyed % Total Establish- ments In Eritrea	33%	1%	6%	7%		47%	

The study covers tourism establishments from four of the six regions in Eritrea. To supplement and substantiate the quantitative data collected from the human resources survey, some 50 questionnaires were distributed to tourism management officials, trainers, major employers and department heads and managers (Appendix 1).

5.1.2. Secondary sources

Eritrea's Ministry of Tourism (EMOT), being primarily responsible for the development and management of the tourism sector and its human resources, is the main source of secondary data for

this dissertation. Thus the human resources division of the Eritrean tourism sector was quantitatively and qualitatively assessed by means of secondary data in EMOT development plans, policies and other documents in the Ministry.

Similarly, labour market information from the Ministry of Labour and Human Welfare (EMOLH) was collected and assessed to determine the discrepancy between the demand for labour and the supply of labour.

The quality of training is determined, among other things, by the availability and quality of the potential pool of applicants. For this reason the current educational status in the country was assessed through the data collected from the Ministry of Education. In particular, assessment was done with regard to enrolment rates, numbers of schools and teachers in primary, junior and secondary schools, as well as the pass rate of the national examinations for grade 8 and for the high school leaving certificate.

5.1.3. Assessment of the human resources development institution

The Hotel and Tourism Training Centre (HTTC), under the Ministry of Tourism, is the only formal education and training provider of tourism in the country. The centre was established with the objectives of providing industry-wide training, coordinating and supervising agreed standards, generating the necessary curriculum and teaching material, accrediting various programmes, and setting up the corresponding testing and certification systems. Currently the centre focuses mainly on six months basic entry-level training, comprising four months in-centre training (both theoretical and practical) as well as two months on-the-job training affiliated with major hotels in the country. An assessment of this institution is necessary to determine whether the training being offered is appropriate and would meet the demand of a competitive tourism sector.

5.1.4. Survey administration, data collection and the analysis process

To facilitate the work of the researcher, regional tourism offices cooperated in distributing and collecting the survey questionnaires to major tourism establishments in their respective major cities. All the major hotels, pensions, restaurants, and travel agents responded on time and enough information required for the discussions was collected. The data were input into the SPSS statistical package and analysed.

Of the 50 questionnaires distributed to tourism management officials, trainers, major employers and department heads and managers, 32 (64%) of them were returned completed. These data were also entered and analysed using the SPSS statistical package.

The researcher did the data entry. Data were entered, properly coded and analysed using SPSS. To ensure consistency and quality, frequency analysis was done and some inconsistencies were corrected. Tables and graphs were generated, which were analysed in line with the in-depth interviews and observations made by the researcher. The method of analysis is therefore partly descriptive and partly analytical. In the first part of the analysis, attention was focused primarily on the information obtained from the tourism establishments and from the institutions, putting into perspective the variables for the study. Basic statistics, tabular and graphic presentations were also utilized. The analysis was based on the findings of the survey, identifying training needs and gaps, the implications for human capital formation in the tourism sector and possible areas of intervention for training and development, both within and outside the enterprise level. The various elements of the analysis were closely linked and inter-related and provided a framework for assessing the strengths and weaknesses of the tourism sector, human capital formation and tourism human resources for sustainable tourism development.

5.2. LABOUR MARKET TREND ANALYSIS

Labour market analysis can focus HRD training requirements by identifying the gap between the supply of labour, as manifested by registered job seekers, and the demand for labour as manifested by vacancies announced (ILO, 1990). For instance, according to the Eritrean Central Labour Statistics Office (Appendix 3, Table 5.2), between 1996 and 2002, a total of 105352 job seekers, grouped in various occupations was registered. Even though 78427 (74% of the total registered) vacancies were created, only 57068 job seekers (54% of the total registered or 73% of the vacancies created) were placed. The rest (27%) of the vacancies created during the same period remained unfilled despite the fact that 46% of the total registered job seekers were still unemployed. On the one hand there was unemployment while on the other hand there was a shortage of labour. This pattern of mismatch between the demand for labour and the supply of labour was common to all occupational groups at the time.

During the period under discussion, except for service and sales workers (in which tourism workers are grouped) and skilled agricultural and fishery workers, job seekers in all other occupations experienced a supply greater than the demand for labour. The latter implies unemployment while the former implies a labour shortage.

In the case of service and sales workers (occupational group 5), for example, during the same period, registered and placed job seekers, as well as vacancies announced to the labour office, were 2366, 1351 and 2522 respectively. This means that only 56% of the total registered job seekers were placed and only 46% of the vacancies announced in this occupational group were filled. The rest of the vacancies (1171, or 54%) remained unfilled due to a lack of suitable job seekers who fulfilled the specific requirements of the job. As a result, as can be seen in Table 5.3 of the Appendix 3, the country was forced to employ expatriates to bridge the gap in skilled human resource needs in the country.

This general trend in the labour market indicates a need for corrective measures, one of which is giving appropriate vocational training or HRD programmes. Thus, as discussed in the previous chapter, tourism, if supported by appropriate HRD strategies, can play a vital role in solving both the problem of unemployment and the shortage of labour, or skills deficiencies through its employment generation impacts, as well as reducing the leakage resulting from the repatriation of wages and salaries of expatriates.

5.3. THE CURRENT EDUCATIONAL STATUS

Pre-university education in Eritrea is a 5:3:4 system, consisting of five years of primary school, three years of junior secondary and four years of secondary school. The first eight years of the programme are compulsory. While in the primary phase of education, the medium of instruction is the mother tongue, in middle and secondary phases, the medium of instruction is English.

As discussed in the socio-economic background, during the years of foreign occupation, Eritreans had limited access to education. As a result, illiteracy affects nearly 75% of the adult population. Measures have now been taken to expand primary, secondary and higher education. According to the Ministry of Education statistics, school enrolment has increased tremendously from 176093 in 1990, comprising 115809 (elementary), 27867 (middle) and 32357 (secondary), to 481343 in 2002, comprising 330278 (elementary), 80882 (middle) and 70183 (secondary) (Table 5.4).

TABLE 5.4 SCHOOL ENROLMENT 1990-2002 BY YEAR AND LEVEL

YEAR	ELEMENTARY	MIDDLE	SECONDARY	TOTAL
1990	115869	27867	32357	176093
1996	241725	39751	39151	320627
2002	330278	80882	70183	481343

Source: Eritrean Ministry of Education (EMOE), *Basic Education Statistics 2001/02*, page. 43.

The number of schools has also increased from 381 (elementary), 65 (middle) and 25 (secondary) in 1992, to 695 (elementary), 152 (middle) and 44 (secondary) in 2002 (Appendix 3, Table 5.5). The number of teachers has also increased proportionately from 3647 (elementary), 1387 (middle) and 758 (secondary) in 1992, to 7498 (elementary), 1529 (middle) and 1419 (secondary) in 2002 (Appendix 3, Table 5.6). Efforts are also being made to meet labour force needs by raising the standards of professional and vocational schools, which have also increased from only 2 in 1992 to 10 in 2002 (Appendix 3, Table 5.5).

However, quantitative improvements per se, though necessary are not sufficient indicators for education improvement, unless they are supplemented by qualitative improvements. Students, after completion of their middle level, are required to sit for Grade 7 national examinations in order to qualify for the secondary school level. In the academic year 2002, for example, even though of the 28186 who sat for the national examination, 21643 (77%) passed, on average only 26% of the participants scored 60% and above. This partly indicates that the quality of education is not satisfactory. Furthermore if we see the 2002 Eritrean Secondary Education Certificate Examination results, of the 13866 who wrote the examination, only 9% or 3212 were promoted to become eligible for a higher education programme. These successful candidates consisted of 1398 eligible for degree purposes, 574 for diploma purposes and 1240 for certificate purposes. The majority was forced to join the unemployed army and these form the potential pool of candidates for all the other training programmes including those in tourism. This obviously has an adverse effect on the efficiency and effectiveness of tourism training. For example, of the total that participated in the English entrance examination for HTTC, on average only 50-60% were able to pass the examination. Even of those who passed, the majority was getting only 50-60% marks wise (Eritrea Ministry of Education Statistics 2002). To produce quality skilled employees, the selection process should be correct in the first place (Appendix 3, Table 5.7 and Table 5.8).

5.4. AN ASSESSMENT OF THE MINISTRY OF TOURISM STAFF

Currently, the Ministry of Tourism employs some 73 personnel, comprising 39 males and 34 females, including administrative and regional office staff (Table 5.9). There are regional offices in Asmara, Massawa, Keren, Assab, Barentu and Mendefera. Of the professional staff, 10 have diplomas and 11 have university degrees. Most other staff members have completed high school.

Despite the fact that highly skilled technocrats are essential to the effectiveness of the Ministry of Tourism, currently the Ministry is deficient in a whole range of specialized skills covering most aspects of tourism management. Even though some of the existing staff members have participated in various short term courses, workshops and seminars in various, general, tourism-related topics, most

of them have not taken specialized long term courses related to their current job. Unfortunately, many of those who have been trained and are experienced in tourism and who are now acquainted with the tourism sector, have been transferred to other ministries and are replaced by new personnel. Officials cannot specialize sufficiently in tourism, however, unless this option is recognized as a career path. Qualified personnel need to remain in tourism and develop their skills and knowledge accordingly. It is important to retain professional staff - once trained and experienced - to continue their careers in tourism. Skills and knowledge can only be built up gradually, through concerted and continued training. Moreover, as the Ministry develops, so will the training needs for various professional categories.

TABLE 5.9 EXISTING EMPLOYEES OF MINISTRY OF TOURISM

Department/ Branch	NUMBER OF EMPLOYEES		
	Male	Female	Total
Ministry Head Office	6	7	13
Department Of Tourism Development	8	1	9
Department Of Tourism Service Management	3	6	9
Finance And Administration	8	9	17
Northern Red Sea Branch	6	3	9
Anseba Branch	2	3	5
Central Zone Branch	2	1	3
Hotel & Tourism Training Centre	4	4	8
Grand total	39	34	73

Source: EMOT, *Tourism Statistics Annual Report, 2001*, Page 34.

5.5. AN ASSESSMENT OF TOURISM ESTABLISHMENTS

According to the results of an establishment survey conducted by the Ministry of Tourism in 2001, there were 211 hotels (consisting of 2767 rooms, 5788 beds, and 6437 restaurant seats), 115 pensions (consisting of 1317 rooms and 2957 beds), 443 restaurants (consisting of 10868 seats) and 33 travel establishments unevenly distributed throughout the six regions of the country (EMOT, 2001). About half of the enterprises (33%) are in Asmara (the capital city), with 6% in Keren (the second largest city) and with 7% and 1% in Massawa and Assab (port cities) respectively. Thus the current tourism human resources survey focused on 77 (21%) hotels, 157 (42%) restaurants, 103 (28%) pensions and 33 (100%) travel agents in these major cities. These establishments were selected as they are major tourism operations identified by the survey of 2001 mentioned above. It was expected that the same pattern would prevail in all other small cities and towns (Appendix 3, Table 5.1). Ownership structure of the tourism establishment is predominantly private and Eritrean nationals hold 97% of the total

(Appendix 3, Tables 5.10 and 5.11). 53% of the establishments were opened before liberation, 15% between 1991-1995, 24% between 1996-2000 and 8% after 2000 (Appendix 3, Table 5.12).

TABLE 5.13 EMPLOYMENT SIZE BY BUSINESS TYPE

EMPLOYMENT SIZE	BUSINESS OF ESTABLISHMENT					Percent
	Hotel	Restaurant	Pension	Travel Agent	Total	
1-5	24	100	82	29	235	63.5
6-10	18	17	16	3	54	14.6
11-15	9	26	2	1	38	10.3
16-20	3	4	1	0	8	2.2
21-30	8	3	1	0	12	3.2
31-40	3	3	1	0	7	1.9
41-50	2	2	0	0	4	1.1
51-100	7	2	0	0	9	2.4
101-150	2	0	0	0	2	0.5
151+	1	0	0	0	1	0.3
Total	77	157	103	33	370	100%
%	21%	42%	28%	9%	100%	

According to Table 5.13 above, 89% of the existing tourism establishments are small-scale enterprises (64% with 1-5, 15% with 6-10 and 10% with 16-20 employees), 10% are medium-scale enterprises (with 20-100 employees) and only 1% is accorded to large enterprises (with 100 or more employees). Even with respect to room size and bed space, 85% of the accommodation establishments have fewer than 25 rooms and 96% have fewer than 100 beds (Appendix 3, Tables 5.14 and 5.15).

The implication of the above analysis is that training should be categorized with respect to the size and capacity of establishments' training requirements, that is, for small, medium, and large-scale enterprises. The small-scale enterprises should not be expected to afford to employ highly qualified personnel and likewise the large enterprises shouldn't be expected to employ low-level trained personnel.

5.6. AN ANALYSIS OF OWNERS AND MANAGERS

As managers or owner-managers are the key personnel in any establishment, with the assumption that training them means training the whole staff they manage and guide, it is imperative to assess their profile separately or give them a special consideration so as to determine training needs and

requirements appropriate to them. The survey revealed that 193 responses were from owner-managers, consisting of 54 from hotels, 57 from pensions, 76 from restaurants and 6 from travel agencies. Paid managers manage another 50 establishments, 25 from hotels, 6 from pensions, 11 from restaurants and 8 from travel agencies. The remaining 127 establishments surveyed did not indicate positions with owner-manager or manager occupational titles as they were simply managed by unpaid family members who also work as cashiers, headwaiters, receptionists or any other occupation. While gender preference of the paid managers reflects a bias towards male, with 64% of the total, gender distribution of owner-managers is fifty-fifty (Appendix 3, Table 5.19).

The majority of the paid managers (31%) have completed high school, followed by those who have not completed high school (18%) and those with incomplete university education (20%). Unlike the paid managers, 51% of the owner-managers are below junior school level, followed by high school level with 22% of the total; only 9% of them have reached university level

Nearly 75% of the paid managers are 21-60 years old. 30% of them are between 41 and 50 years old and 20% are in the 51-60 age group. Almost 51% of the owner-managers are between 41-60 years old, 27% of them being over 60 years, and 17% of them being between 31 and 40 years. Thus it can be concluded that the paid managers are mainly middle-aged while the owner-managers are in their older years.

Foreign language competency, as one of the tourism skills and requirements, was also assessed. 82% of the paid managers speak at least one foreign language (English, Arabic, Italian and French) with 41%, 23%, 12%, and 6% speaking 1,2,3 and 4 of the languages respectively. Only 18% of them do not speak any of the foreign languages considered. Unlike the paid managers, only 50% of owner-managers speak at least one of the foreign languages, with 26%, 16% and 8% of them, speaking 1,2 and 3 of the languages respectively. The remaining 32% do not speak any of the languages considered. It should be noted, however, that their levels of foreign language competency are quite dissimilar and mainly related to competency required for their respective routine day-to-day activities.

Another important variable to be considered is tourism-related work experience. The analysis of paid managers with respect to their tourism experience, reflected that 30%, 27%, 14%, 9%, and 15% have 1-5, 6-10, 11-15, 16-20 and above 20 years of work experience respectively, against their counterpart owner-managers with 13%, 16%, 12%, 9% and 21% having 1-5, 6-10, 11-15, 16-20 and above 20 years of work experience respectively (Table 5.16 below).

TABLE 5.16 TOURISM-RELATED WORK EXPERIENCE

YEARS OF WORK EXPERIENCE	OWNER MANAGERS		PAID MANAGERS	
	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent
Unspecified	47	26.1	3	4.5
1	5	2.8	4	6.1
2	6	3.3	6	9.1
3	5	2.8	3	4.5
4	1	.6	2	3.0
5	7	3.9	5	7.6
6-10	28	15.6	18	27.3
11-15	22	12.2	9	13.6
16-20	16	8.9	6	9.1
20+	43	23.9	10	15.2
Total	180	100.0	66	100.0

As discussed in Chapters 3 and 4, tourism-related training is a very important variable in analysing HRD requirements. The survey revealed that 61% of paid managers and 83% of owner-managers have not taken any tourism-related courses. Of those remaining, 12% of paid managers and 9% of owner-managers have taken only one-month tourism-related courses, while 15% of paid managers and 5% of owner-managers have taken 2-6 months long courses, with 12% of the former and 3% of the latter taking tourism-related courses lasting longer than six months. Thus it can be concluded that, in general, both groups are not trained sufficiently in tourism and are working in very traditional ways or lacking tourism professionalism.

The greatest cause for concern is that these staff members manage, direct, guide and supervise the work of all employees under them. Thus priority should be given to these groups, as they are critical both to the success of their businesses, in particular, and to tourism development in general. Teaching and training managers is tantamount to teaching and training the whole staff. In other words, teaching and training the employees ahead of their managers may be counter-productive. There is an urgent need to develop, sell and deliver business and management training, as identified above, to the many small and medium-sized enterprise owners and managers in the industry. A major challenge in this process is *selling* the need for training to these owners and managers who believe either that they don't need training, or that they do not have the time. With this in mind, creative training strategies need to be adopted for this group. For example, training should be offered in the "off season" when business is slow, or half-day or one-day programmes could be designed so that the owners and managers are not away from their establishments for extended periods of time.

The survey also revealed the subject matter of the courses taken by 27 paid managers as follows: 37% catering, 19% hotel management, 15% general tourism management, 11% ticketing, 7% food and beverage services, 4% food preparation and 7% hospitality accounting. Their counterpart, 30 owner-managers, reflected 63% catering, 7% food and beverage service and 20% food preparation, 3% hospitality accounting, 3% hotel management and 3% ticketing as their options. This suggests that the nature of courses taken is inappropriate. Thus not only are the courses insufficient, but in many cases they are also not necessary in order to produce qualified and knowledgeable managers (Table 5.17 below).

TABLE 5.17 TYPES OF COURSES TAKEN BY OWNER-MANAGERS AND PAID MANAGERS

COURSE TYPE	OWNER MANAGERS		PAID MANAGERS	
	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent
Catering	19	63	10	37
Food & beverage service	2	7	2	7
Food preparation	6	20	1	4
Hospitality accounting	1	3	2	7
Hotel management	1	3	5	19
Tourism management	-	-	4	15
Ticketing	1	3	3	11
Total	30	100	27	100

5.7. EMPLOYEES' PROFILE ASSESSMENT

In this section, a detailed analysis of the major occupations identified with respect to the variables of gender, age group, nationality, employment status, education level, foreign languages competency, salary range, tourism experience, and tourism courses taken, will be conducted.

5.7.1. Distribution of human resources by occupation

The total workforce of the tourism establishment surveyed is 2568. The survey comes out with the following leading or major occupations in rank order.

TABLE 5.18 OCCUPATION AND EARNINGS DISTRIBUTION

OCCUPATION	FREQUENCY	PERCENT	RANK	MONTHLY MEAN SALARY IN NAKFA*
Waiter including head waiters	523	20.4	1	780
Cook including pizza cooks, head and assistant cooks	349	13.6	2	1032
Housekeeping including head housekeepers	345	13.4	3	764
Receptionists including head receptionists	216	8.4	4	881
Owner managers**	180	7.0	5	0
Cleaners and dishwasher	147	5.7	6	917
Cashier	140	5.5	7	717
Bartender	113	4.4	8	705
Other	113	4.4	9	1554
Guard	108	4.2	10	986
Laundry	70	2.7	11	1089
Paid Managers	66	2.6	12	2030
Craftsmen and technicians	59	2.3	13	1737
Accountant	48	1.9	14	1767
Store keeper	32	1.2	15	1260
Food and beverage control	27	1.1	16	1140
Secretary	21	.8	17	1501
Travel agent	11	.4	18	1362
Total	2568	100.0		

* US\$1 is ± equivalent to 14 Nakfa

** Owner managers' salary is 0 because salary is taken to mean remuneration paid to employed labour only.

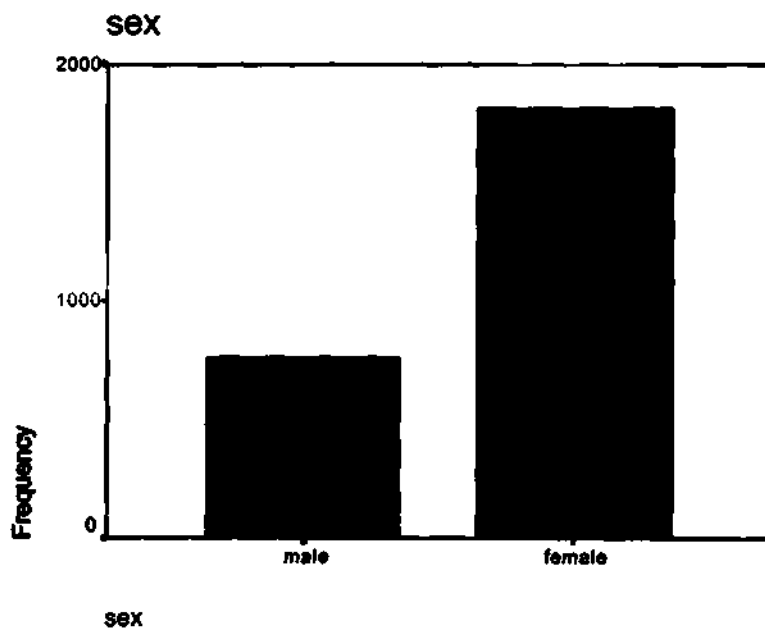
Even though ranking order according to the number of personnel in each occupation implies a condition for priority considerations in training interventions, it is not sufficient in itself. Thus other variables mentioned earlier and the relative importance of each occupation should be considered. For instance, as discussed earlier, managers should be given first priority owing to their critical positions

and responsibilities. Similarly, cooks are one of the key occupations for the success or failure of restaurants. Moreover, as discussed in the conceptual framework, based on the tourism employment characteristics, attitudes, and skill requirements, training should not only be occupation specific but should also include general training. Thus general tourism and hospitality operations courses should be offered to all occupations and at all levels in order to raise the standard of service delivery, which is crucial for the success of the tourism sector as well as the optimisation of its contribution to economic development.

5.7.2. Distribution by gender

Of the total work force of the surveyed establishments, 71% are female and 29% are male (Figure 5.1 Gender preference of employment varies from occupation to occupation. Jobs involving waiting, bartending, cooking, food and beverage control, cashiering, travel agents, housekeeping and laundry, and cleaning and dishwashing are female dominated occupations, while paid managers, craftsmen and guards are male dominated. This implies two things. On the one hand, it implies that tourism creates opportunities easily accessible for women who are mostly (and especially in least developed countries) considered economically disadvantaged. On the other hand, it can also imply some jobs are low paid and still considered 'women's work'. Accountants, owner-managers, receptionists, and storekeepers are equally distributed between male and female (Appendix 3, Table 5.19).

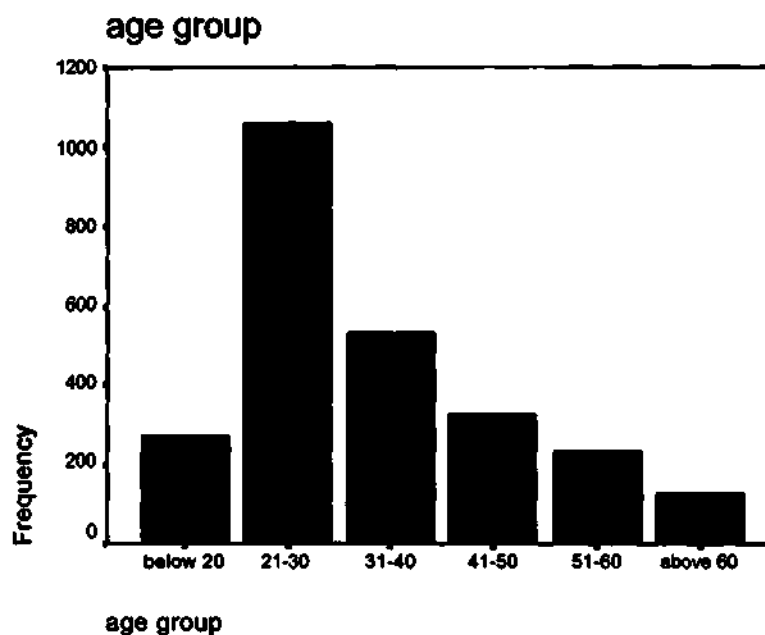
Figure 5.1 Gender distribution



5.7.3. Distribution by age group

According to the survey undertaken, the tourism human resources profile reflects a relatively young age bracket with 51% of the respondents being 30 years or younger and another 21% in the 31-40 age group (see figure 5.2). The occupation-specific age group distribution showed a pattern different from the general pattern. The occupational groups including waiters, receptionists, cashiers, bartenders, food and beverage controllers and secretaries indicated a very young profile with more than 70% being below 30 years of age or more than 80% being below 40 years of age. The occupations including cooking, house keeping, cleaning and dishwashing and employees such as craftsmen and technicians, accountants, storekeepers and travel agents are in their middle ages, with the majority in the age group of 41-50. Exceptionally, guards are older, nearly 60% of them being older than 50 years and 32% of them being over 60 years of age (Appendix 3, Table 5.20).

Figure 5.2 Age distribution



The needs assessment study indicated that the industry has a relatively young workforce, with over 70% of the workers under 40 years old. This is a good sign for the industry as it suggests that workers could spend many productive years in the industry, during which time they can receive continuous training, certification and credentialing and make a career in the industry. The potential downside of this is that the industry will have to find ways to train, retain and motivate this young workforce by providing adequate compensation, incentives and training as well as promotion opportunities.

5.7.4. Distribution by level of education

Staff members were categorized according to the highest level of education completed. The results are as follows:

TABLE 5.21 EDUCATION LEVEL

EDUCATION LEVEL		FREQUENCY	PERCENT	CUMULATIVE PERCENT
1	Illiterate	345	13.4	13.4
2	Elementary	577	22.5	35.9
3	Junior	357	13.9	49.8
4	High school incomplete	383	14.9	64.7
5	High school complete	698	27.2	91.9
6	Diploma	58	2.3	94.2
7	BA	41	1.6	95.8
8	University incomplete	77	3.0	98.8
9	Unspecified	32	1.2	100.0
Total		2568	100.0	

About 80% of the tourism staff members have completed varying levels of schooling, of which 23%, 14%, 15% and 27% are elementary (completed), junior (completed), high school incomplete and high school completed respectively. The minority of about 7% is tertiary educated. There are also about 13% of the staff members who are illiterate. With regards to occupation, the majority of accountants and paid managers have a university level education, while the majority of cashiers, craftsmen and technicians, food and beverage controllers, food and beverage servers (waiters), receptionists, secretaries, storekeepers and travel agents possess a high school level education. Occupations, mostly occupied by illiterates and those with elementary level education, are cleaners and dishwashers, housekeepers, cooks, launderers, guards, and owner-managers. The majority of the bartenders and some of the waiters have a junior level education (Appendix 3, Table 5.22).

5.7.5. Distribution by formal tourism training

The survey indicated that the number of staff members who had received formal tourism-related training was relatively low. According to the survey, 90% of the total staff members of surveyed establishments have not taken any training at all. Of the remaining employees, 2%, 7%, and 1% of them have attended 1-5 months, 6-10 months and more than 10 months of formal tourism training respectively. The situation of tourism-related training in all occupations is more or less the same.

Generally, the majority of more than 70% did not undergo any type of tourism-related training. Relatively speaking, however, occupations with respect to formal tourism training can be categorized as follows:

- **More than 90% untrained, including**
Bartender, cashier, cleaner and dishwasher, cook, secretary, housekeeper, guards, storekeeper and others
- **80-90% untrained, including**
Accountants, laundry, waiter
- **70-80% untrained, including**
Food and beverage control, reception (front office staff)
- **Less than 70% untrained, including**
Managers, owner-managers, travel agents.

This implies that training is sparse and uneven; the majority of the labour force has learnt informally on the job.

The types of courses taken are mainly concerning catering, food and beverage service, food and beverage control, hospitality accounting, hotel management, tourism management, and ticketing and tour guiding. The survey revealed that 250 employees have taken tourism-related courses. More than 70% of them are currently working as waiters (59), receptionists (32), owner-managers (30), cooks (28), paid managers (27), housekeepers (14), cashiers (10), and laundry staff (8). The rest of less than 30% are working as accountants, food and beverage controllers and travel agents (7 each), bartenders (6), cleaners and dishwashers, storekeepers (3 each), secretaries, craftsmen and technicians and guards (2 each). Even though the type of training is reconciled with the training provided at the Hotel and Tourism Training Centre (HTTC), the number does not match exactly that of the supply of trained personnel at HTTC (see Tables 5.23, 5.24, 5.25 and 5.26 in Appendix 3).

5.7.6. Distribution by foreign language competency

As was done for managers, foreign language competency was also assessed in this section for all occupations. 49% of the whole tourism staff speaks at least one foreign language (English, Arabic, Italian and French) with 41%, 6% and 2%, speaking 1, 2, and 3 of the languages respectively; the rest (51%) do not speak any one of the foreign languages considered (Figure 5.3).

Figure 5.3 Foreign language competency



Out of the 49% or 1218 tourism workers, 77% speak only English, 4% English and Arabic, 6% English and Italian, 3% English, Italian and Arabic, 6% only Arabic, 2% only Italian, and 2% English and at least one other foreign language. It should be noted, however, that their levels of foreign language competency are quite dissimilar and mainly related to the level necessary for their respective routine daily activities (Table 5.27 below).

TABLE 5.27 FOREIGN LANGUAGE COMPETENCY

LANGUAGE	FREQUENCY	PERCENT
English	939	77.1
Italian	23	1.9
Arabic	74	6.1
Dutch	1	0.08
English & Arabic	50	4.1
English, Arabic & Italian	3	0.25
English & French	2	0.16
English, French & Arabic	1	0.08
English & Italian	71	5.8
English, Italian & Arabic	26	2.1
English, Italian, Arabic & French	5	0.4

LANGUAGE	FREQUENCY	PERCENT
Dutch English, Italian & Dutch	1	0.08
English, Italian & French	3	0.25
English, Italian & French	2	0.16
German	1	0.08
Italian & Arabic	14	1.15
Italian & French	1	0.08
Italian, French & Arabic	1	0.08
Total	1218	100

Furthermore, foreign language competency varied from occupation to occupation depending on the nature of the job and the education level requirement for the job. Front office staffs, for instance, require advanced levels of foreign language competency compared to back office staff. A comparison was done on the current level of foreign language competency of the existing staff of the surveyed establishments (Appendix 3, Table 5.28).

- **More than 80% who can speak at least one of the foreign languages, including**
Travel agents (100%), accountants (96%), secretaries (95%), receptionists (83%), paid managers (82%), food and beverage controllers (82%), and storekeeper (81%)
- **60 – 80% who can speak at least one of the foreign languages, including**
Cashiers (67%), owner-managers (61%), other (70%)
- **40-80% who can speak at least one of the foreign languages, including**
Craftsmen and technicians (58%), waiters (50%), guards (43%)
- **Less than 40% who can speak at least one of the foreign languages, including**
Bartenders (33%), cooks (28%), cleaners and dishwashers (25%), launderers (23%), and housekeepers (18%).

The above comparative analysis implies three things. Firstly, it indicates the degree of language requirement for each occupation. Secondly, it indicates the foreign language training requirements for each occupation. Thirdly, it indicates the medium of instruction to be chosen for each group or group of occupations. In other words, it explains that front office staff a relatively require higher degree of foreign language competency than back-office staff.

5.7.7. Distribution by years of work experience

The survey also classified the employees according to their years of tourism-related work experience and the results are as follows:

TABLE 5. 29 YEARS OF TOURISM EXPERIENCE

YEARS OF TOURISM EXPERIENCE	FREQUENCY	PERCENT	CUMULATIVE PERCENT
Unspecified	203	7.9	7.9
1	632	24.6	32.5
2	381	14.8	47.4
3	311	12.1	59.5
4	220	8.6	68.0
5	203	7.9	75.9
6-10	285	11.1	87.0
11-15	179	7.0	94.0
16-20	52	2.0	96.0
20+	102	4.0	100.0
Total	2568	100.0	

About 40% of the total of the employees have less than 2 years' work experience and are still at the entry level, about 30% have 3-5 years' moderate work experience and the remaining 30% have 6 or more years' experience and are considered well experienced.

Analysing these results comparatively, with respect to occupation, as is shown in the table below, work experience of all occupations is skewed to entry level and average (moderate) work experience while the minority has above average work experience, or is said to be well experienced. In particular waiters, receptionists, cashiers, bartenders, cleaners and dishwashers, guards, laundry staff, craftsmen and technicians forming the majority of staff members (40-55%), are at the entry-level work experience. In contrast, are the paid managers and owner-managers who are well experienced staff with 65% and 61% of the total respectively, having 6 years or more work experience (Table 5.30 below and Table 5.31 in Appendix 3).

TABLE 5.30 DISTRIBUTION BY OCCUPATION AND TOURISM WORK EXPERIENCE

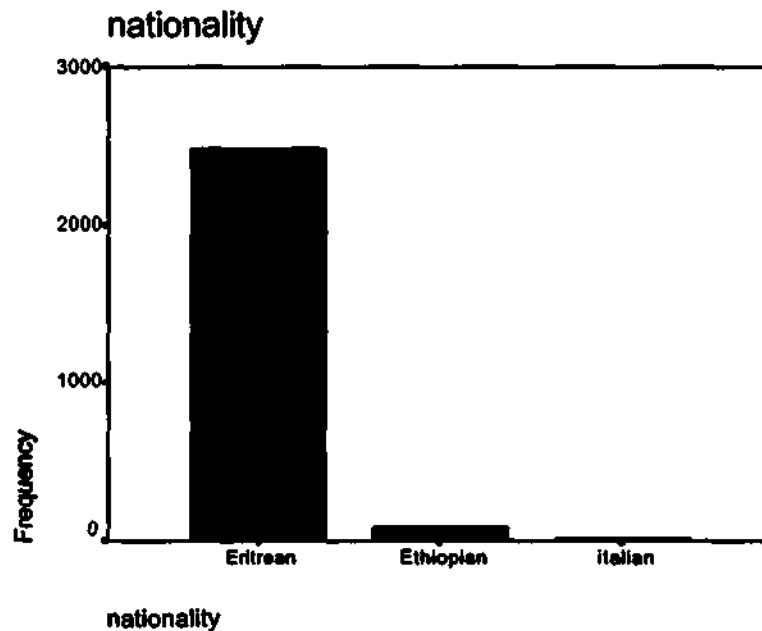
Occupational title	Entry level tourism-related work experience (Less than 2 years)	Moderate tourism-related work experience (3 -5 years)	Above average tourism-related work experience (More than 6 years)	Unspecified
Waiters	53%	28%	11%	9%
Cook	33%	30%	25%	12%
House keeping	38%	30%	28%	4%
Reception	47%	27%	22%	5%
Cleaners & dishwashers	43%	42%	11%	4%
Cashier	44%	34%	13%	9%
Bartender	44%	25%	20%	11%
Guard	48%	31%	11%	-
Laundry	47%	26%	24%	3%
Craftsmen & technicians	47%	34%	19%	-
Accountant	27%	32%	37%	2%
Store keeper	25%	44%	31%	-
Food & beverage control	30%	36%	30%	4%
Secretary	33%	52%	10%	5%
Travel agent	36%	36%	27%	9%
Paid managers	15%	15%	65%	5%
Owner managers	6%	7%	61%	26%
Other	38%	40%	20%	2%

5.7.8. Distribution by nationality

Of the total tourism work force of the surveyed establishments, 97% or 2482 are Eritreans and 3% are foreigners, of which 80 are Ethiopians and 6 are Italians (Figure 5.4). The 80 Ethiopians are currently working as waiters (26), cooks (20), housekeepers (8), bartenders (6), receptionists (5), cleaners and dishwashers (4), cashiers (3), craftsmen and technicians (3), guards (1) and storekeepers (1). The share of Ethiopians in the tourism workforce has decreased tremendously from 28%, according to the survey conducted in 1998, to less than 3%, according to the recent survey, due primarily to the border conflict (EMOT, 1998). This situation created a labour shortage initially and forced employers to increase salaries to attract Eritreans, who were not normally willing to work in the tourism industry in general, and as waiters in particular. Thus the situation created an opportunity for Eritreans to join the tourism labour market.

The occupational categories of accountants, travel agents, food and beverage controllers, housekeepers, secretaries and laundry staff are 100% occupied by Eritreans at the moment. Of the six Italians, two are working as managers and four as owner-managers (Appendix 3, Table 5.32). Currently, there are also 10 expatriate staff members in managerial, senior professional or technical capacities in the Intercontinental Hotel Asmara, who are not included in this survey.

Figure 5.4 Tourism workforce by nationality



5.7.9. Distribution by employment status

Of the total staff, 77% are permanent employees, 12% are temporary employees, 7% are employers, and the rest (about 4%) are unpaid family members. The unpaid family members are working as waiters (23), receptionists (20), cashiers (13), cooks (6), house keepers (2), and travel agents (1), in addition to their managerial and administrative responsibilities (Appendix 3, Table 5.33).

5.7.10. Distribution by salary

The survey also categorized the staff by their monthly remuneration and the result is as follows:

TABLE 5.34 SALARY RANGE

SALARY RANGE	FREQUENCY	PERCENT	CUMULATIVE PERCENT
0	266	10.4	10.4
150-500	618	24.1	34.4
501-1000	992	38.6	73.1
1001-1500	261	10.2	83.2
1501-2000	233	9.1	92.3
2001-2500	113	4.4	96.7
2501-3000	51	2.0	98.7
3000+	34	1.3	100.0
Total	2568	100.0	

The majority (63%) of the paid staff members are earning below 1000 Nakfa, some of which (about 24%) are earning as low as 150-500 Nakfa. 19% are earning 1001-2000 Nakfa and the rest (only 8%) of the paid staff are earning above 2000 Nakfa as their monthly salary. In general terms, the first group correlates with unskilled and semiskilled staff, the second group with skilled staff and the final group or level with supervisory and management staff. This correlation, however, may differ from occupation to occupation and will be analysed in more detail in the subsequent paragraphs.

TABLE 5.36 MEAN, MEDIAN AND TOTAL SALARY OF TOURISM ESTABLISHMENTS

BUSINESS TYPE	MONTHLY SALARY IN NAKFA		
	Mean	Median	Sum
Hotel	1100	850	1,712,699
Pension	320	400	79,706
Restaurant	620	500	446,090
Travel Agent	1380	1200	63,472
Grand total	896	730	2,301,967

In general, the total employed staff members of the surveyed establishments earn 2.3 million Nakfa monthly or 27.6 million yearly and represents a total injection into the local and national economy. 97% of the employees are nationals and hence the leakage from tourism employment is very minimal. In terms of mean and median monthly salary, travel agent workers ranked first, followed by workers in hotels, restaurants, and pensions in rank order. The mean and median monthly salaries for the surveyed tourism establishments as whole are 896 and 730 Nakfa respectively.

A comparative analysis indicated that of the identified occupations, the top ten high paying occupations are managers, accountants, craftsmen and technicians, others, secretaries, travel agents, store keepers, food and beverage controllers, laundry staff, and cooks in rank order. Taking the overall monthly salary mean as a reference point, all of these occupations are paying monthly mean salaries above the overall mean salary, while the remaining occupations, namely guards, cleaners and dishwashers, receptionists, waiters, house keepers, cashiers, and bartenders, are the low paying jobs, paying mean monthly salaries below the overall mean salary (Appendix 3, Table 5.35). All occupations taught at HTTC (reception, waiter, housekeeper), except for cooks, are occupations earning below the overall monthly mean salary (Table 5.18). This implies that there may be a need to enhance employees' financial rewards in order to increase their motivation and ensure that the tourism sector is able to retain and attract a high-quality workforce. Generally speaking these pay levels are lower than pay levels in other sectors such as manufacturing, construction and other service industries.

5.8. CONCLUSION

This chapter, based on the conceptual framework and literature review discussed in the previous chapters, has assessed and analysed the human resources of the tourism sector quantitatively, using both primary and secondary data, and moving from the general to the specific. The major part of the discussion has focused on the quantitative data collected and compiled through the human resources questionnaire. As a result it has identified the prevailing training deficiencies and hence the necessary HRD requirements. It has revealed that the lack of proper training and tourism professionalism is a common phenomenon for all occupations, places and levels of management. To substantiate these findings, the next chapter will focus on the qualitative assessment of the information gathered from the questionnaire distributed to tourism officials and trainers as well as major employers.

CHAPTER 6 - QUALITATIVE ANALYSIS OF HRD REQUIREMENTS

Quantitative analysis *per se*, though necessary, is not sufficient to give a true and whole picture of the problem at hand. It was therefore considered appropriate to prepare a questionnaire for the Ministry of Tourism officials, major employers and managers, as well as tourism instructors and other stakeholders of relevance to the study, in order to collect qualitative information regarding their perceptions of the problems and possible policy actions. The questionnaire with the aim of reviewing and assessing existing HRD policies at the ministry and enterprise levels, conducting HRD needs assessments, and assessing the tourism training.

As was explained in the conceptual framework, the study focuses mainly on aspects that have a direct impact on the performance of tourism, particularly job specific skills and knowledge acquisition (technical competence and occupational skills), foreign language competency, interpersonal communication as well as customer care and hospitality. In this chapter, the data collected from the questionnaire distributed are analysed and summarized (See Appendix 1 for the questionnaire).

6.1. RECOGNITION OF HR AS A KEY FACTOR AND PERCEPTIONS OF HRD

As a national policy of the country, HR is considered, among other factors, as a key factor in national development.

The most important resource of Eritrea is its people, therefore investing in the development of its human capital is the cornerstone of its development plan. The nation's levels of creativity, its wealth and the living standards of its people are determined by the breadth and depth of its intellectual assets. The reservoir of these assets relies on the learning capability and creativity of its people. Education therefore, plays the most vital role in developing the nation's intellectual and creative power (UOA, 1998: 5).

With this in mind, EMOT is fully aware of the consequences of the lack of human resources development, and has thus planned to give priority to human resources development with a view to providing high quality and personalized service to tourists. This is clearly stated in the development plan of the Ministry. It includes pre- and post-employment training and other training programmes, such as language training and public awareness programmes (EMOT, 1999).

This idea was emphasized in a recent interview of the Minister of EMOT, Amna Nurhusien:

Our biggest bottleneck is skilled manpower, both in the Ministry and in the service sector as a whole. We've made arrangements to enable staff in the Ministry to pursue various higher training courses at certificate, diploma and degree levels. Some have been sent abroad for higher education (primary and secondary degrees). We are also using distance-learning methods. We plan to broaden these training programmes. In addition, we have been working to attract skilled professionals to come here and provide on-the-job training on a short-term basis. As pointed out earlier, our training efforts extend to people employed in the hotel and catering industries. We have plans to upgrade our tourism services training school to a diploma level in 2004. Our programme comprises different short, medium, and long-term educational schemes (EMOI, 2004).

Respondents were asked whether they considered HRD crucial for tourism development and to prioritise it in relation to infrastructure development, investment promotion, tourist attractions development and capacity building. All the respondents agreed that HRD is crucial for tourism development in Eritrea and 70% of them rated HRD as first priority, followed by capacity building and infrastructure development. Moreover, 97% of the respondents agreed that HRD is an expensive but worthwhile investment and 94% of them disagreed with the suggestion that Eritrea, as a small country, does not require high levels of training in tourism and HTTC at its current status is not adequate for Eritrea (Appendix 1, questions 1, 2, a, bb, cc, dd, ee). As shown in Table 6.1 below, combined analyses of all these variables show that almost all (97%) responded negatively to the statement that HRD is not required in Eritrea while the remaining 3% were uncertain. These responses from knowledgeable stakeholders in the sector confirm that the human resources currently employed in Eritrea's tourism industry are lacking in some aspects knowledge, skills and/or attitude. (Subsequent questions investigated these deficiencies in more depth.) Internal consistency of the summed rating scale was evaluated using reliability analysis and Alpha¹ was found to be 0.7610, implying that there is internal consistency between the variables considered and hence all the variables considered, can be retained. For detailed information about item-total statistics, see Appendix 4.

¹Reliability analysis given by Alpha evaluates the internal consistency of a summed rating scale (Likert scale). Alphas above 0.5 exhibit good internal consistency and the greater it is, the better the internal consistency.

TABLE 6.1 RESPONSES TO “HRD IS NOT NEEDED IN ERITREA”

RESPONSE	FREQUENCY	PERCENT	CUMULATIVE PERCENT
Uncertain	1	3.1	3.1
Disagree	8	25.0	28.1
Strongly disagree	23	71.9	100.0
Total	32	100.0	

6.2. RATIONALE FOR HRD

Respondents were asked open-ended questions regarding how necessary they considered HRD, what problems necessitate HRD programmes and whether there were any unmet objectives or responsibilities. The main points or issues mentioned as a rationale for HRD can be summarised as follows (Appendix 1, questions 5, 23 and 24):

- Poor and unprofessional service delivery due to acute shortages and incompetence of current tourism workers.
- Highly competitive tourism market.
- Eritrea is not yet well marketed and promoted in the regional and international arena as a tourism destination.
- Insufficient foreign language competency.
- Lack of tourism professionalism and competency at the ministry level.
- The need for standards and certification.
- Lack of public awareness: The public at large does not have enough details and facts about the tourism sector and hospitality industry. Thus there is an urgent need to create awareness to channel potential people in the sector.
- High labour turnover: The traditional constraints of the hotel, catering and tourism industry – long, antisocial working hours, low pay, unstable, seasonal employment and low job status – make employment within the industry seem unattractive to many. The immediate and most obvious consequences of such a situation are the difficulty in recruiting suitable staff members and high staff turnover; both of these effects are costly to the industry. There is therefore a perceived need for human resources development, to raise the profile of the industry, to increase productivity and to provide decent, sustainable employment in the sector.

6.3. IDENTIFYING BENEFICIARIES AND TYPES OF TRAINING REQUIRED

When asked which levels of management, which specific occupations and which stakeholders require HRD, the majority of the respondents (60% and above) agreed that training is required in all occupations, in all places, at all levels of management (top, middle, lower), in all sub sectors (accommodation, travel, food and beverage and others) and for all stakeholders (employers, employees, tourism management officials), including the public at large as potential investors and customers. Furthermore, human resources management, human resources development, tourism marketing, tourism development, tourism services management, tourism research and tour operations, as well as employees in travel agents, tour guides, food and beverage services, food and beverage control, front office operations, food preparation, and housekeeping, were identified by 60-70% of the respondents as critical occupations that need immediate HRD attention. By contrast, tourism inspection, project management and analysis, hospitality accounting, tourism statistics and tourism economics, were identified by 60-70% of the respondents as not requiring immediate HRD attention.

The type of training that would be most useful for managers, technicians, supervisory personnel and craftsmen in Eritrea's tourism industry was another question raised for the respondents to consider. Although it depends on the capacity and education level of each participant, respondents expressed their views on the most appropriate mode of training as shown in Table 6.2. The selection was made according to the choices of the majority of the respondents for each category of beneficiaries. More than 90% of them strongly agreed that both the existing and new potential employees and employers are in need of continuous general and job specific training (Appendix 1, questions 3.1, 3.2, 4, 17, 21, bb and cc).

TABLE 6.2 TRAINING BENEFICIARIES AND MODE OF TRAINING

TRAINING BENEFICIARY	APPROPRIATE MODE OF TRAINING
New entrants	Mainly certificate and diploma
Existing employees	Diploma, certificate, seminars/ workshops/ conference
Employers and public at large	Seminars/ workshops/ conference
Top management	Degree and seminars/ workshops/ conference
Middle management	Diploma and seminars/ workshops/ conference
Lower management	Certificate and diploma
Operational staff	Certificate and seminars/ workshops/ conference

Some of the respondents commented that the public media consisting of newspapers, radio and television could best be of service in increasing public awareness about tourism in general, and domestic tourism in particular.

6.4. RESPONSIBILITY OF EMPLOYING ESTABLISHMENTS AND OTHER STAKEHOLDERS

Training is a life-long process and does not end at the training centre. Employment establishments, therefore, should be aware of the importance of training and should cooperate with the training centre in intensifying the training gained at the centre.

Overall unemployment or labour shortages, as well as labour market signals on existing or emerging skills shortages or oversupplies in particular areas, are of special importance to all kinds of training institutions and facilities in order to avoid wastage and misdirection of human resources resulting from training. Thus employing establishments, through their associations, should be present on the board of directors of the training centre and participate in training needs assessments, cooperate in terms of job training and offer training on a continuous basis. This can only be done if the employers themselves are trained in tourism and hospitality skills and are committed to better satisfying the expectations of tourists.

6.5. MAJOR PROBLEMS AND CONSTRAINTS IN HRD

The majority of respondents commented that the main problem of HRD in the tourism sector is not the lack of strategies and policies, but rather the lack of qualified human resources, including trainers and training infrastructures. The strategies and policies are in place; the problem is lack of appropriate action plans and implementation procedures. Thus HRD officials and experts should be at the forefront to be trained and educated so that they can implement the strategies and policies at hand.

6.6. IDENTIFYING WHO SHOULD BE RESPONSIBLE FOR THE TRAINING IN TOURISM

Respondents were asked whether i) training should be left solely to the government, ii) private institutions should participate in training, iii) the undertaking of job training should be left to the institutions doing the employing, or iv) the responsibility should be shared by a combination of all of these. Since each one of them has its own pros and cons, almost all responded that they were in favour of a combination of all. The responsibility cannot be left solely to employing institutions, as they cannot be assured of being able to retain the trained staff. Even though private training providers have consistently been shown to be more efficient than public providers in training delivery, for the sake of equal access, government should also participate. Jimenye et al (1989) argue that it is vital that private providers be properly regulated and supervised by government, whose role should be to set minimum standards and to prevent the possibility of fraud (Appendix 1, question 8).

6.7. ASSESSMENT OF TRAINING UNDERTAKEN

An assessment of the training undertaken both at HTTC and outside, is necessary to determine whether the training being offered is appropriate and meets the demands of a competitive tourism sector.

6.7.1. Training outside HTTC

Being aware that the importance of skilled and hospitable human resources is paramount in tourism, the Ministry of Tourism, in cooperation with development partners O.B.S, the European Union, Swiss HRD Agency, the Ministry of Education and Alliance France, from 1994-1996 made efforts to improve the acute shortages of skilled human resources in the sector (compiled from training reports in the EMOT).

- Some 343 people were trained for three months in hotel and restaurant basics, of which 251 were given refresher courses.
- Six months' training was given to 160 people in four main hotel and restaurant services.
- At least one month training was given to 600 hotel and restaurant employees in all the regions.
- As an initial step in developing core national professionals, 5 people, spending 2-3 years and 15 people spending a period of 3-6 months were trained in Ethiopia, Kenya, Israel and Italy.

Though in quantitative terms this training can be seen as an important step forward as it contributed to some extent to raising public awareness and tourism orientation in Eritrea, its practical efficiency and effectiveness have been limited. First, as revealed by the analysis in the previous chapter, the majority of those trained are not currently working in the sector. Secondly, this training was not well organized and standardized. Thirdly, it was discontinued until the establishment of HTTC. Finally, it also focused only on new entrants and existing employees, and not employers or owners.

6.7.2. Training at HTTC

In view of the need for a sustained, standardized and institutionalised training programme, the ministry established the Hotel and Tourism Training Centre (HTTC) in 1998. Since its establishment, the centre has trained some 716 youngsters comprising 615 female and 101 male. The duration of the training is 6 months basic entry level, consisting of 4 months in the centre itself, training in both theoretical and

practical components, as well as 2 months training in institutions affiliated with major hotels as shown in Table 6.3.

TABLE 6.3 HTTC GRADUATES 1998-2003

FIELD OF STUDY	FEMALE	MALE	TOTAL
Front office operations	176	36	212
House keeping	121	2	123
Food & beverage service	211	33	244
Food & beverage control	29	2	31
Food preparation	34	14	48
Hospitality accounting	20	-	20
Travel operation	17	3	20
Inspection	4	8	12
Food and beverage management	3	3	6
Total	615	101	716

Despite the training undertaken both within and outside HTTC, the human resources survey undertaken for this study and discussed in Chapter 5 revealed that only 10% (250) of the total currently employed in the sector have taken tourism related courses, implying that the majority of the trained staff members are not at present actively working in the sector. This implies that training should not be a once only activity, but rather continuous and sustained.

i) Organization and management of HTTC

Organization and management of HTTC were assessed in terms of management, monitoring and evaluation, training policy and programmes, learning environment, competency of instructors and training infrastructure. Combined analyses of all of these variables show that the majority of 72% was in disagreement with the statement that there is no problem with management and organization in the centre and 22% were uncertain as is reflected in the table below. According to a detailed analysis of the variables considered, the problem lies mainly in the lack of competent and knowledgeable staff members in their field of specialization and lack of training resources. Internal consistency of the summed rating scale was evaluated using reliability analysis and Alpha was found to be 0.5203 implying that there is internal consistency to some extent between the variables considered and hence all of the variables considered can be retained. For detailed information about item-total statistics see Appendix 4.

TABLE 6.4 RESPONSES TO “NO PROBLEM IN HTTC ORGANIZATION & MANAGEMENT”

RESPONSE	FREQUENCY	PERCENT	CUMULATIVE PERCENT
Agree	2	6.3	6.3
Uncertain	7	21.9	28.1
Disagree	21	65.6	93.8
Strongly disagree	2	6.3	100.0
Total	32	100.0	

ii) Training Delivery

75% of the respondents agreed that some change is required in the delivery of training, especially in terms of method and scope of training, duration of both theoretical and practical training and medium of instruction, as shown below. Internal consistency of the summed rating scale was evaluated using reliability analysis and Alpha was found to be 0.5274, implying that there is internal consistency to some extent between the variables considered and hence all of the variables considered can be retained. For detailed information about item-total statistics see Appendix 4.

84% of the respondents agreed with the statement that multi-skill training is preferred to job specific training (as HTTC is currently doing), both for the sake of the employers in order to have flexibility, and for the sake of trainees in order to advance their careers. 76% of the respondents responded positively to the statement that English, as a medium of instruction is difficult for the basic entry-level courses. More than 80% of the respondents agreed that the four months basic entry level training and the one month on the job training is not enough and should be prolonged so that trainees can emerge with a better understanding of the hospitality operations and best meet employers' and customers' expectations.

TABLE 6.5 RESPONSES TO “CHANGE IS REQUIRED IN TRAINING DELIVERY”

RESPONSE	FREQUENCY	PERCENT	CUMULATIVE PERCENT
Strongly agree	4	12.5	12.5
Agree	20	62.5	75.0
Uncertain	6	18.8	93.8
Disagree	2	6.3	100.0
Total	32	100.0	

iii) Demand Driven Training

It is understood that training should not be for the sake of training. Rather, it should be based on carefully identified developmental needs. Training should be demand driven based on what the market demands. To achieve such an objective, employers should extensively participate in determining training needs. Asked whether training currently on offer at HTTC could be seen as demand driven, 61% responded negatively while 31% of the respondents were not sure as shown in the table below.

TABLE 6.6 RESPONSES TO "TRAINING IS DEMAND DRIVEN"

RESPONSE	FREQUENCY	PERCENT	CUMULATIVE PERCENT
Agree	3	9.4	9.4
Uncertain	10	31.3	40.6
Disagree	17	53.1	93.8
Strongly disagree	2	6.3	100.0
Total	32	100.0	

iv) Training effectiveness and acceptance of graduates by employers

70-80% of the respondents agreed that tourism employers and managers would like the training to achieve enhanced customer satisfaction and loyalty, improved business performance and favourable profit, improved employee morale and motivation, better labour productivity and performance as well as a decrease in staff turnover. All of these outcomes are interrelated and influenced by each other. Putting these outcomes into consideration, respondents were asked to share their views about the effectiveness of the training at HTTC and whether its graduates met expectations of employers and their customers, whether they were accepted and better rewarded than non-graduates, whether they acquired a clear understanding of technical knowledge and skills and whether their behaviour was modelled to and matched tourism requirements. Combined analyses of all these variables show that the majority of the respondents were uncertain, while about 38% responded negatively as shown in the table below. Internal consistency of the summed rating scale was evaluated using the reliability analysis and Alpha was found to be 0.7060 implying that there is an internal consistency among the variables considered and hence all the variables considered can be retained. For detailed information about item-total statistics see Appendix 4.

TABLE 6.7 RESPONSES TO “TRAINING AT HTTC IS EFFECTIVE”

RESPONSE	FREQUENCY	PERCENT	CUMULATIVE PERCENT
Agree	2	6.3	6.3
Uncertain	18	56.3	62.5
Disagree	12	37.5	100.0
Total	32	100.0	

However, when respondents were asked to rate the graduates of HTTC in relation to non-graduates, 74% of them rated them as good, another 21% as very good, only 5% rated them as poor and none of them as excellent. When asked what specific qualities facilitate or hinder them from performing their jobs effectively, the majority of the respondents stated job specific knowledge and technical skills as well as customer care and hospitality as the strength of the graduates, while foreign language proficiency skills, interpersonal communication and information skills were listed as the weaknesses of the graduates in comparison to the non-graduates (Appendix 1, questions 11, 12, and 13). Respondents mentioned the following as strengths and weakness of HTTC.

Strengths of HTTC

- Its ability to introduce the basic entry-level courses with its limited human and financial resources allows at least for the offer of general knowledge of tourism, and the “customer comes first” concept.
- It has helped, to some extent, to solve the shortage of skilled labour in some skills, which are very crucial for the improvement of service delivery.
- Its commencement is one step forward in improving service quality and tourism promotion.
- The course content, being both theory and practice oriented, is supplemented by on-the-job training in major hotels.
- Its ability to create job opportunities for many disadvantaged groups is a benefit.
- Its success in producing knowledgeable and competent trainees in basic occupational skills and customer care and hospitality addresses an immediate concern.

Weaknesses of HTTC

- There is an inherent inability to get potential candidates that are dedicated and committed to work in the tourism sector.

- There is a shortage of qualified instructors for sustainable training and most of the existing instructors are not trained in appropriate pedagogical skills.
- There is a shortage of teaching materials, textbooks, educational technology and other training infrastructure.
- There is a lack of demonstration facilities.
- Its training is restricted to basic levels and to very limited fields.
- The programme is not integrated with other national, regional and international institutions and universities.
- There is a resultant lack of continuous on-the-job training and supervision by employers and managers once trainees are intermingled with the existing untrained workers and employers, as the trainees fall under the influence of the latter.
- The time allotted for the basic entry level, both for the theoretical and practical, is too short for the candidates.
- There is a lack of foreign language courses.
- No upgrading and refresher courses exist.
- Training is not regular and continuous.

6.8. PROPOSED SOLUTIONS TO IMPROVE HTTC TRAINING

Respondents were asked to propose their own solutions for the problems identified. Their responses can be summarized as follows.

- Solve its human, material and financial resources constraints and develop its institutional capacity.
- Create bilateral relationships with other regional and international institutions.
- Trainers should be upgraded by sending them abroad or inviting qualified experts.
- Intensify the scope, dimensions and magnitude of the training programme. This process should introduce intermediate and advanced courses for students who pass matriculation with excellent grades as well as supervisory and management level training.
- Conduct intensive public awareness seminars, workshops, conferences, and public media programmes for employers, the public at large and other stakeholders.
- Private training institutions should participate.

- Training should be based on proper training needs assessment. Employers and other stakeholders such as the association of tourism organizations should be actively involved and consulted in designing training needs and programmes.
- HTTC should lower its admission requirements and introduce foreign language courses, especially English, to improve students' trainability.
- Training should be both general and job specific and introduce multi skill training.

6.9. CONCLUSION

The qualitative findings presented here supplement and substantiate the data presented in the previous chapter. In the next and final chapter, these findings are synthesised, the broader context of the study is briefly revisited, and conclusions and recommendations are made.

CHAPTER 7 - CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The overall objective of this research paper is to provide information on tourism human resources in Eritrea and to identify specific needs for their further development. It is envisaged that this HRD will contribute to the creation of a modern and internationally competitive tourism sector in Eritrea, as well as increasing tourism's contribution to the country's economic growth and sustainable development. This chapter concludes the study. The first part reviews the potential contribution of tourism to economic growth and the importance of HRD in the Eritrean context. Thereafter, the survey findings and their implications with regard to the human resources of the Eritrean tourism sector are summed up. Finally, based on these findings, conclusions are drawn and recommendations made.

7.1. REVIEW OF THE CONTEXT AND FRAMEWORK OF THE STUDY

From the discussions in Chapter 4, it became clear that tourism is one of the world's fastest growing industries and has the potential of bringing benefits such as foreign exchange earnings, employment generation, higher government revenues, multiplier effects, the development of infrastructure and the development of entrepreneurial and other skills. However, tourism development is not always without cost. Negative impacts, such as environmental degradation and pollution, as well as negative socio-cultural impacts, affect development both at local and national levels.

For this reason, many countries including Eritrea are opting for sustainable tourism, for example rural tourism or eco-tourism, which causes little or no harmful environmental impact, and generates increasing benefits to rural areas in terms of rural productivity, employment, improved distribution of wealth, conservation of the rural environment and culture, local people's involvement, and a suitable way of adapting traditional beliefs and values to modern times.

Being endowed with historical sites, a rich cultural heritage, archaeological sites and landmarks and beautiful beaches and islands, Eritrea has considerable potential for developing its tourism sector. Besides its diversified topographical and cultural attractions, Eritrea's tourist endowments are further enhanced by varied weather conditions in different locations of the country. Hence tourism is an activity that must play an important role in the economic development of Eritrea.

If tourism policies are carefully developed, the tourism industry will not only result in an increased source of income and the creation of new jobs, but it will also stimulate infrastructure development. In addition, an effective tourism policy could reduce poverty, foster entrepreneurship and promote growth in domestic industries, stimulate production of food and local handicrafts, facilitate cultural exchange and contribute to social goodwill in the country.

Thus far, the growth of tourism in Eritrea has been constrained by (among other things) shortages of appropriate skills, and typically low standards of service. HRD can be seen as an investment in human capital that will overcome these constraints and allow for the optimal contribution of tourism to growth and development. The qualitative and quantitative findings of the survey conducted for this study will assist policy makers in defining particular priorities for HRD. The results and their implications are revisited in the following section; thereafter, more specific recommendations are made for addressing the problems identified.

7.2. SUMMARY DISCUSSION OF SURVEY FINDINGS

The Ministry of Tourism in Eritrea is not only aware of the contribution that tourism makes to economic development, but is also aware of the key role that human resource development plays in optimising that contribution. There is no problem, therefore, concerning the awareness on the contribution of HRD. Moreover, it became clear from the research that the strategies and policies are in place. The problem is the lack of appropriate action plans and implementation procedures. Thus HRD officials and experts should be at the forefront, to be trained and educated so that they can implement the strategies and policies at hand. It is only through highly capable and committed employees that organizations as well as countries gain a competitive advantage.

The Eritrean tourism industry suffers from several labour-related problems and misperceptions, all of which constitute a rationale for the introduction or expansion of HRD. These include:

- Lack of tourism professionalism and competency at the ministry level.
- Poor and unprofessional service delivery due to acute shortages and incompetence of current tourism workers and employers.
- Insufficient foreign language competency among tourism employees.
- Low regard for tourism careers, because the industry is seen to be employing many un- or semi-skilled workers at low wages.
- Inadequate supply of trainers and teaching staff, and training infrastructure.

- Absence of universally accepted entry credentials and performance standards and hence the need for standards and certification.
- Lack of awareness of and respect for tourism education and training by employers.
- Reluctance or inability (for financial reasons) of firms to invest in training their employees due to the high rate of labour turnover.
- Lack of public awareness regarding the significance of tourism.

The negative effects of these problems are compounded by the fact that Eritrea is not yet being well marketed and promoted regionally and internationally as a tourist destination, in a tourism market that is becoming highly competitive.

The enquiry into who should receive training concluded that training is required in all occupations, in all places, at all levels of management (top, middle, lower), in all sub sectors (accommodation, travel, food and beverage and others) and for all stakeholders (employers, employees, tourism management officials), including the public at large as potential investors and customers. The general trends in the labour market indicate that unemployment coexists with a shortage of labour, or a skills deficiency. Thus, as discussed in Chapter 4, tourism, if supported by appropriate HRD strategies, can play a vital role in solving both the problem of unemployment and the skills deficiency, as well as reducing the leakages resulting from the repatriation of wages and salaries of expatriates.

The current educational status assessment clearly showed that there exists a difficulty in finding the best quality potential pool of candidates for any basic tourism training programme. This has obviously had an adverse effect on the efficiency and effectiveness of the quality of tourism training. To produce quality skilled employees, selection should be done correctly in the first place.

An assessment of tourism establishments revealed the following major findings for HRD requirements and tourism development:

- The ownership structure of tourism establishments is predominantly private and is mainly owned by Eritrean nationals holding 97% of the total.
- 53% of the establishments were opened before liberation, 15% between 1991-1995, 24% between 1996-2000 and 8% after 2000.
- According to the survey, 89% of the existing tourism establishments are small-scale enterprises (with up to 20 employees), 10% are medium-scale enterprises (with 20-100 employees) and only 1% are large enterprises (with 100 or more employees).

The implication of the above analysis is that training should be categorized with respect to the size and nature of establishments' training requirements.

An analysis of owners and managers in general revealed that both groups are not trained sufficiently in tourism and are working very traditionally and in many cases, are lacking tourism professionalism. These managers are the personnel who manage, direct, guide and supervise the duties of all employees under them. Thus priority should be given to these owners and managers, as they are critical both to the success of their businesses in particular, and to tourism development in general.

The profile assessment of existing employees revealed, among other things, the following major findings relevant to HRD requirements:

- Of the total workforce of the surveyed tourism establishments, which is 2568, 71% are female.
- Of the total tourism workforce of the surveyed establishments, 97%, or 2482, are Eritreans and 3% are foreigners (80 Ethiopians and 6 Italians).
- Tourism human resources reflect a young profile, with 51% being 30 years or younger, and another 21% in the age group of 31-40.
- About 80% of the tourism staff members are high school educated and below. The rest, the minority of about 7%, is qualified at university level. There are also about 13% of the employers who are illiterate.
- 90% of the total staff of the surveyed establishments had not received any training at all. This surely implies that training is sparse and uneven, with the majority of the labour force having learnt informally on the job. This clearly explains the general absence of sound standards and the poor quality of services provided. This calls, therefore, for appropriate training in order to address the prevailing acute shortages of skilled and professional labour in the sector as whole.
- 49% of the whole tourism staff speaks at least one foreign language (English, Arabic, Italian and French) while 51% do not speak any of the mentioned foreign languages. It should be noted, however, that their levels of foreign language competency are dissimilar, and reflect the level required for their respective daily routine activities.
- About 40% of the total, with less than 2 years of work experience, are still at the entry level. About 30% with 3-5 years, possess moderate work experience and the remaining 30% with 6 or more years, are considered well experienced.
- 77% of the total comprises permanently employed staff members, 12% are temporary employees, 7% are employers and about 4% are unpaid family members.

- Generally speaking, occupations in Eritrean tourism are low paying jobs, with the majority of the population earning below the middle-income level. This points to the need for greater financial reward to boost motivation and to retain and attract a quality work force.
- Despite the training undertaken, both within and outside HTTC, the current human resources survey revealed that only 10% of the total (250 people) have taken tourism related courses, implying that the majority of the trained staff is not currently actively working in the sector. Training should not be a once only experience. Rather, it should be ongoing and sustained.

The assessment of HTTC revealed the following major findings relevant to HRD requirements:

- According to detailed analysis of the variables considered for assessing the organization and management of HTTC, the problem mainly lies in the lack of competent and knowledgeable staff in their field of specialization and lack of training resources and facilities.
- 75% of the respondents agreed that some change is required in the delivery of training, in terms of methods and scope of training, duration of both theoretical and practical training and medium of instruction. 76% of the respondents thought that English, as a medium of instruction is difficult for the basic entry-level courses. More than 80% of the respondents agreed that the four months basic entry level training and the one month on the job training is not enough and should be prolonged so that trainees can come out with a better understanding of the hospitality operations and best meet employers' and customers' expectations. It was also felt that HTTC should introduce certificate and diploma level training.
- Multi-skill training is preferred to job specific training (as HTTC is currently doing) both for the sake of the employers, in order to have flexibility, and for the sake of trainees, in terms of their career advancement.
- It is generally understood that training should not be for the sake of training. Rather, it should be based on carefully identified developmental needs. Training should be demand driven, that is, based on the market requirements. To achieve such an objective, employers should extensively participate in determining training needs.
- The analysis suggested that stakeholders were unconvinced about the effectiveness of current HTTC training and the acceptance of its graduates by employers: the majority of the respondents was uncertain of these aspects, while about 38% responded negatively.
- The particular strengths of HTTC graduates were identified as job specific knowledge and technical skills, as well as customer care and hospitality, while foreign language proficiency skills, interpersonal communication and information skills were identified as key weaknesses.

In addition to public training provision, the assessment suggested that private training providers should also participate under proper regulation and supervision by the government, whose role should be to set minimum standards and to prevent the possibility of fraud. Employment institutions should not only provide proper continuous upgrading and refresher training, but they should also strictly supervise and manage their staff members' day to day activities to ensure that they match up to tourists' expectations.

7.3. RECOMMENDATIONS

The following recommendations are proposed to address the critical skills deficiencies found by this study as well as the other critical issues impacting on human resource development in the tourism industry in Eritrea.

7.3.1. SUSTAINABLE TOURISM DEVELOPMENT

The choice of sustainable tourism development by Eritrea to exploit fully its potential historical and natural tourism attractions is well made and it is recommended that quick action be taken for its full implementation. No matter how attractive and diverse the tourism attractions are, unless action is taken to develop them as a tourism product, to make them easily accessible, to protect and safeguard them for sustainable use, to market and promote Eritrea as a preferred tourist destination, and to ensure supreme service delivery, the expected contribution is not going to happen.

7.3.2. MEASURES TO MAXIMIZE TOURISM'S CONTRIBUTION

To optimise the contribution from tourism, not only should the numbers of domestic and international tourists be increased, but the tourists should also be influenced to stay longer and spend more. The tourism industry should also be highly integrated with the national and local economy in order to maximize linkages and minimize the leakages. To achieve the above objectives in general and to increase the number of tourists and attract high-spending tourists, specifically, quality employees who are well educated and trained in the tourism profession are a top priority. The country is, however, overwhelmed, by the general absence of sound standards and experiences poor quality of service. There is an urgent need, therefore, for appropriate training to address the prevailing acute shortage of skilled and professional labour in the sector as whole.

7.3.3. IMPORTANCE OF HUMAN RESOURCES DEVELOPMENT

The awareness and recognition of the importance of HRD in terms of policy and strategy, by the Ministry of Tourism in Eritrea, are highly appreciated and it is recommended that quick, necessary action be taken to implement these policies and strategies. The Ministry of Tourism, HTTC and the Tourism Establishments Association should intensify an aggressive marketing campaign to sensitise industry operators to the critical importance of human resources development for the development of their own businesses and of national tourism in general. The development of training plans and programmes by themselves will not improve Eritrean tourism unless industry operators recognize and accept the importance of training in the first place.

7.3.4. PROACTIVE AND COORDINATED TOURISM TRAINING

A lack of long-term vision for tourism training can have a major impact on the development of a country's tourism industry. Tourism training is most effective when it is proactive and coordinated. A national framework for planning and developing tourism education and training is beneficial to improving staff retention, in using resources more productively, in keeping pace with the growth in the industry and in boosting industry competitiveness. A tourism technical and vocational education and training consultative committee, comprising members from EMOT, HTTC, employees and employers associations, should be formed with the aim of advising training needs and methods. This is an important first step in developing training programmes that meet the needs and demands of the industry, as well as the capacity of the education providers.

7.3.5. CONTINUOUS PUBLIC AWARENESS EDUCATION

In order to raise the profile of the tourism sector, as well as to solve the misperceptions in the sector, there is a need for continuous and intensive public awareness and education programmes to sensitise Eritrean nationals to the important role played by tourism in their national economy and their specific role in its development. These programmes should make full use of the public and electronic media to disseminate information. Public relations, marketing and advertising skills will be required for these initiatives.

7.3.6. TOURISM AS A CAREER

Due to the high labour turnover, and the consideration of many tourism occupations as transitory jobs rather than career options, training should not be isolated, but rather continual and sustainable. Given the importance of tourism to the Eritrean economy, there is a need for Eritrean nationals to get an early

exposure to tourism – possibly from the secondary education level. Given the fact that the majority of establishments in the industry are small or medium-sized family-owned operations, career opportunities are limited and there may be little incentive or motivation for these establishments to develop career opportunities and paths for their workforce. Programmes in entrepreneurship and small business management for the tourism industry should, therefore, be developed to provide workers with career options outside of their immediate place of work. Thus tourism operations need to promote and develop tourism as a viable career option both for potential entrants into the industry and for persons already in the industry.

7.3.7. THE NEED FOR CONTEMPORARY HRM

When tourists visit a destination or attraction, they buy not only the physical amenities and attractions, but also the skills and services of tourism employees (Davidson, 1993). Most importantly, therefore, the tourism industry needs to develop a holistic approach to human resources management, including the proper recruitment and selection of people for the industry, the appropriate compensation of people in the industry and the use of contemporary management approaches like teamwork, participative leadership, empowerment and continuous learning. Tourism training and education alone will not solve performance problems if people are not properly selected for the industry, if compensation is perceived to be low, if management styles are outdated, if employees see no viable future in tourism and if the country has a poor perception of tourism. For this reason, tourism establishments are highly in need of professional human resources managers who can strategically plan human resource needs, introduce and manage efficient human resource systems such as training and development, performance appraisal, and rewarding so that employees become motivated to perform their duties with job satisfaction (Neo et al, 2000).

7.3.8. OWNERS/MANAGERS NEED TRAINING

As owner-managers and paid managers are the personnel, who manage, direct, guide and supervise the work of all employees under them, and are thus critical both to the success of their businesses in particular and tourism development in general, priority should be given to these groups. There is an urgent need to develop and deliver business and management training, as identified above, to the many small and medium-sized enterprise owners and managers in the industry.

7.3.9. KEY ROLE OF HTTC AND OTHER TRAINING PROVIDERS

HTTC can play a key role in implementing HRD policies and strategies as well as for pre- and post-employment training programmes. Thus its human, financial, and material capacities should be

properly developed and integrated with other national, regional and international training institutions. It should also take necessary action to implement the proposals made in section 7.3.12. Private training providers should also participate in tourism training under proper regulation and supervision of the government.

7.3.10. STANDARDIZATION AND CERTIFICATION

There is a need to standardize all occupations in tourism and certify jobholders in order to raise the level of service delivery in the country. The development of occupational standards and certification will assist immensely with the development of training and education programmes, resulting in more effective, relevant and consistent training.

7.3.11. MINISTRY LEVEL TRAINING REQUIREMENT

The Ministry of Tourism is expected to provide overall guidance, as well as fostering the enabling environment for sustainable tourism development. The Ministry should also be in a position to ensure that there is a well functioning system of incentives for the supply and demand of critical skills for the industry. Ministry staff members possessing various skills and specializations, both at national and regional levels, are those who organize, manage, develop and promote tourism progress. The tourism sector at the ministry level both nationally and regionally, therefore, requires personnel such as development planners, marketers, services managers, project analysts, statisticians and human resource managers in top, middle, and lower operational levels of management.

All these personnel should be potential candidates for fellowships and attachments abroad, and participation in tourism planning, management, marketing, product development, human resources development and public awareness workshops and seminars organized separately or jointly under the sponsorship of HTTC, should be necessary.

The Ministry of Tourism also has to identify some young professionals with suitable academic backgrounds and proven motivation, to be selected for advanced tourism studies abroad in tourism management, development and marketing. Ministry officials should also benefit from a variety of attachments, fellowships and study tours, aimed at enhancing their understanding and knowledge of international tourism, while developing their own technical and management skills.

7.3.12. CRITICAL JOBS AND KEY TRAINING REQUIREMENTS IN THE TOURISM INDUSTRY

The tourism business is a people-oriented business and depends on quality service from trained service managers and employees. The efficiency and effectiveness of the Ministry of Tourism staff members depends not only on their own development but also on the knowledge, skills, and capabilities of those whom they lead. Assessment of local destination tourism services and current service managers and employees reveals the level of service quality, the availability and qualification of service managers and employees, and the need for tourism employment training and professional education. To determine expected training needs and existing quality gaps in tourism training programmes, tourism human resources were surveyed in two general areas: identifying what skills and knowledge are considered most necessary for tourism industry employees and what skills and knowledge are most lacking among tourism employees.

Based on the tourism employment characteristics, attitudes, skill requirements and training for both existing and new entrant employees and employers should not only be occupation specific training but should also include general skills training (Davidson, 1993). What follows are the areas in which training gaps were identified, as well as the general training requirements applicable to the tourism industry, which can be divided into four categories:

i) Training requirements applicable to all staff

Hospitality skills include customer service and the spirit to serve, guest relations as well as understanding other cultures, customs, and habits.

Interpersonal skills at work include proactive thinking, persuasion, communication, motivation, delegation and empowerment.

Foreign Language Training includes the foreign language competency of the whole staff. At present it is not satisfactory and as it is one of the basic tourism requirements, all tourism training programmes should include foreign language upgrading courses and should include specific training modules in conversational language communication in conversational English, Italian, and Arabic for tourism. These programmes should be developed and resourced in conjunction with existing language institutions and educators in the country.

Health and safety procedures include first-aid, fire training, general hygiene, sanitation and grooming practices, stress management and quality control.

ii) Training requirements for supervisors and middle management

Management and supervisory training should be designed to help managers and supervisors to select, train, motivate, coach and counsel employees to deliver quality customer service. There is a critical need for owners, managers and supervisors in the industry to develop contemporary management competencies like marketing, human resources management, financial management, planning and quality control, related to hotel, accommodation, food and beverage and travel operations.

iii) Training requirements for guest-contact employees

This important group of employees particularly requires training in service expertise, social skills, guest courtesy, product knowledge, selling skills, handling complaints, handling difficult customers, telephone techniques, and general communication skills.

iv) Specialized training requirements

The major current and future technical training needs identified by 60-70% of the respondents as critical occupations that need immediate attention in terms of HRD are: human resources management, human resources development, tourism marketing, tourism development, tourism services management, tourism research, travel, tour operations, tour guiding, front office operations, food and beverage services, food and beverage control, food preparation skills, hospitality accounting, house keeping and laundry and safety and security skills.

7.3.13. COMPUTER LITERACY

As information technology becomes more all encompassing in the tourism industry, (e.g. hotel and travel reservations systems; accounting software), training in the use of computer technology in the tourism industry should be developed for different levels of competence (Law, 2001).

7.3.14. TRAIN THE TRAINER

“Train the Trainer” courses should be offered for all owners, managers, supervisors and in-house trainers, who do the majority of the training in the industry. Special attention should be paid to on-the-job training, as this is the most widely used training methodology in the industry. For example, the HTTC has to develop a Certified Eritrean Hospitality Trainers programme, which can be used to certify trainers in the entire tourism industry. Given the widespread preference for in-house training,

the option of training in-house trainers may be the most viable and cost-effective approach to improving training in the industry.

7.4. CONCLUSION

Successful tourism development requires a national effort to mobilize capital, to exploit natural resources and attractions, to create markets, and to promote and position Eritrea as a preferred tourist destination. The aim is to increase tourist numbers, their spending in Eritrea and their length of stay, to improve the geographic spread of tourist destinations and also to encourage Eritreans to become tourists in their own country, and hence maximize the economic potential of sustainable tourism for the country and its people. The research revealed that HRD is needed in order to meet all of the training needs at all levels across the spectra of occupations, positions and sub sectors, both for the existing and new entrants.

This does not mean that the other major constraints on tourism development are not acknowledged. For example, the low level of income limits the capacity for domestic tourism, the low level of savings/investments inhibits the modernization of the tourism industry and the lack of technological capabilities, as well as the absence of infrastructural development and institutional capacities, prohibit the existence of competitive modern tourism establishments. Having the right kind of human capital available is one of the necessary conditions for a competitive and sustainable tourism sector, and as such was the focus of this study.

The research conducted produced an accumulation of qualitative and quantitative information, not only concerning the training needs of the industry, but also on how the industry manages its human resources in general. The study provides important and revealing information about major occupational groups, education levels, nationality and age group of the tourism workforce in Eritrea, as well as the gender breakdown, the employment status, work experience, salary range, foreign language competency and training and development practices in the industry. Despite the research challenges experienced, the results of the study are representative of the establishments in the country and, therefore, the conclusions and recommendations can apply to the industry as a whole. Given the fact that very little baseline data on human resource development in the tourism industry existed prior to this study, it is hoped that it will provide a benchmark for future studies as well as offering important guidance to policy makers, planners and investors.

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APPENDIX 1 - QUESTIONNAIRE FOR QUALITATIVE DATA

Dear respondent:

Currently I am working on my dissertation to complete my M.A in Economics at the University of Natal, South Africa. I would be very grateful if you provide me with the following data (information) to help me complete my dissertation entitled: *'The Role of Tourism Development And of HRD in the tourism sector, in Promoting Economic growth in Eritrea.'*

The broad aim of this study is to highlight prospects of tourism development in Eritrea and its contribution to over all economic development and mainly to analyze the role of HRD in the tourism sector development.

You may respond using any sign (X, or tick mark). Where written responses are required space is provided, however you may write in additional comments and elaborate on your answers whenever you wish to do so. In such cases, feel free to use the back of each page or the last page.

Please complete this Questioner as openly and honestly as you can. I strongly believe that your feedback is very valuable and can be used as a reference for future improvement. Note that this questionnaire is solely for student research purposes.

I thank you for your kind co-operation!

Yosief Hidru

-
-
-
- 7) What specific results would management like the training to achieve?
(You can mark more than one option?)

Enhanced customer satisfaction & loyalty
 Improved business performance and high profit
 Improved employee morale and Motivation
 Better labour productivity & performance
 A decrease in staff turnover
 Other, please specify _____

- 8) Who should be responsible to undertake training in Tourism? (You can mark more than one option?)

- Solely by the government
- Private institutions should participate
- Employing establishments should undertake on the job training on continuous Bases
- A combination of all

- 9) Which one do you think the best method of training? (You can mark more than one option?)

Training for whom	Formal /off the job Training	Informal/On the job Training	Combination of both
New entrants			
Existing workers			

- 10) How do you rate the graduates of Hotel & Tourism Training Center (HTTC)?

Excellent Very Good Good Poor Bad

- 11) What specific qualities distinguish them from non-graduates?
(You can mark more than one option?)

Foreign Language proficiency/skills
 Inter-personal communication
 Job specific knowledge/occupational skills
 Customer care and hospitality
 Ability to give information accurately and effectively

7.4.1.1. Other, please specify _____

- 12) What specific qualities hinder them from rendering their jobs/duties effectively? (you can mark more than one option?)

Lack of Foreign Language proficiency skills
 Lack of Inter-personal communication
 Lack of Job specific knowledge and technical competence /occupational skills
 Lack of Customer care and hospitality

Inability to give information accurately and effectively
Other, please specify _____

13) What are the major strengths of HTTC?

14) What are the major weaknesses of HTTC?

15) How do you think the training of HTTC could be improved i.e. the strength to be built upon and the weaknesses to be tackled?

16) Focus of training should be? (You can mark more than one option)

Short course (less than 6 months)

Certificate program (6-12 months)

Diploma level (2 years)

Other please specify, _____

17) What did you suggest HTTC should focus for the next few years?

18) What is the responsibility of the employing institutions for training on the job and how can a greater share of the burden of the training be shifted to these institutions?

19) What measures can be taken to create a closer and more productive relationship between HTTC and the employing institutions?

20) What types of training for managers, for technicians, for supervisory personnel, and for crafts men etc are most useful in Eritrea tourism industry? (You can mark more than one option)

Training for whom	Degree	Diploma	Certificate	Workshops/seminars /conference etc
New entrant employees				
Existing employees				
Employers				
Public at large				
Top level management				
Middle level management				
Lower level management				
Operational staff level				

21) How do you view the role of overseas training in alleviating the shortage of skilled HR in Eritrea?

Very important Some what important Not so important

22) Do you think Eritrea is well marketed and promoted in the world tourism market?

Yes No

23) As a customer of tourism establishments (hotels, restaurants, pensions, travel agents, etc) what do you think their workers should improve in order to offer you or others excellent services?

24) Major problems and constraints involving HRD in the tourism sector Eritrea are:

(You can mark more than one option)

- Shortage of qualified human resource
- Shortage of tourism training infrastructure and qualified trainers
- Lack of strategies and policies for HRD in the tourism sector
- Working conditions in the tourism sector

25) Any other comment or suggestion _____

26) Which one do you think the best method of training?

Send trainees abroad Invite qualified instructors to Eritrea

Why? _____

Please assess the effectiveness of training function in the ministry of tourism by indicating your opinion in the following lists.

	STATEMENT	Strongly Agree	Agree	Uncertain (No opinion)	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
a	HTTC at its current status is adequate for Eritrea.(NoHRD0)	3	16	9	47	25
b	There is good management and organization of the center. Orgmgt1	19	38	34	9	-
c	There is well-designed and widely placed training policy and program in the center. orgmgt2	3	50	13	28	6
d	Training is periodically evaluated and improved. orgmgt3	3	22	13	53	9
e	Instructors and management created a positive learning environment. Orgmgt4	-	53	28	9	9
f	The center is well staffed by competent and knowledgeable staff in their field of specialization. Orgmgt5	-	13	13	53	22
g	HTTC Resources (handouts, audio visuals, library) as well as physical facilities are excellent & suitable to accomplish study and assignments. Orgmgt6	6	9	16	53	16
h	English as a medium instruction for Basic Entry level courses is difficult. trdeliv1	13	63	9	13	3
i	The duration for entry-level courses 4 months is short; it should be at least 6 months. Trdeliv2	28	66	3	3	-
j	The one month practice / on the job training for the entry-level courses is not enough. Trdeliv3	19	63	6	13	-
k	Employers utilize the benefits from the training. trneff1	9	63	13	16	-
l	The certificate for the entry-level courses is well recognized and accepted by employers. Trneff2	19	6	69	6	-
m	HTTC Graduates have best satisfied the expectations of their employers and their customers or tourists. Trneff3	-	16	13	72	-
n	Graduates of H.T.T.C. are well accepted and rewarded than non – graduates by tourism establishments. Trneff4	9	56	16	13	6
o	Employers should be informed and forced to employ only certificate of HTTC holders. Trneff5	34	25	6	19	16
p	Trainees are sponsored for training programs on the Bases of carefully identified developmental needs. ddtrain1	6	13	13	66	3
q	The several short-term courses undertaken by HTTC are demand driven i.e. HTTC trained what the market or tourism establishments demand. Ddtrain2	3	66	13	13	6
r	Employers participate extensively in determining	-	16	9	63	13

	STATEMENT	Strongly Agree	Agree	Uncertain (No opinion)	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
	the training needs. Ddtrain3					
s	Multi skill training is more preferred to specific job training (as HTTC is currently undertaking) for the sake of the employers in order to have flexibility and for the sake of trainees for their career advancement. Trdeliv0	34	50	6	9	-
t	Trainees are very well helped to acquire technical knowledge and skills through training. Trneff6	19	38	16	28	-
u	Trainees sponsored for training go with a clear understanding of knowledge and skills they are expected to acquire from training. Trneff7	-	25	16	59	-
v	There is significant improvement in the performance of employees after training. Trneff8	16	53	21	6	3
w	Trainees' behavior is modeled and developed and matched with Tourism requirements after training Trneff9 .	3	66	19	13	-
x	Trainees' technical skills and knowledge are improved due to training. Trneff10	13	62	25	-	-
y	There is adequate emphasis on developing managerial capabilities of management staff of the tourism sector through training. magreia	3	31	9	44	13
z	The public in general is well-informed and aware of what tourism entails Trneff11	3	3	19	50	25
aa	Working as a hotel worker in general and as a waiter in particular is socially acceptable in Eritrea. awarne2	-	19	6	56	19
bb	As majority of the currently employed in the tourism establishments are performing their work effectively and efficiently without taking formal training, there is no need to conduct training for those currently working. Nohrd1	3	-	6	47	44
cc	Even for the new entrants training is not required as they can master the work/job within short period of time on the job (without formal training). Nohrd2	3	-	6	38	53
dd	HRD is an expensive and is not worthwhile investment. nohrd3	-	-	3	50	47
ee	Eritrea as a small country does not require a high level training in tourism. nohrd4	3	3	-	38	56
ff	HRD is not required nohrd	-	-	3	25	72
gg	Org & mgt orgmgt	-	6	22	66	6
hh	Training delivery trdeliv	13	63	19	6	-
ii	Training is demand driven ddtrain	-	9	31	53	-
jj	Training effectiveness trneff	-	6	56	38	-

APPENDIX 3 - STATISTICAL TABLES

**TABLE 2.1 GROSS DOMESTIC PRODUCT OF ERITREA BY INDUSTRIAL ORIGIN (1992-2002) AT 1992 CONSTANT FACTOR COST
(IN MILLIONS OF NAKFA)**

Item	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002 *
Agriculture	598.0	481.9	658.5	581.5	547.9	550.9	866.7	800.3	452.2	584.1	738.9
Crops	281.5	16.2	324.9	239.7	201.5	202.6	50.23	418.0	143.0	260.1	399.2
Livestock	223.9	222.5	229.9	232.6	235.9	241.1	233.2	265.8	186.1	195.4	205.1
Fishing	2.6	3.5	8.4	11.2	9.8	3.4	4.5	6.7	10.1	12.3	15
Hunting											
Forestry	90.1	92.6	95.3	98	100.8	103.7	106.7	109.8	113.0	116.3	119.6
Industry	235.3	337.4	384.7	466.2	638.4	764.5	715.0	735.3	688.3	731.6	792.6
Mining and Quarrying	2	4	4.0	4.0	4.1	8.8	6.8	6.1	3.0	1.3	1.9
Manufacturing	137.2	166.1	176.6	213.0	240.9	256.6	233.5	234.6	242.9	256.2	272.9
Small Industry and Husbandry	24.2	28.1	32.7	38.1	50.2	93	85	88.4	91.5	96.5	102.8
Construction	48.7	115.3	145.1	183.3	313.7	373.9	356.9	371.1	315.5	340.7	374.8
Electricity	13.9	14.4	16.4	17.7	19.1	21.5	21.9	23.7	23.9	25.0	28.0
Water	9.3	9.6	9.8	10.1	10.4	10.7	11.0	11.3	11.6	11.9	12.3
Distribution	722.1	828.4	970.1	1074	1149	1222.6	1019.2	1029.4	967.6	1025.7	1097.5
Wholesale and Retail Trade	484.6	567.8	641.4	717.8	763.9	808.9	648.9	655.4	589.8	625.2	669.0
Transport and Communication	237.5	260.6	328.8	353.6	384.9	413.8	370.3	374	377.8	400.4	428.5
Other Services	401.7	502.8	689.0	654.9	696.8	728.9	793.8	838.9	888.6	915.8	945.4
Banking and Insurance	23.6	34.2	52.2	64.9	86.5	91.7	96.8	100.2	98.2	104.1	111.4
Public Administration and Development	225.1	294.5	447.5	396.5	409.2	419.4	468.2	498.8	538.7	546.8	555.0
Real Estate and Housing	47.8	48.4	49.1	50.3	51.8	53.9	55.8	57.4	59.2	61.2	63.4
Education	38.9	45.2	50.8	54.6	58.7	63.5	68.2	72.9	78.0	83.5	89.3
Health	15.9	28.3	35.6	32.9	33.1	40.8	43.3	45.9	48.6	51.8	55.2
Domestic Service	3.2	3.3	3.4	3.5	3.6	3.7	3.9	4	4.1	4.3	4.4
Others	47.2	48.8	50.5	52.2	54.0	55.8	57.7	59.7	61.7	64.2	66.7
GDP at Constant Factor cost	1957.	2150.	2702.	2777.	3032	3266.9	3394.6	3403.9	2997	3257.2	3574.3

Source: Ministry of Finance of Eritrea (EMOF), 2002

TABLE 4.1 WORLD'S TOP 15 TOURISM SPENDERS

RANK	COUNTRY	INTERNATIONAL TOURISM EXPENDITURE (US\$ BILLION)			MARKET SHARE
		1999	2000	2001	2001
1	U.S.A	58.9	64.5	58.9	12.7
2	Germany	50.8	47.6	46.2	10.0
3	U. K	35.6	36.3	36.5	7.9
4	Japan	32.8	31.9	26.5	5.7
5	France	18.6	17.8	17.7	3.8
6	Italy	16.9	15.7	14.2	3.1
7	China	10.9	13.1	-	-
8	Hong Kong	13.1	12.5	12.5	2.7
9	Netherlands	12.1	12.2	12.0	2.6
10	Canada	11.3	12.1	11.6	2.5
11	Belgium	9.8	9.4	9.8	2.1
12	Austria	9.2	8.5	8.9	1.9
13	Russia	7.4	-	-	-
14	Korea	4.0	6.2	6.9	1.5
15	Sweden	7.6	8.0	6.8	1.5
	Total	299	295.8	268.5	58

Source: WTO, *World Overview & Tourism Topics, Tourism Market Trends 2002* edition

TABLE 4.2 WORLD'S TOP 15 TOURISM EARNERS

RANK	COUNTRY	INTERNATIONAL TOURISM EXPENDITURE (US\$ BILLION)			MARKET SHARE
		1999	2000	2001	2001
1	U.S.A	74.7	82.0	72.3	15.6
2	Spain	32.5	31.5	32.2	7.1
3	France	31.5	30.0	30.0	6.5
4	Italy	28.4	27.5	25.8	5.6
5	China	14.1	16.2	17.8	3.8
6	Germany	18.1	18.5	17.2	3.7
7	U.K	20.2	19.5	16.3	3.5
8	Canada	10.2	10.7	10.8	2.3
9	Austria	11.0	9.9	10.1	2.2
10	Greece	8.8	9.2	-	-
11	Turkey	5.2	7.6	8.9	1.9
12	Mexico	9.2	8.5	8.4	1.8
13	Hong Kong	7.2	7.9	8.2	1.8
14	Austria	8.0	8.5	7.6	1.6
15	Switzerland	7.8	7.5	7.6	1.6
	Total	286.9	295	273.2	59

Source: WTO, *World Overview & Tourism Topics, Tourism Market Trends 2002* edition

TABLE 4.3 INTERNATIONAL TOURISM ARRIVALS AND RECEIPTS - WORLD AND AFRICA 1988-2001

	1988	1989	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001
World Arrivals (millions)	394.3	426.0	457.3	463.3	502.3	518.1	549.6	551.7	594.9	613.5	628	652.3	696.8	692.6
% Annual change	8.5	8.0	7.3	1.3	8.4	3.1	6.1	0.4	7.8	3.1	2.4	3.9	6.8	-0.6
World Receipts (US\$ Billions)	203.8	220.8	263.4	276.8	313.5	321.1	352.6	405.3	434.0	443.6	445	457.2	477.0	463.6
% Annual change	15.6	8.3	19.0	5.0	13.3	2.4	9.8	15.0	7.0	2.2	0.32	2.7	4.3	-2.8
Africa Arrivals (millions)	12.5	13.8	15.0	16.2	18.1	18.5	19.0	20.0	21.6	23.3	24.8	26.2	27.2	28.4
% Annual change	27.2	10.9	8.7	8	11.7	2.8	2.2	5.3	8.0	8.1	6.4	5.6	3.7	4.3
Africa Receipts (US\$ Billions)	4.6	4.5	5.3	5.0	6.2	6.3	6.8	8.1	8.3	8.7	8.1	10.5	10.8	11.7
% Annual change	20.1	-1.7	18.0	-6.3	23.7	2.0	8.5	6.4	15.0	4.8	-6.9	30.0	2.7	8.8

Source: Compiled from WTO, as cited in Christie and Crompton, and WTO (*World Overview*), 2002

TABLE 4.4 INTERNATIONAL TOURIST ARRIVALS BY (SUB) REGION

(SUB)REGION	INTERNATIONAL TOURIST ARRIVALS (MILLION)					MARKET SHARE (%)		GROWTH RATE (%)		AVERAGE ANNUAL GROWTH (%)
	1990	1995	1999	2000	2001	1995	2001	00/99	01/00	95-00
World	457	551	652	697	693	100	100	6.8	-0.6	4.8
Africa	15	20	26	27	28	3.6	4.1	3.7	4.3	6.3
North Africa	8.4	7.3	9.4	10.1	10.6	1.3	1.5	6.8	4.8	6.6
West Africa	1.4	1.9	2.5	2.7	3.0	0.3	0.4	6.5	12.7	6.8
Central Africa	0.4	0.3	0.4	0.4	0.5	0.1	0.1	3.4	15.6	6.3
East Africa	2.9	4.5	5.8	5.8	5.9	0.8	0.8	-1.1	1.5	5.2
Southern Africa	2.0	6.0	8.0	8.3	8.5	1.1	1.2	2.8	2.4	6.6
Americas	93.0	109	122	128	120	19.7	17.4	5	-6	3.4
East Asia and the Pacific	54.6	81.3	96.8	109	115	14.7	16.6	12.7	5.5	6.1
Europe	283	324	380	403	400	58.8	57.7	5.8	-0.7	4.4
Middle East	9	13.1	20.5	23.2	22.7	2.4	3.3	13.2	-2.5	12.2
South Asia	3.2	4.2	5.8	6.1	5.8	0.8	0.8	5.4	-4.5	7.7

Source: WTO, *World Overview and Tourism Topics, Tourism Market Trends*, 2002

TABLE 4.5 INTERNATIONAL TOURIST RECEIPTS

(SUB)REGION	INTERNATIONAL TOURIST RECEIPTS (US\$BILLION)		RECEIPTS PER ARRIVAL	MARKET SHARE
	2000	2001	2001	2001
World	477	463.6	670	100
Africa	10.8	11.7	410	2.5
North Africa	3.7	4.2	400	0.9
West Africa	1.0	1.2	390	0.3
Central Africa	0.1		280	0.0
East Africa	2.6	2.7	470	0.6
Southern Africa	3.4	2.7	410	0.7
Americas	132.8	122.5	1010	26.4
East Asia and the Pacific	82.0	82.2	710	17.7
Europe	234.5	230.4	580	49.7
Middle East	12.2	11.8	520	2.5
South Asia	4.7	5.0	860	1.1

Source: WTO, World Overview and Tourism Topics, Tourism Market Trends, 2002

TABLE 4.6 INTERNATIONAL TOURIST ARRIVALS IN AFRICA

(sub)region	International tourist arrivals (1000)						Market share in the region (%)		Growth rate (%)		Average Annual Growth (%)
	1990	1995	1998	1999	2000	2001	1995	2001	00/99	01/00	95-00
Africa	14980	20026	24805	26246	27223	28405	100	100	3.7	4.3	6.3
North Africa	8398	7305	8677	9436	10074	10561	36.5	37	6.8	4.8	6.6
West Africa	1352	1914	2426	2497	2658	2997	9.6	9.8	6.5	12.7	6.8
Central Africa	372	332	443	435	449	519	1.7	1.7	3.4	15.6	6.3
East Africa	2852	4485	5563	5841	5776	5860	22.4	21.2	-1.1	1.5	5.2
Southern Africa	2006	5991	7696	8037	8266	8467	29.9	30.4	2.8	2.4	6.6
Eritrea	-	315	188	57	70	113	1.57	0.40	24.1	60.6	-25.9
(sub)region	International tourist receipts (US \$ billion)						Market share in the region (%)		Growth rate (%)		Average Annual Growth (%)
	1990	1995	1998	1999	2000	2001	1995	2001	00/99	01/00	95-00
Africa	2.5	5.3	8.1	10.5	10.8	11.7	100	69	2.7	8.8	5.9
North Africa	1.3	2.3	2.7	3.5	3.7	4.2	33.9	36.1	3.6	15.6	5.9
West Africa	0.3	0.6	0.7	1.0	1.0	1.2	8.5	9.9	1.8	12.7	8.4
Central Africa	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1		1.1		0.0		6.6
East Africa	0.4	1.1	1.9	2.6	2.6	2.7	23.9	23.4	-0.3	6.1	5.9
Southern Africa	0.5	1.2	2.6	3.2	3.4		32.6		4.6		5.0
Eritrea	-	0.058	0.034	0.028	0.036	0.074	0.72	0.63	28.6	105.6	-9.1
(sub)region	Receipts per arrival (US \$)						Market share in the region (%)		Growth rate (%)		Average Annual Growth (%)
	1990	1995	1998	1999	2000	2001	1995	2001	00/99	01/00	95-00
Africa	262	354	405	400	396	414			-1.0	4.3	-0.4
North Africa	244	273	376	375	364	401			-3.0	10.2	-0.7
West Africa	231	425	362	408	390	390			-4.3	-0.1	1.5
Central Africa	391	263	274	288	279				-3.3		0.3
East Africa	240	383	432	444	448	468			0.8	4.6	0.7
Southern Africa	367	619	441	402	409				1.7		-1.5
Eritrea	-	-	184	494	512	655			3.6	28	22.7

Source: World Tourism Organization, *Tourism Market Trends, Africa, 2002*.

TABLE 4.7 TOP TWENTY TOURISM DESTINATIONS IN AFRICA IN 1997

RANK			COUNTRY	ARRIVALS (000) 1997	% CHANGE 1997/96	% OF TOTAL 1997
1985	1990	1997				
4	4	1	SOUTH AFRICA	5530	11.9	23.7
2	2	2	TUNISIA	4263	9.7	18.3
1	1	3	MOROCCO	3115	15.7	13.4
6	6	4	ZIMBABWE	1894	8.7	8.1
5	5	5	KENYA	750	4.6	3.2
8	7	6	BOTSWANA	728	3.0	3.1
3	3	7	ALGERIA	635	5.0	2.7
9	13	8	NIGERIA	611	-25.7	2.6
13	8	9	MAURITIUS	536	10.1	2.3
-	-	10	ERITREA	492	18.0	2.1
-	-	11	NAMIBIA	410	1.2	1.8
12	11	12	REUNION	368	6.1	1.6
20	15	13	TANZANIA	350	12.9	1.5
19	16	14	GHANA	325	6.6	1.4
11	9	15	SWAZILAND	322	2.2	1.4
7	10	16	SENEGAL	300	6.4	1.3
14	17	17	ZAMBIA	278	5.3	1.2
10	12	18	COTE D'IVOIRE	274	15.6	1.2
24	18	19	MALAWI	250	7.8	1.1
36	30	20	UGANDA	227	10.7	1.0
Total 1-20				21,658	8.7	93.0
Total Africa				23,291	8.1	100.0

Source: WTO as cited in Christie and Crompton 2001: 67

TABLE 4.8 TOP TWENTY TOURISM EARNERS IN AFRICA IN 1997
International Tourism Receipts (Excluding Transport)

RANK			COUNTRY	ARRIVALS (US\$ MILLION) 1997	% CHANGE 1997/96	% OF TOTAL 1997
1985	1990	1997				
3	2	1	SOUTH AFRICA	2,297	15.1	26.3
2	3	2	TUNISIA	1,540	6.1	17.6
1	1	3	MOROCCO	1,200	-13.1	13.7
9	5	4	MAURITIUS	504	0.0	5.8
4	4	5	KENYA	502	5.9	5.7
21	11	6	TANZANIA	360	11.8	4.1
		7	REUNION	273	5.8	3.1
17	10	8	GHANA	266	6.8	3.0
15	13	9	ZIMBABWE	250	14.2	2.9
-	9	10	NAMIBIA	210	1.0	2.4
15	8	11	BOTSWANA	181	1.7	2.1
6	6	12	SENEGAL	160	6.7	1.8
10	7	13	SEYCHELLES	122	14.0	1.4
37	33	14	UGANDA	103	3.0	1.2
11	16	15	COTE D'IVOIRE	88	17.3	1.0
12	24	16	NIGERIA	86	1.2	1.0
-	-	17	ERITREA	75	8.7	0.9
34	19	18	MADAGASCAR	67	3.1	0.8
24	18	19	ZAMBIA	65	8.3	0.7
7	15	20	CAMERON	39	2.6	0.4
Total 1-20				8,388	5.0	96.0
Total Africa				8,742	4.8	100.0

Source: WTO as cited in Christie and Crompton 2001: 67

TABLE 4.9 TOP TEN TOURISM DESTINATION IN AFRICA (2001)

RANK	COUNTRY	SUB REGION	SHARE(%)	CUMULATIVE
1	South Africa	Southern	22	22
2	Tunisia	North	18.6	40.6
3	Morocco	North	15.1	55.7
4	Zambia	East	6.9	62.6
5	Botswana	Southern	3.7	66.3
6	Kenya	East	3.3	69.6
7	Algeria	North	3.2	72.8
8	Nigeria	West	3	75.8
9	Namibia	Southern	2.8	78.6
10	Mauritius	East	2.4	81

Source: World Tourism Organization, *Tourism Market Trends, Africa, 2002* edition.

TABLE 4.10 SHARE OF AFRICA FROM WORLD INTERNATIONAL TOURISM ARRIVALS & RECEIPTS 1970 TO 2001

Year	1970	1980	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001
Arrivals (%)	1.5	2.6	3.3	3.5	3.5	3.6	3.5	3.6	3.6	3.8	3.9	4.0	3.9	4.1
Receipts (%)	2.2	2.6	2.0	1.8	2.0	2.0	1.9	1.8	1.9	2.0	1.8	2.3	2.3	2.5

Source: WTO, *World Overview & Tourism Topics, Tourism Market Trends 2002* edition

TABLE 4.11 INTERNATIONAL VISITORS TO ERITREA PRE-INDEPENDENCE (HAILESILASIE ERA)

YEAR	INTERNATIONAL ARRIVALS
1966	16898
1967	18339
1968	16340
1969	19553
1970	19483
1971	19699
1972	21459
1973	18032

Source: EMOT, *Statistical Report, 1999*

TABLE 4.12 INTERNATIONAL VISITORS TO ERITREA PRE-INDEPENDENCE DERGUE ERA (SOCIALIST RULE)

YEAR	INTERNATIONAL ARRIVALS
1974	7198
1975	873
1976	493
1977	162
1978	0
1979	0
1980	451
1981	261
1982	261
1983	276
1984	115
1985	146
1986	253
1987	124
1988	0
1989	0
1990	0

Source: EMOT, *Statistical Report, 1999*

TABLE 4.13 INTERNATIONAL TOURIST ARRIVALS TO ERITREA BY REGION, AFTER INDEPENDENCE

YEAR	INTERNATIONAL ARRIVALS BY REGION							
	OVEARSEAS ERITREANS	AFRICA	EUROPE	MIDDEL EAST	ASIA	AMERICA	OCEANIA	TOTAL
1992	107840	7982	3644	3840	345	605	34	124290
1993	103498	11791	5572	3414	605	968	116	125964
1994	106192	15414	7153	5036	1207	1452	214	136668
1995	105404	193170	8802	3416	2282	2065	278	315417
1996	144435	255197	11436	1277	1395	2564	292	416596
1997	111,478	279829	11749	1439	1740	2960	349	409,544
1998	55088	120018	7644	995	1524	2088	290	187647
1999	44610	4356	3561	918	2226	783	245	56699
2000	52929	4498	6162	1151	3286	2093	235	70354
2001	84549	7683	9626	3538	4524	2829	275	113024
2002	74357	8686	8167	3275	4056	2094	193	100828
TOTAL	990380	908624	83516	28299	23190	20501	2521	2057031
SHARE	48%	44.00%	4.00%	1.40%	1.12%	1.00%	0.12%	100%

Source: Compiled from EMOT Statistical Reports 1999 and 2001, and WTO Year Book, 2003

TABLE 4.14 INTERNATIONAL TOURIST ARRIVALS TO ERITREA BY PURPOSE OF VISIT

YEAR	INTERNATIONAL ARRIVALS BY PURPOSE OF VISIT					%GROWTH
	BUSINESS	VFR	VACATION	OTHER	TOTAL	
1992	34478	76372	5462	7978	124290	-
1993	38003	70531	8553	8877	125964	1%
1994	39302	70080	12048	15238	136668	8%
1995	78599	164422	30251	42145	315417	57%
1996	178052	178161	39307	21076	416596	32%
1997	174437	67095	157767	10245	409544	-1.69%
1998	95656	56949	33149	1893	187647	-54%
1999	14588	37979	3019	1113	56699	-70%
2000	20770	43268	4668	1648	70354	24%
2001	22202	74894	6204	9724	113024	61%
2002	20618	67722	6247	6241	100828	11%
TOTAL	716705	907473	306675	126178	2057031	
SHARE	35.00%	44.00%	15.00%	6.00%	100.00%	

Source: Compiled from EMOT Statistical Reports, 1999 and 2001, and WTO Year Book, 2003

**TABLE 4.15 SHARE OF ERITREA IN INTERNATIONAL TOURIST ARRIVALS -
WORLD, AFRICA & EAST AFRICA**

(sub) Region	International tourist arrivals (million)					Market share in the region From world (%)		Market share in the region From Africa (%)		Market share in the region From east Africa (%)	
	1990	1995	1999	2000	2001	1995	2001	1995	2001	1995	2001
WORLD	457.3	551.7	652.3	696.8	692.6	100	100				
Africa	14.98	20.026	26.246	27.223	28.405	3.6	4.1	100	100		
East Africa	2.852	4.485	5.841	5.776	5.860	0.62	0.85	22.4	21.2	100	100
Eritrea	-	0.315	0.057	0.07	0.113	0.06	.02	1.57	0.40	7.02	1.96

Source: World Tourism Organization, *Tourism Market Trends, World Overview, 2002*

TABLE 5.2 NUMERIC DISTRIBUTION OF REGISTERED AND PLACED JOBSEEKERS AND ANNOUNCED VACANCIES BY OCCUPATION 1996-2002

Year	Legislators, Senior Officials And Mangers Occ1	Professionals Occ2	Technicians & Associates Professionals Occ3	Clerks Occ4	Service Workers & Shop Market Sales Workers Occ5	Skilled Agricultural Fishery Workers Occ6	Crafts & Related Trade Workers Occ7	Plant & Machine Operators And Assemblers Occ8	Elementary Occupations Occ9	All Occupations
	Registered	37	328	721	9004	509	120	590	9016	22986
	Placed	6	135	108	418	179	18	175	5281	7937
	Total Vacancies	45	354	179	729	466	20	424	6489	11120
1996	Unfilled Vacancies	39	219	71	311	287	2	249	1208	3183
	Registered	48	676	414	9550	602	252	861	16786	35252
	Placed	12	111	142	630	218	18	437	10524	16910
	Total Vacancies	51	337	289	934	434	84	811	11523	21157
1997	Unfilled Vacancies	39	226	147	304	216	66	374	999	4247
	Registered	166	1017	595	3893	756	50	2067	13774	26738
	Placed	2	221	62	598	421	21	1277	8996	14173
	Total Vacancies	19	472	125	1146	490	32	1793	12802	20479
1998	Unfilled Vacancies	17	251	63	548	69	11	516	3806	6306
	Registered	61	504	141	2190	280	35	1826	6679	14091
	Placed	6	202	48	472	154	58	396	4523	7162
	Total Vacancies	8	237	48	478	243	132	492	4972	8272
1999	Unfilled Vacancies	2	35	0	6	89	74	96	449	1110
	Registered	11	80	84	631	89	2	162	1638	2894
	Placed		47	22	257	148	77	180	3749	5144
	Total Vacancies		91	39	449	267	78	461	4876	7439
2000	Unfilled Vacancies		44	17	192	119	1	281	1127	2295
	Registered	3	63	80	427	88	17	144	819	1796
	Placed	5	36	45	173	112	8	192	2079	3554
	Total Vacancies	5	129	403	1251	396	36	417	2630	6579
2001	Unfilled Vacancies	0	93	358	1078	284	28	225	551	3025

TABLE S.2 NUMERIC DISTRIBUTION OF REGISTERED AND PLACED JOBSEEKERS AND ANNOUNCED VACANCIES BY OCCUPATION 1996-2002 (CONTINUED)

Year	Legislators, Senior Officials And Mangers Occ1	Technicians & Professionals Occ2	Professionals Occ3	Clerks Occ4	Service Workers & Shop Market Sales Workers Occ5	Skilled Agricultural Fishery Workers Occ6	Crafts & Related Trade Workers Occ7	Plant & Machine Operators And Assemblers Occ8	Elementary Occupations Occ9	All Occupations
Registered	0	45	43	403	42	1	113	95	855	1597
Placed	0	42	40	204	119	18	259	138	1374	2194
Total Vacancies	3	61	64	280	226	30	496	236	1985	3381
Unfilled Vacancies	3	19	24	76	107	12	237	98	611	1187
Total Registered	326	2713	2078	26098	2366	477	15982	5745	49567	105352
% Of Total	0.31	2.58	1.97	24.77	2.25	0.45	15.17	5.45	47.05	100
Total Placed	31	794	467	2746	1351	218	12140	2795	36526	57068
% Of Total	0.05	1.39	0.82	4.81	2.37	0.38	21.27	4.9	64	100
Total Vacancies	131	1681	1183	5267	2522	412	17320	4634	45277	78427
% Of Total	0.17	2.14	1.51	6.72	3.22	0.53	22.08	5.91	57.73	100
Total Unfilled Vacancies	100	887	716	2521	1171	194	5180	1839	8751	21359
% Of Total	0.47	4.15	3.35	11.8	5.48	0.91	24.25	8.61	40.97	100
Placed As % Of Registered	9.51	29.27	22.47	10.52	57.1	45.7	75.96	48.65	73.69	54.17
Vacancy As % Of Registered	40.18	61.96	56.93	20.18	106.59	86.37	108.37	80.66	91.35	74.44
Unfilled Vacancies As % Of Total Vacancies	76.34	52.77	60.52	47.86	46.43	47.09	29.91	39.68	19.33	27.23
Placed As % Of Total Vacancies	23.66	47.23	39.48	52.14	53.57	52.91	70.09	60.32	80.67	72.77

Source: Eritrea Ministry of Labour and Human Welfare (EMOLH), Labour Market Information, 2002

TABLE 5.3 EXPATRIATE EMPLOYEES PERMITTED TO WORK IN ERITREA BY OCCUPATION, SEX, AND YEAR

S.N	OCCUPATION GROUP	SEX	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	TOTAL	
1	Legislators, senior officials and managers	Male	157	130	174	174	160	196	156	991	
		Female	32	16	25	13	15	33	30	134	
		Total	189	146	199	187	175	229	186	1125	
2	Professionals	Male	279	480	537	479	576	675	694	3026	
		Female	99	167	144	115	131	211	207	867	
		Total	378	647	681	594	707	886	901	3893	
3	Technicians and associate professionals	Male	148	72	79	145	74	155	72	673	
		Female	9	14	10	15	40	20	16	108	
		Total	157	86	89	160	114	175	88	781	
4	Clerks	Male	-	2	3	-	-	1	1	6	
		Female	12	7	8	7	5	6	4	45	
		Total	12	9	11	7	5	7	5	51	
5	Service workers and shop and market sales workers	Male	16	14	10	26	35	41	14	139	
		Female	2	3	-	2	3	3	-	13	
		Total	18	17	10	28	35	44	14	152	
6	Skilled agricultural and fishery workers	Male	8	33	10	15	11	14	5	91	
		Female	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1
		Total	9	33	10	15	11	14	5	92	
7	Craft and related workers	Male	113	100	185	242	81	220	146	941	
		Female	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
		Total	113	100	185	242	81	220	146	941	
8	Plant and machine operators and assemblers	Male	17	33	64	40	16	14	10	184	
		Female	-	-	-	8	-	-	-	-	8
		Total	17	33	64	48	16	14	10	192	
9	Elementary occupations	Male	-	-	-	-	1	10	-	11	
		Female	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
		Total	-	-	-	-	1	10	-	11	
Grand total		Male	738	864	1062	1121	951	1326	1107	6062	
		Female	155	207	187	160	194	273	257	1176	
		Total	893	1071	1249	1281	1145	1599	1364	7238	
New expatriates		Male	461	538	567	500	407	660	284	3133	
		Female	85	114	53	45	75	134	97	506	
		Total	546	652	620	545	482	794	381	3639	

Source: EMOLH, *Labour Market Information*, 2002

TABLE 5.5 NUMBER SCHOOLS BY LEVEL AND YEAR

YEAR	ELEMENTARY	MIDDLE	SECONDARY	TECHNICAL	TOTAL
1992	381	65	25	2	471
1993	447	71	27	2	545
1994	491	81	33	2	605
1995	510	88	33	3	631
1996	537	95	36	3	668
1997	549	99	38	3	686
1998	585	111	38	4	734
1999	593	110	37	4	740
2000	655	131	38	5	824
2001	667	142	43	10	852
2002	695	152	44	10	891

Source: EMOE, *Basic Education Statistics, 2001/02***TABLE 5.6 TEACHERS BY LEVEL AND YEAR**

YEAR	ELEMENTARY	MIDDLE	SECONDARY	TOTAL
1992	3647	783	758	5188
1993	4954	854	905	6713
1994	5272	978	1015	7265
1995	5583	948	1081	7612
1996	5828	992	1039	7859
1997	5476	1017	942	7435
1998	5799	1162	959	7920
1999	5576	1208	982	7766
2000	6229	1312	1047	8588
2001	6668	1377	1188	9233
2002	7498	1529	1419	10446

Source: EMOE, *Basic Education Statistics, 2001/02***TABLE 5.7 GRADE 7 NATIONAL EXAMINATION PARTICIPANTS AND RESULTS, 2002**

PARTICIPATE NATIONAL EXAM		PASS NATIONAL EXAM		PERCENTAGE OF STUDENTS WITHIN THE SCORE DISTRIBUTION									
TOTAL	FEMALE	TOTAL	FEMALE	80-100	70-100	65-100	60-100	55-100	50-100	45-100	40-100	35-100	Below
28186	11675	21643	8174	4.1	11.8	18.0	26.0	36.1	48.1	62.2	76.8	88.5	11.5

Source: EMOE, *Basic Education Statistics, 2001/02***TABLE 5.8 ERITREAN SECONDARY EDUCATION CERTIFICATE EXAMINATION PARTICIPANTS AND RESULT, 2002**

	PARTICIPATED	PROMOTED						
		TOTAL	DEGREE	%	DIPLOMA	%	CERTIFICATE	%
TOTAL	13866	3212	1398	44%	574	18%	1240	38%
%	100	23%						

Source: EMOE, *Basic Education Statistics, 2001/02*

TABLE 5.10 BUSINESS OF ESTABLISHMENT: OWNERSHIP CROSS TABULATION

BUSINESS OF ESTABLISHMENT	OWNERSHIP			TOTAL
	Private	Government	Mixed	
Hotel	67	8	2	77
Restaurant	157	0	0	157
Pension	103	0	0	103
Travel agent	33	0	0	33
Total	360	8	2	370

TABLE 5.11 BUSINESS OF ESTABLISHMENT: NATIONALITY OF OWNER CROSS TABULATION

BUSINESS OF ESTABLISHMENT	NATIONALITY OF OWNER				TOTAL
	Eritrea Government	Eritrean	Italian	Unspecified	
Hotel	8	65	2	2	77
Restaurant	1	156	0	0	157
Pension	0	103	0	0	103
Travel agent	0	33	0	0	33
Total	9	357	2	2	370

TABLE 5.12 BUSINESS OF ESTABLISHMENT: OPENING YEAR OF ESTABLISHMENT CROSS TABULATION

BUSINESS OF ESTABLISHMENT	OPENING YEAR OF ESTABLISHMENT					TOTAL
	Before 1991	1991-1995	1996-2000	After 2000	Unspecified	
Hotel	46	14	11	6	0	77
Restaurant	29	16	18	11	83	157
Pension	82	7	9	5	0	103
Travel agent	0	0	33	0	0	33
Total	157	37	71	22	83	370

TABLE 5.14 BUSINESS OF ESTABLISHMENT: ROOM SIZE CROSS TABULATION

BUSINESS OF ESTABLISHMENT	ROOM SIZE					TOTAL
	1-10	11-25	26-50	51-100	100+	
Hotel	26	33	9	6	3	77
Pension	50	49	4	0	0	103
Total	76	82	13	6	3	180

TABLE 5.15 BUSINESS OF ESTABLISHMENT: BED SPACE CROSS TABULATION

BUSINESS OF ESTABLISHMENT	BED SPACE						TOTAL
	1-10	11-25	26-50	51-100	101-200	200+	
Hotel	2	27	30	10	7	1	77
Pension	3	62	35	3	0	0	103
Total	5	89	65	13	7	1	180

TABLE 5.19 OCCUPATION: GENDER CROSS TABULATION

BUSINESS OF ESTABLISHMENT	GENDER		TOTAL
	MALE	FEMALE	
Accountant	24	24	48
Bartender	25	88	113
Cashier	19	121	140
Cleaner and Dishwasher	6	141	147
Cook	70	279	349
Craftsmen and Technician	52	7	59
Food and Beverage Control	10	17	27
Guard	97	11	108
House Keeping	6	339	345
Laundry	1	69	70
Managers	42	24	66
Owner Managers	90	90	180
Other	77	36	113
Reception	94	122	216
Secretary	0	21	21
Store Keeper	16	16	32
Travel Agent	1	10	11
Waiter	124	399	523
Total	754	1814	2568

TABLE 5.20 OCCUPATION: AGE GROUP CROSS TABULATION

Occupation	AGE GROUP						Total
	Below 20	21-30	31-40	41-50	51-60	Above 60	
Accountant	0	16	19	5	6	2	48
Bartender	21	58	12	7	10	5	113
Cashier	19	90	20	8	2	1	140
Cleaner and Dishwasher	13	52	40	25	16	1	147
Cook	30	152	85	53	19	10	349
Craftsmen and Technician	1	15	23	9	10	1	59
Food and Beverage Control	2	11	9	1	3	1	27
Guard	2	15	14	14	29	34	108
House Keeping	15	117	101	69	33	10	345
Laundry	0	19	29	17	5	0	70
Managers	2	16	14	19	12	3	66
Owner Managers	1	7	26	32	44	40	150
Other	7	34	26	15	20	11	113
Reception	30	117	40	19	9	1	216
Secretary	1	15	5	0	0	0	21
Store Keeper	1	12	10	7	2	0	32
Travel Agent	1	6	1	2	1	0	11
Waiter	125	305	56	21	13	3	523
Total	271	1057	530	323	234	123	2538

TABLE 5.22 OCCUPATION: EDUCATION LEVEL CROSS TABULATION

OCCUPATION	EDUCATION LEVEL										TOTAL
	Illiterate	Elementary	Junior	High school incomplete	High school complete	Diploma	BA	University incomplete	Unspecified		
Accountant	0	0	0	1	21	11	9	6	0	48	
Bartender	11	33	27	21	21	0	0	0	0	113	
Cashier	3	8	12	27	86	1	0	3	0	140	
Cleaner and Dishwasher	46	42	18	15	25	0	0	1	0	147	
Cook	58	128	62	49	49	2	1	0	0	349	
Craftsmen and Technician	6	9	8	9	19	3	3	2	0	59	
Food and Beverage Control	0	1	0	3	20	0	0	3	0	27	
Guard	30	45	9	5	17	0	0	2	0	108	
House Keeping	104	126	40	32	40	1	2	0	0	345	
Laundry	10	25	10	12	11	1	1	0	0	70	
Managers	1	3	5	11	21	8	4	13	0	66	
Owner Managers	30	44	18	14	26	4	4	8	32	180	
Other	20	12	15	7	36	9	4	10	0	113	
Reception	0	14	24	48	101	7	4	18	0	216	
Secretary	0	1	0	0	18	1	1	0	0	21	
Store Keeper	0	3	0	3	15	6	2	3	0	32	
Travel Agent	0	0	0	0	7	0	2	2	0	11	
Waiter	26	83	109	126	165	4	4	6	0	523	
Total	345	577	357	383	698	58	41	77	32	2568	

TABLE 5.23 COURSES IN TOURISM BY MONTHS TAKEN

MONTHS	FREQUENCY	PERCENT
0	2318	90.3
1	41	1.6
2	3	.1
3	7	.3
4	3	.1
6	173	6.7
7	2	.1
9	1	.0
10	2	.1
12	9	.4
24	6	.2
30	2	.1
36	1	.0
Total	2568	100.0

TABLE 5.24 DISTRIBUTION OF COURSE TYPE

TYPE OF COURSE	FREQUENCY	PERCENT
Catering	37	14.8
Food and Beverage Service	76	30.4
Food and Beverage control	8	3.2
Front Office	35	14
Food Preparation	31	12.4
Hospitality Accounting	9	3.6
House Keeping	26	10.4
Hotel Management	7	2.8
Tourism management	6	2.4
Ticketing	14	5.6
Tour guide	1	0.4
Total	250	100

TABLE 5.25 CURRENT OCCUPATION OF PERSONS TAKEN TOURISM RELATED COURSES

OCCUPATION	FREQUENCY	PERCENT
Waiter	59	23.6
Reception	32	12.8
Owner-Managers	30	12
Cook	28	11.2
Paid Managers	27	10.8
House Keeping	14	5.6
Cashiers	10	4
Laundry	8	3.2
Accountant	7	2.8
Food and Beverage Control	7	2.8
Travel Agents	7	2.8
Bartender	6	2.4
Cleaners and Dish Washers	3	1.2
Store Keeper	3	1.2
Secretary	2	0.8
Craftsmen and Technicians	2	0.8
Guards	2	0.8
Others	3	1.2
Total	250	100

TABLE 5.26 OCCUPATION: MONTHS OF TOURISM COURSES CROSS TABULATION

OCCUPATION	MONTHS TAKEN FOR TOURISM COURSES													TOTAL
	0	1	2	3	4	6	7	9	10	12	24	30	36	
Accountant	41	1	1	0	1	4	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	48
Bartender	107	0	0	0	0	6	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	113
Cashier	130	3	0	0	0	7	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	140
Cleaner and Dishwasher	144	0	0	0	0	3	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	147
Cook	321	1	0	0	0	22	0	0	1	1	3	0	0	349
Craftsmen and Technician	57	0	0	0	0	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	59
Food Beverage Control	20	0	0	0	0	6	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	27
Guard	106	0	0	0	0	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	108
House Keeping	331	0	0	0	0	13	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	345
Laundry	62	0	0	0	0	8	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	70
Managers	40	8	1	4	2	3	2	0	1	2	1	1	1	66
Owner Managers	150	16	0	2	0	7	0	1	0	2	1	1	0	180
Other	110	0	0	0	0	2	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	113
Reception	183	3	0	0	0	29	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	216
Secretary	19	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	21
Store Keeper	29	0	0	1	0	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	32
Travel Agent	4	7	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	11
Waiter	464	1	1	0	0	56	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	523
Total	2318	41	3	7	3	173	2	1	2	9	6	2	1	2568

TABLE 5.28 OCCUPATION: NUMBER OF FOREIGN LANGUAGES SPOKEN CROSS TABULATION

OCCUPATION	NUMBER OF FOREIGN LANGUAGES SPOKEN					TOTAL
	0	1	2	3	4	
Accountant	2	42	4	0	0	48
Bartender	75	30	7	1	0	113
Cashier	46	90	3	1	0	140
Cleaner and Dishwasher	111	36	0	0	0	147
Cook	251	90	6	2	0	349
Craftsmen and Technician	25	30	3	1	0	59
Food Beverage Control	5	19	3	0	0	27
Guard	62	38	6	2	0	108
House Keeping	283	58	4	0	0	345
Laundry	54	16	0	0	0	70
Mangers	12	27	15	8	4	66
Owner Managers	59	47	29	14	0	149
Other	34	67	8	3	1	113
Reception	36	148	30	2	0	216
Secretary	1	18	2	0	0	21
Store Keeper	6	23	3	0	0	32
Travel Agent	0	8	3	0	0	11
Waiter	264	243	13	3	0	523
Total	1326	1030	139	37	5	2537

TABLE 5.31 OCCUPATION: TOURISM EXPERIENCE CROSS TABULATION

OCCUPATION	TOURISM EXPERIENCE										TOTAL
	Unspecified	1	2	3	4	5	6-10	11-15	16-20	20+	
Accountant	1	8	5	3	10	3	6	4	1	7	48
Bartender	12	27	23	14	6	8	8	10	1	4	113
Cashier	12	38	24	22	12	13	11	4	2	2	140
Cleaner and Dishwasher	6	43	20	19	25	18	9	7	0	0	147
Cook	42	73	42	46	40	18	51	21	7	9	349
Craftsmen and Technician	0	13	15	6	3	11	5	4	2	0	59
Food Beverage Control	1	3	5	5	5	0	2	5	0	1	27
Guard	1	32	18	17	5	9	14	11	0	1	108
House Keeping	14	96	36	50	26	27	48	28	10	10	345
Laundry	2	21	12	6	9	3	5	11	0	1	70
Managers	3	4	6	3	2	5	18	9	6	10	66
Owner Managers	47	5	6	5	1	7	28	22	16	43	180
Other	2	24	19	22	8	15	16	5	1	1	113
Reception	11	61	41	24	20	14	20	18	3	4	216
Secretary	1	5	2	3	4	4	2	0	0	0	21
Store Keeper	0	5	3	2	6	6	2	7	0	1	32
Travel Agent	1	0	3	1	1	2	3	0	0	0	11
Waiter	47	174	101	63	37	40	37	13	3	8	523
Total	203	632	381	311	220	203	285	179	52	102	2568

TABLE 5.32 OCCUPATION: NATIONALITY CROSS TABULATION

OCCUPATION	NATIONALITY			TOTAL
	Eritrean	Ethiopian	Italian	
Accountant	48	0	0	48
Bartender	107	6	0	113
Cashier	137	3	0	140
Cleaner and Dishwasher	143	4	0	147
Cook	329	20	0	349
Craftsmen and Technician	56	3	0	59
Food and Beverage Control	27	0	0	27
Guard	107	1	0	108
House Keeping	337	8	0	345
Laundry	70	0	0	70
Manager	64	0	2	66
Owner Manager	177	0	3	180
Other	109	3	1	113
Reception	211	5	0	216
Secretary	21	0	0	21
Store Keeper	31	1	0	32
Travel Agent	11	0	0	11
Waiter	497	26	0	523
Total	2482	80	6	2568

TABLE 5.33 OCCUPATION: EMPLOYMENT STATUS CROSS TABULATION

OCCUPATION	EMPLOYMENT STATUS						TOTAL
	Unpaid family member	Permanent	Temporary	Apprentice	Employer	Permanent	
Accountant	0	35	4	0	0	9	48
Bartender	0	91	18	0	0	4	113
Cashier	13	100	19	1	0	7	140
Cleaner and Dishwasher	0	84	17	1	1	44	147
Cook	6	232	52	1	3	55	349
Craftsmen and Technician	0	34	5	0	0	20	59
Food and Geverage Control	0	26	1	0	0	0	27
Guard	0	69	14	0	0	25	108
House keeper	2	275	35	2	0	31	345
Laundry	0	50	4	0	0	16	70
Managers	19	34	3	0	2	8	66
Owner managers	3	5	0	0	172	0	180
Other	2	57	10	0	1	43	113
Reception	20	128	32	1	1	34	216
Secretary	0	13	1	0	0	7	21
Store keeper	0	23	1	0	0	8	32
Travel agent	1	9	1	0	0	0	11
Waiter	23	319	96	11	0	74	523
Total	89	1584	313	17	180	385	2568

TABLE 5.35 OCCUPATION: SALARY RANGE CROSS TABULATION

OCCUPATION	SALARY RANGE NAKFA PER MONTH								TOTAL
	0	150-500	501-1000	1001-1500	1501-2000	2001-2500	2501-3000	3000+	
Accountant	0	1	10	15	5	8	5	4	48
Bartender	0	38	60	12	3	0	0	0	113
Cashier	13	29	79	14	5	0	0	0	140
Cleaner and Dishwasher	0	37	67	9	31	2	1	0	147
Cook	7	77	145	48	42	19	8	3	349
Craftsmen and technician	0	2	20	11	8	4	8	6	59
Food beverage control	0	2	12	7	4	2	0	0	27
Guard	0	19	60	11	4	13	0	1	108
House keeping	2	133	151	27	25	4	2	1	345
Laundry	0	6	44	4	14	0	1	1	70
Manager	21	4	5	5	4	12	7	8	66
Owner manager	179	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	180
Other	3	5	36	24	22	12	6	5	113
Reception	22	65	78	15	14	9	11	2	216
Secretary	0	1	9	3	1	6	0	1	21
Store keeper	0	3	14	6	3	5	0	1	32
Travel agent	1	1	0	6	2	1	0	0	11
Waiter	22	192	202	44	45	16	2	0	523
Total	270	615	992	261	231	113	51	34	2568

APPENDIX - 4: RELIABILITY ANALYSIS - SCALE (ALPHA)

1. HRD IS NOT REQUIRED/ PERCEPTION OF HRD

Item-total Statistics						
	Scale	Scale	Corrected			
	Mean	Variance	Item-	Squared	Alpha	
	if Item	if Item	Total	Multiple	if Item	
	Deleted	Deleted	Correlation	Correlation	Deleted	
NOHRD1	13.2188	3.3377	.6643	.5023	.6433	
NOHRD2	13.1250	3.1452	.7207	.5610	.6067	
NOHRD3	13.0625	5.2863	.2020	.0468	.8438	
NOHRD4	13.0938	3.1200	.6773	.4799	.6339	
Reliability Coefficients 4 items						
Alpha =	.7610	Standardized item alpha =		.7353		

2. Organization and management of HTTC

Item-total Statistics							
	Scale	Scale	Corrected				
Mean	Variance	Item-	Squared	Alpha			
if Item	if Item	Total	Multiple	if Item			
Deleted	Deleted	Correlation	Correlation	Deleted			
ORGMGT1	16.5000	7.5484	.4621	.3837	.3856		
ORGMGT2	17.0000	8.5806	.1426	.1967	.5413		
ORGMGT3	16.4063	7.9909	.2654	.4459	.4772		
ORGMGT4	17.0938	7.4425	.4177	.5527	.3992		
ORGMGT5	16.0000	9.0323	.1401	.1723	.5321		
ORGMGT6	16.2188	8.0474	.2404	.2641	.4907		
Reliability Coefficients 6 items							
Alpha = .5203 Standardized item alpha = .5291							

3. training delivery

Item-total Statistics							
	Scale	Scale	Corrected				
Mean	Variance	Item-	Squared	Alpha			
if Item	if Item	Total	Multiple	if Item			
Deleted	Deleted	Correlation	Correlation	Deleted			
TRDELIV1	4.0313	1.8377	.4500	.2029	.3072		
TRDELIV2	3.7188	1.6280	.2940	.1137	.5102		
TRDELIV3	3.9375	1.5444	.3143	.1346	.4804		
_Reliability Coefficients 3 items							
Alpha = .5274 Standardized item alpha = .5518							

4. demand driven training

Item-total Statistics							
	Scale	Scale	Corrected				
	Mean	Variance	Item-	Squared	Alpha		
	if Item	if Item	Total	Multiple	if Item		
	Deleted	Deleted	Correlation	Correlation	Deleted		
DDTRAIN1	6.2500	1.9355	.4540	.2230	.1854		
DDTRAIN2	7.1875	2.4798	.2253	.0719	.5837		
DDTRAIN3	6.0000	2.4516	.3246	.1717	.4227		
Reliability Coefficients 3 items							
Alpha = .5145 Standardized item alpha = .5153							

5. Training effectiveness

Item-total Statistics						
	Scale	Scale	Corrected			
	Mean	Variance	Item-	Alpha		
	if Item	if Item	Total	if Item		
Deleted	Deleted	Deleted	Correlation	Deleted		
TRNEFF1	28.8438	24.0716	.4081	.6780		
TRNEFF2	27.5625	25.8024	.1951	.7075		
TRNEFF3	27.6250	26.6290	.1379	.7124		
TRNEFF4	28.6875	21.8992	.5397	.6527		
TRNEFF5	28.6250	21.8548	.2889	.7139		
TRNEFF6	28.6563	21.2006	.5751	.6443		
TRNEFF7	27.8438	26.7813	.0844	.7219		
TRNEFF8	28.9063	23.3780	.4537	.6702		
TRNEFF9	28.7813	23.7893	.5323	.6646		
TRNEFF10	29.0625	24.7056	.5301	.6722		
TRNEFF11	27.2813	24.5958	.3072	.6924		
Reliability Coefficients						
N of Cases = 32.0			N of Items = 11			
Alpha = .7060						

APPENDIX - 5: MAP OF ERITREA

