

Bureau for Gender Equality
and
Sectoral Activities Department

*International perspectives on women and work
in hotels, catering and tourism*

By Professor Thomas Baum

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International perspectives on women and work in hotels, catering and tourism, Bureau for Gender Equality Working Paper 1/2013, Sectoral Activities Department Working Paper No. 289, by Professor Thomas Baum, International Labour Office, Sectoral Activities Department. Geneva, ILO, 2013.

ISBN 978-92-2-127414-8 (print)
ISBN 978-92-2-127415-5 (Web pdf)

women workers / employment / hotel industry / catering / tourism
14.04.2

ILO Cataloguing in Publication Data

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Preface

Hotels, catering and tourism (HCT) is a large and fast-growing service sector, with an average female participation of 55.5 per cent at global level and up to 70 per cent at regional level. They are employed in a wide variety of roles, including as cleaners and kitchen staff, front-line customer service workers and senior management. The recruitment, retention and promotion of talented women for technical and managerial leadership positions will be necessary to meet the future skills and productivity requirements of the sector. Moreover, women will comprise an even larger proportion of the sector's client base as more will travel for business and leisure. This too will have an impact on gender equality in the recruitment of employees.

This working paper highlights the structural and cultural issues which determine the roles that women play within the HCT workforce and the strategies which can make a difference to their status and opportunities within the industry. Some of these issues relate to occupational sex segregation, wage parity, career opportunities, the role of women within micro-enterprises and the informal hotel/catering/tourism economy. The links between equality of opportunity and treatment for women and men in quality jobs, workforce development, training opportunities and employment in the sector have been explored to a certain degree at national or local levels. However, there is less information regarding gender equality provisions and major international companies in global and regional contexts. The findings of this study point to issues of importance for employment of women as a basis for future dialogue. They also highlight important innovations, good practices and interesting case studies in support of future human resources planning for governments, employers' and workers' organizations.

The working paper draws upon a broad range of published sources from international, regional and national studies of the industry and of wider analysis of gender roles within the economy. It also takes account of the outcomes of a survey of international hotel companies and a focus group meeting with senior executives which explored both current practice and the barriers to the more effective employment of women within the sector's workforce. The working paper is a joint undertaking of the ILO Bureau for Gender Equality (GENDER) and ILO Sectoral Activities Department (SECTOR) and was prepared by Professor Thomas Baum of the Strathclyde Business School in the University of Strathclyde, Glasgow, United Kingdom. Ms Susan Maybud (GENDER) and Mr Wolfgang Weinz (SECTOR) were responsible for the examination and finalization of the draft working paper; Ms Lucie Servoz (SECTOR) provided comments, additional information and technical assistance; and Mr John Myers (SECTOR) reviewed and revised the final draft.

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Executive summary

HCT is a large and fast-growing service sector, that accounts for a significant portion of the global economy, and in which women represent a majority of the workforce in many countries. However, despite some change over recent decades in some countries, this numerical representation is not mirrored in the roles that women play in the technical or managerial leadership of the sector. This working paper highlights structural and cultural issues that often determine the roles that women play within the HCT workforce and the strategies which can make a difference to their status and opportunities within the sector. Some of these issues relate to occupational sex segregation, wage parity, promotion opportunities, the role of women within micro-enterprises and the informal hotel, catering and tourism economy.

The working paper draws upon a broad range of published sources from international, regional and national studies of the sector and of wider analysis of gender roles within the economy. It also draws upon the outcomes of a survey of international hotel companies and a focus group meeting with senior industry executives which explore both current practice and the barriers to the more effective use of women within the industry workforce.

On the basis of evidence drawn from these sources, this working paper provides a number of conclusions and makes key recommendations which may contribute to long-term strategic change on gender issues in the sector. There is little doubt that change in the role of women within the sector is or will be important both from an economic and rights-based approach and this report considers measures which may help achieve such change. Given the pace of demographic, economic and technological change in many countries and regions, a hotel workforce in which women are represented at all levels should be a major feature over the next decade in most parts of the world. The hotel sub-sector, therefore, will continue to depend heavily on the recruitment of both women and men in order to meet its future skills requirements. Moreover, women comprise an even larger proportion of hotel clientele as more are travelling for business and leisure, and this will have an impact on gender equality in the recruitment of staff.

The links between equality of opportunity and treatment for women and men in quality jobs, workforce development, training opportunities and employment in the hotel industry is a subject that has been explored somewhat at national or local levels. However, there is less information regarding gender equality provisions and major international companies in a regional/global context. The findings of this study explore issues of importance for hotel employment as a basis for future dialogue, and also provide important information, good practices and case studies in support of future human resources development and planning by enterprises, organizations and governments.

List of acronyms

| | |
|-----------|--|
| ADB | Asian Development Bank |
| CIS | Commonwealth of Independent States |
| Eurofound | European Foundation for the Improvement of Living and Working Conditions |
| EU | European Union |
| GDP | Gross Domestic Product |
| HCT | Hotels, catering and tourism |
| HR | Human resources |
| ILO | International Labour Office or International Labour Organization |
| ICT | Information and communication technology |
| IHRA | International Hotel and Restaurant Association |
| IUF | International Union of Food, Agricultural, Hotel, Restaurant, Catering, Tobacco and Allied Workers' Associations |
| NGO | Non-governmental organization |
| OECD | Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development |
| SMEs | Small and medium-sized enterprises |
| UNWTO | United Nations World Tourism Organization |
| VET | Vocational Education and Training |
| WTTC | World Travel and Tourism Council |

1. Introduction

1.1. Women, work in the HCT sector and gender equality

Securing decent work is crucial for women and men, making it possible for them to build more promising futures for themselves, their families and their communities. Sustainable development is achieved through the contributions of both women and men. Socially constructed gender roles, the biological differences between men and women, and how these interact in the world of work are therefore at the core of decent work.¹

Gender issues at the national, regional and global levels, are major challenges which face countries, employers and workers in harnessing the capacity of women to contribute more in economic, political and social terms. This working paper seeks to inform gender roles and gender equality issues within the specific context of the HCT sector and to assess evidence with respect to the various roles which women currently have and, potentially, can play in this sector of the global economy. As Ferguson² notes, “tourism employment is highly gendered, and – as with many other industries – draws on gender inequalities that provide a large global supply of highly flexibilized and low-paid female workers and potential tourism entrepreneurs”.

Gender inequality is manifested in a reality that “women perform 66 per cent of the world’s work, produce 50 per cent of the food, but earn 10 per cent of the income and own 1 per cent of the property.”³ The reasons for this situation are widespread: women have lower access to land, capital and education than men, women tend to work at home or family enterprises unprotected by law, and women face discrimination and trouble reconciling with work and family life.⁴ However, there is evidence of increasing participation by women in the formal economy of more developed countries. Many of the characteristics of wider employment, such as a high level of undeclared work, part-time, temporary and seasonal work, work during irregular hours and lack of education are also present in HCT.

Gender issues in HCT represent a well-researched field, with studies emanating from a wide variety of national and cultural contexts and addressing various dimensions of the topic. In terms of income disparities, for example, several studies demonstrate a significant gap in income between male and female employees in the sector, with females earning less

¹ ILO: *Gender equality at the heart of decent work*, Report VI, International Labour Conference, 98th Session, Geneva, 2009, p.1.

² L. Ferguson: “Promoting gender equality and empowering women? Tourism and the third Millennium Development Goal”, in *Current Issues in Tourism* (2011, Vol. 14, No. 3), pp. 235–249.

³ UN Women: *Facts & figures on women, poverty & economics, poverty & employment*, http://www.unifem.org/gender_issues/women_poverty_economics/facts_figures.php#2 [accessed 15 February 2013].

⁴ ILO–UNDP: *Work and family: Towards new forms of reconciliation with social co-responsibility* (Santiago, 2009).

than their male counterparts.⁵ Such gender-based income gaps have been represented as a form of sex discrimination within the HCT sector.⁶ There are also several studies which highlight differences between men and women managers in terms of effective strategy implementation.⁷ Further research has documented gender differences in promotions to managerial positions,⁸ from which it is clear that men are over-represented in preferred positions that pay better.

The International Labour Office (ILO)⁹ highlighted the challenges faced by women in the HCT workplace when it noted that “A divergence between qualifications and workplace reality is observable for women, who make up between 60 and 70 per cent of the labour force. Unskilled or semi-skilled women tend to work in the most vulnerable jobs, where they are more likely to experience poor working conditions, inequality of opportunity and treatment, violence, exploitation, stress and sexual harassment”. This assessment is supported by a number of complementary sources, notably the United Nations World Tourism Organization (UNWTO)¹⁰ in a report which highlights both the opportunities and challenges which face women with respect to employment in tourism. The majority of workers are women and wages are low compared to other sectors. Yet, the link between overall working conditions and the challenges faced by women in HCT needs to be better understood. This understanding needs to focus on the employment opportunities that HCT offers to women who, in many countries, represent a majority of workers in the sector but, at the same time, find themselves significantly under-represented in higher paid and managerial positions. Studying the issues could allow governments and employers’ and workers’ organizations to develop strategies which could lead to the promotion of greater gender equality. This is due to significant horizontal and vertical segregation in occupations, as well as in terms of working time, part-time employment and precarious work. Previous research on women’s working conditions and gender equality emphasized that vertical segregation, work–family balance and care responsibilities assumed by women were the primary and interlinked, factors that led to the situation

⁵ R. Biswas; C. Cassell: “Strategic HRM and the gendered division of labour in the hotel industry: a case study”, in *Personnel Review*, (1996, 25 (2)), pp. 19–34; K. Purcell: “The relationship between career and job opportunities: women’s employment in the hospitality industry as a microcosm of women’s employment, Women”, in *Management Review*, (1996, 11 (5)), pp. 17–24; R.T. Sparrowe; K.M. Iverson: “Cracks in the glass ceiling? An empirical study of gender differences in income in the hospitality industry”, in *Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Research* (1999, 23 (1)), pp. 4–20.

⁶ C. Thrane: “Earnings differentiation in the tourism industry: gender, human capital and socio-demographic effects”, in *Tourism Management* (2007, Vol. 29), pp. 514–524.

⁷ J.I. Schaap; Y. Stedham, J.H. Yamamura: “Casino management: exploring gender-based differences in perceptions of managerial work”, in *International Journal of Hospitality Management* (2008, Vol. 27 (1)), pp. 87–97.

⁸ H. Manwa; N. Black: “Influence of organizational culture on female and male upward mobility into middle and senior managerial positions”, in *International Journal of Cross Cultural Management*, (2002, 2(2)), pp. 357–373; C. Thrane: “Earnings differentiation in the tourism industry: gender, human capital and socio-demographic effects”, in *Tourism Management* (2007, 29), pp. 514–524.

⁹ ILO: *Developments and challenges in the hospitality and tourism sector*, Issues paper for discussion at the Global Dialogue Forum for the Hotels, Catering, Tourism Sector, 23–24 November 2010 (Geneva, 2010).

¹⁰ UNWTO: *Global Report on Women in Tourism 2010* (Madrid, 2011).

described above.¹¹ In developing countries, additional factors such as limited education, widespread poverty, poor maternal health and lack of sex education together with socio-cultural factors have prevented women from being empowered as economic actors.¹²

The HCT sector poses additional and particular challenges for women due to organizational and structural characteristics. These include a highly variable demand cycle which imposes unsocial working hours on employees and can make shift patterns unpredictable, both of which are difficult to reconcile with family and care responsibilities. Seasonal work can demand very high levels of time commitment during some parts of the year, while offering little or no work during the off-season.¹³ Businesses can be located at some distance from residential areas, particularly in poorer countries and communities, imposing both travel and time costs on women who frequently have limited access to both financial and time-flexibility resources. In many countries, areas of HCT work, notably hotel and restaurant kitchens, are traditional male preserves in terms of employment opportunity and work culture,¹⁴ and this can act as a major barrier to female access and opportunity. By contrast to the barriers imposed by workplace culture in hotel and restaurant kitchens, other areas of relatively high-profile work in HCT are traditionally female dominated, notably tour guides in many countries and cultures. Such work has, traditionally, been seen as “glamorous” and, therefore, attractive to women, although this image is increasingly contested.¹⁵ The following box provides food for thought on the HCT sector:

Box 1
Caregiving roles of women and men

Most legal, policy and programmatic frameworks are constructed on the assumption of a specific household structure, usually with the male as the breadwinner. Yet in certain developing countries and in certain conflict settings, for instance in Africa, the household structure with a male breadwinner may not be applicable, as many households are maintained by women. In developed countries, the male-breadwinner family model, which does not take account of family-related care responsibilities, is on the wane. The model is shifting to a dual-earner family arrangement, which challenges definitions of femininity and masculinity. Changing the gender division of labour in the household to a more equitable distribution of tasks, and investing in labour-saving technology, have significant benefits for productivity. Men specifically stand to gain in dual-income partnerships through better work/family balance, from better contact with children and inclusion in family life, as well as less vulnerability to economic shocks. Recognizing these realities will be necessary in order to influence effective policies.

Source: ILO: *Gender equality at the heart of decent work*, Report VI, International Labour Conference, 98th Session, Geneva, 2009, p. 126.

¹¹ Eurofound: *Addressing the gender pay gap: Government and social partner actions* (Dublin, 2010).

¹² UN Women: *Facts & figures on women, poverty & economics, poverty & employment*, http://www.unifem.org/gender_issues/women_poverty_economics/facts_figures.php#2 [accessed 15 February 2013].

¹³ T. Baum; S. Lundtorp: *Seasonality in Tourism* (London, Elsevier, 2000).

¹⁴ A. Bourdain: *Kitchen Confidential* (London: Bloomsbury, 2000); A. Adib and Y. Guerrier: *The interlocking of gender with nationality, race, ethnicity and class: The narratives of women in hotel work, gender, work and organization* (2003, Vol. 10(4)), pp. 413–432.

¹⁵ T. Baum: “Working the skies: Changing representations of gendered work in the airline industry, 1930–2011”, in *Tourism Management* (2012, Vol. 33), pp. 1185–1194.

1.2. Purpose of the working paper

This working paper aims to assess the evidence relating to gender roles and gender equity measures in the HCT sector, using primary sources and secondary evidence.

Specifically, this study aims to:

- (i) assess statistical data and related research with respect to gender roles and gender equality in HCT, specifically with reference to participation, pay, opportunity and status;
- (ii) consider the position of women in the HCT workforce from a cross-cultural and transnational perspective;
- (iii) explore the role of pro-poor tourism strategies and opportunities these provide in enabling female employment and entrepreneurship;
- (iv) review the strategies adopted by major international HCT enterprises in facilitating equality of opportunity and treatment for women and men; and
- (v) analyse the role and status of women in the HCT sector worldwide, highlighting both opportunities and challenges which all stakeholders (businesses, the workforce, the wider community) face in this regard.

As the HCT sector is widely covered in statistical studies under a variety of categories, such as “hotels and restaurants” or “accommodation and food services activities” and “tourism”, statistical sources are not always wholly consistent, comparable or relevant to the sector. The ILO definition of the “tourism” component of the HCT sector includes specific segments of transport,¹⁶ travel agencies and tour operators. Hotels, catering and restaurants are considered by many organizations to belong to “tourism-characteristic industries” and may therefore be subsumed under tourism. Other organizations concerned with tourism, including governments, intergovernmental organizations and non-governmental organizations (NGOs) often use much broader definitions of the term than those used by the ILO. They subsume under tourism all services and products consumed by tourists, including transport. The data do not consider the different methodologies of organizations and can therefore differ very widely.¹⁷ Moreover, data collection at the sectoral level is difficult and thus many of the reasons behind gender inequality in HCT remain poorly understood and studied. An ILO report on gender and rural employment¹⁸ notes that “A wide range of data on many aspects (e.g. employment status, economic sectors, hours of paid and unpaid work, earnings, working conditions) and at many levels (for example, household, district, region) are necessary to adequately understand the complexity of rural livelihoods and their gender patterns. Some of these data are not systematically collected or easily found in standard statistics. The researcher concerned with gender dimensions of rural work often has to patch together

¹⁶ For instance: taxis, cruise ships, tourism trains and buses.

¹⁷ ILO: *Developments and challenges in the hospitality and tourism sector*, Issues paper for discussion at the Global Dialogue Forum for the Hotels, Catering, Tourism Sector, Geneva, 23–24 November, 2010, p. 2.

¹⁸ Food and Agricultural Organization of the United Nations (FAO); International Fund for Agricultural Development (IFAD); ILO: *Gender dimensions of agricultural and rural employment: Differentiated pathways out of poverty, Status, trends and gaps*, Rome, 2010, http://www.ilocarib.org.tt/images/stories/contenido/pdf/Gender/GRE_WEB.pdf.

various sources and rely on a combination of specific case studies and anecdotal evidence.”¹⁹ All these problems with data plague research in the HCT sector as well.

Nonetheless, inferences about the HCT workplace can be drawn from various sources using standard measures²⁰ which enable sound comparisons to be made. Beyond statistical data, this analysis reviews a range of research studies on gender issues in HCT which illustrate the underlying gender issues in the sector. The central piece of this working paper is the set of primary findings of a survey of major international HCT companies, conducted to obtain a picture of current practice within the sector with respect to the fostering of greater gender equality and opportunity.

Methodologically, this study draws on a wide range of secondary sources, both statistical and analytical. These sources are complemented by a major international survey of HCT sector employers. The challenge faced by a study of this nature is ambiguity in sectoral definitions which impacts on the quality of statistical data available and necessitates caution in undertaking comparative analysis across sectors and countries.

¹⁹ Ibid.

²⁰ In calculations of gender pay gap, the international standard formula for the gender pay or wage gap is used, as follows: $((\text{wage men} - \text{wage women}) : \text{wage men}) \times 100$. See, for example, *An overview of women's work and employment in Brazil*, MDG3 Project, Country Report Brazil, Amsterdam, 2009, p. 44, note 24, at http://dfl.wageindicator.org/uploadfolder/documents/091212-Decisions_for_Life_Country_Reports-Brazil.pdf [accessed 15 February 2013].

2. Employment in hotels, catering and tourism

HCT is highly labour-intensive and, numerically, a significant source of employment. It is among the world's top job creators and allows for quick entry into the workforce for youth, women and migrant workers. With regard to the sectoral supply chain, one job in the core tourism industry indirectly generates roughly 1.5 additional jobs in the related economy.²¹ As reported by UNWTO, tourism is a leading contributor to export earnings and accounts for 6 per cent of all global exports in services, being the fourth largest export sector after fuels, chemicals and automotive products.²²

One of the sector's key challenges is to ensure decent work conditions, reduce uncertainty and support moves towards greater gender equality in the opportunities, remuneration and working conditions available to women in HCT. The success of the sector depends on staff commitment, loyalty and efficiency, all of which are shown through interactions with customers. Staff wages and working conditions are important considerations when assessing the success of the sector. Social dialogue and collective bargaining underpin stability and efficiency within the workforce. The Decent Work Agenda of the ILO was founded on the key principles of creating jobs, guaranteeing rights at work, extending social protection and promoting social dialogue. Gender mainstreaming is a strategy pursued in a wide range of ILO activities in order to achieve gender equality. Decent work is based on the understanding that work is a source of personal dignity, family stability, peace in the community, democracies that deliver for people, and economic growth that expands opportunities for productive jobs and enterprise development.²³ It also supports the concept of providing workers with conditions in which they could perform. In applying the Agenda to the HCT sector, positive outcomes should be sought for workers, companies and customers in order to ensure the distribution of benefits among all parties. HCT's contribution to the economy can clearly be linked to poverty reduction, which was a high priority item on the G20 agenda. Job creation is a key way of achieving that goal and creating opportunities for women to contribute to poverty alleviation through their own endeavours in the HCT workplace.

The international HCT sector is characterized by diversity in relation to all facets of its organization and operations. Indeed, it displays variation to a far greater degree than it does homogeneity. The sector, and particularly the hotel and restaurant sub-sector is highly diversified in the types of businesses that operate within it. The largest hotel enterprises cover portfolios that include more than 6,000 outlets each and employ more than 150,000 employees in as many as 100 countries. InterContinental Hotels Group (IHG) was the largest hotel chain in 2012, and was managing more than 650,000 rooms. It is followed by Hilton Worldwide and Marriott International. Globally the sector is highly fragmented, with around 20 per cent of the workforce located within multinational enterprises

²¹ I. Goldin: *The Economic Case for Tourism*, for UNWTO/South Africa international summit on tourism, sport and mega-events, 25 February 2010; D. Bolwell, W. Weinz: *Reducing poverty through tourism* (Geneva, ILO, 2008), <http://www.ilo.org/public/english/dialogue/sector/sectors/tourism/emp.htm>.

²² UNWTO Step Initiative, <http://step.unwto.org/en/content/tourism-and-poverty-alleviation-1>.

²³ See: <http://www.ilo.org/global/about-the-ilo/decent-work-agenda/lang--en/index.htm>.

compared to 80 per cent in small and medium-sized enterprises (SMEs).²⁴ More than 2.5 million SMEs are estimated to be involved in European tourism with over 99 per cent of companies employing fewer than 250 individuals. The hotel sub-sector is not alone when it comes to growth and the importance of their role as chain operators. Restaurants, particularly coffee shops and the fast-food sector have seen major growth in multiple operations worldwide, generally through the franchise format. Chain operations in the restaurant sector are dominated by iconic names in fast food, the majority of which are American in origin (McDonalds, Pizza Hut, Subway, Burger King, Starbucks and KFC among others) which all operate over 10,000 units worldwide.²⁵

Unlike the more general European picture, HCT businesses in North America,²⁶ emerging Asian destinations, Australia, the United Kingdom and some Nordic countries are more strongly influenced by organizations or larger enterprises with multiple outlets that employ more than 250 people.²⁷ Large enterprises are active product and service innovators and frequently set trends for the whole sector. As a result of “branding”, which aims to build brand popularity so that consumers identify with the brand and its particular values, HCT businesses have found that they can avoid risks of ownership while securing a constant stream of revenue by entering into long-term management agreements. They influence the activity of many SMEs through franchising or similar arrangements – businesses which remain legally independent particularly when workers’ representation is concerned.

The range in size of HCT enterprises implies substantial differences in performance and competence. Big HCT chains have significant HRD resources, including in-house and on the job-training whereas SMEs lack the capacity to do so and rely more on the Vocational Education and Training (VET) system to meet their training requirements. However, it can be a challenge for enterprises that have adopted broad HR management policies to maintain a consistent approach to HR practice and industrial relations, including, for example, social dialogue across regions. This is a function of the structure and size of such enterprises and the variety of legislative regimes within which they operate.

A key structural concern with gender disparity in HCT is that of the significant horizontal and vertical gender segregation of the labour market within the sector. Women and men are placed in different occupations – women are employed as servers, cleaners, travel agency sales persons, tour guides, (90 per cent of the people in these occupations are women), whereas men are employed as bartenders, porters,, gardeners,, maintenance and construction workers. As we will demonstrate, vertically, the typical “gender pyramid” is

²⁴ See <http://www.ilo.org/public/english/dialogue/sector/sectors/tourism/emp-hotel.htm> [accessed 13 December 2012] and http://www.hotel-online.com/News/PR2012_2nd/May12_HotelRankings.html [accessed 4 March 2013].

²⁵ ILO: *Developments and challenges in the hospitality and tourism sector*, Issues paper for discussion at the Global Dialogue Forum for the Hotels, Catering, Tourism Sector Geneva, 23–24 November 2010; European Commission website, enterprise and industry; See also: http://ec.europa.eu/enterprise/sectors/tourism/files/studies/structure_performance_competitiveness/pwc_en.pdf.

²⁶ United States Bureau of Labor Statistics, http://www.bls.gov/emp/ep_table_109.htm [accessed 5 February 2013]; OECD: “Tourism Trends in the OECD Area and Beyond”, in *Tourism Trends and Policies 2010* (Paris, 2010), p.39.

²⁷ Ibid.

prevalent - lower levels and occupations with few career development opportunities being dominated by women and key managerial positions being dominated by men.²⁸

However, the link between the overall working conditions in the HCT sector and the challenges faced by women should be understood better. This would also allow countries and companies to develop strategies by which the HCT sector could be a forerunner in gender equality. Statistics show that women occupy more jobs in the HCT sector than men and yet earn less. This is due to significant segregation horizontally and vertically in terms of occupations, as well as in terms of working time, part-time employment and precarious work. Previous research on women's working conditions and gender equality at the workplace emphasize that vertical segregation, work-family balance and care responsibilities assumed by women are the primary, and interlinked, factors leading to the situation described above.²⁹ In developing countries, additional factors such as limited education, poverty, poor maternal health and lack of sex education as well as cultural issues prevent women being empowered as economic actors.³⁰

2.1. The nature of work in HCT

2.1.1. Employment

It is important to recognize the significance of travel and tourism in generating jobs worldwide. In 2011, the travel and tourism and its related investment in construction, infrastructure, transport etc. and of the supply chain accounted for about 255 million jobs, equivalent to 8.7 per cent of total employment and to one in about twelve jobs. In 2012, a further 2.3 million direct jobs and 5.2 million total (direct, indirect and induced) jobs are expected to have been created, representing about 2 per cent growth in the sector's contribution to employment over the year. Travel and tourism is estimated to lead to the direct generation of 120 million jobs by 2022, reaching a total of tourism employment worldwide of 328 million jobs, equivalent to nearly one in 10 jobs in the global workforce.³¹

While travel and tourism has been affected by the global economic crisis, it has shown resilience, increasing by 3 per cent in 2012. Asia, Latin America and Sub-Saharan Africa were among the fastest growing destination markets in percentage growth terms in 2012.³² The contribution of travel and tourism to global gross domestic product (GDP), taking into account its direct, indirect and induced impacts, was estimated at 9 per cent in 2012. Its direct contribution to GDP grew by 3.2 per cent in 2012 and was expected to rise by 3.1 per cent in 2013 and by 4.4 per cent per year to 2022. Significant employment

²⁸ M. Vargas; L. Aguilar: *Tourism: Gender makes a difference* (IUCN – The World Conservation Union (Nd)), <http://lib.icimod.org/record/9561/files/4990.pdf>.

²⁹ Eurofound: *Addressing the gender pay gap: Government and social partner actions* (Dublin, 2010).

³⁰ UN Women: *Facts & figures on women, poverty & economics, poverty & employment*, http://www.unifem.org/gender_issues/women_poverty_economics/facts_figures.php#2 [accessed 15 February 2013].

³¹ WTTC: ILO presentation at the T20 Ministerial meeting 2012 in Mexico.

³² WTTC: *Economic impact research 2013 and Economic impact of travel & tourism 2013 annual update: summary*, <http://www.wttc.org/research/economic-impact-research/>, and http://www.wttc.org/site_media/uploads/downloads/Economic_Impact_of_TT_2013_Annual_Update_-_Summary.pdf [accessed 4 March 2013].

growth is anticipated, from 8.1 per cent of total employment in 2010 to 9.2 per cent by 2020. In 2011, investment in the travel and tourism sector was 4.9 per cent of total investments; by 2020, this should rise by 5.6 per cent over the next ten years. Moreover, export earnings from international visitors in 2011 accounted for 5.3 per cent of total exports.³³

Tourism in Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) member countries directly contributed to about 4.2 per cent of GDP and 5.4 per cent of employment in 2010, for EU members the share was respectively 4.4 per cent and 5.7 per cent, accounting for 9.7 million jobs. OECD member countries play a leading role in international tourism, representing 66 per cent of global arrivals in 2010, while European Union (EU) member countries accounted for 50.2 per cent. In 2010, total international arrivals in all countries reached 940 million, with strongest growth taking place in Asia and the Pacific. In OECD countries, tourism GDP ranges between 1.9 per cent in Denmark and 10.7 per cent in Spain. With respect to their share in total employment, the variance is between 2 per cent in Denmark and 12.7 per cent in Spain.³⁴ In the United States, accommodation and food services employ around 12.5 million people (7.61 per cent of the total workforce).

In addition, several non-OECD member countries show strong growth – in international tourism terms – in both destinations and originating markets (particularly Argentina, Brazil, China, India, Indonesia and South Africa), with rapidly growing tourism economies accounting for a significant share of GDP and total employment. In the Pacific, tourism contributes greatly to GDP. In Fiji, for example, tourism created jobs for over 40,000 people and contributed significantly to foreign exchange reserves. In 2005, each US\$1 created about 63 jobs in Fiji.³⁵

2.1.2. Working conditions

Hotels are a core component of the HCT sector and as such one of the largest and most rapidly expanding industries worldwide. The sub-sector can rightfully be described as a vehicle of globalization, as the hotels themselves accommodate tourists and business travellers from around the world. As in most other industries, the hotel sub-sector is increasingly dominated by multinational companies. Hotel workplaces frequently draw workers from the most vulnerable segments of the labour market.³⁶ It is also important to note that there is considerable variation between countries, between urban and rural areas,

³³ WTTC: *Travel and tourism world economic impact 2012*, http://www.wttc.org/site_media/uploads/downloads/world2012.pdf [accessed 7 February 2013].

³⁴ See: http://ec.europa.eu/enterprise/sectors/tourism/index_en.htm [accessed 13 December 2012]; OECD: *Tourism trends and policies 2012: Summary* (OECD, 2012).

³⁵ P.K. Narayan; S. Narayan; A. Prasad, B.D. Prasad: “Tourism and economic growth: a panel data analysis for Pacific Island countries”, in *Tourism Economics* (2010, 16(1)), pp. 169 – 183. In 2006, the sector provided 2.1 per cent of GDP in the Salomon Islands, in 2007 it was 6 per cent in Vanuatu, and in 2008 it was 3.6 per cent in Samoa and 4.4 per cent in Fiji (ILO: Green jobs in the South Pacific: A preliminary study (ILO, 2010)).

³⁶ S. Tufts: “Emerging labour strategies in Toronto's hotel sector: toward a spatial circuit of union renewal”, in *Environment and Planning* (2007, A 39), pp. 2383–2404,

and between different segments (high-end/low-end) of the hotel labour market. The degree and impact of unionization also varies to a great extent.³⁷

A European Foundation for the Improvement of Living and Working Conditions (Eurofound) report states that the collectively agreed pay in the hotels and restaurants is low when compared to average wages in almost all EU member states.³⁸ In addition to the low wage level, the working hours in this sector is longer than the national average. The report also states that there is a tendency towards consolidation of ownership in the sector, although small and medium-sized enterprises are still predominant. Meanwhile, the sector is characterized by a high degree of fluctuation (turnaround), that is, hotels are created and go out of business and/or change owners. This is even truer for restaurants. In hotels, the above-mentioned process of ownership concentration manifests itself in both in a tendency for hotels to become larger as well as more numerous. There has also been a great proliferation of chains. This has important consequences for labour, since the running of large chains necessitates professional operations and management standards, which often carry with them the potential for improved handling of work related questions.³⁹

Working conditions in HCT are often challenging. According to Eurofound, much of the work in hotels and restaurants is of a strenuous nature and may involve long periods of standing, a lot of walking (often in uncomfortable shoes for women), carrying (heavy) loads, repetitive movements, working in painful positions and walking up/down stairs. There is thus a heavy workload coupled with high levels of stress resulting from time pressure and constant customer contact. Furthermore, constant contact with water and cleansing products is a key risk. To this must be added the significant risk factor of violence and harassment from customers, colleagues or management.⁴⁰

The sector is, therefore, characterized by diversity, complexity, inter-linkages, and fragmentation in terms of employment relations and working conditions. HCT occupations are not the only jobs linked to the sector's direct activities (for example, hotel and restaurant and tourism employees), there are also many jobs that have indirect relationships with the sector as well (for example, taxi drivers, other transports, souvenir shop owners/workers). These relationships influence the many types of workplace contracts that include full-time, part-time, temporary, agency, casual and seasonal employment as well as subcontracting and have significant implications for HRD within the sector.⁴¹

In contrast to other industries, employment in HCT tends to be oriented towards people under 35 years of age. In Spain 43.4 per cent of workers in the sector are aged 25–34.⁴² The United States Bureau of Labor Statistics reports a higher number of workers

³⁷ Eurofound: *EU hotel and restaurant sector: Work and employment conditions*, (Dublin, European Foundation for the Improvement of Living and Working Conditions, 2004).

³⁸ Ibid. and Eurofound: *Employment and industrial relations in the hotels and restaurants sector* (Dublin, European Foundation for the Improvement of Living and Working Conditions, 2012).

³⁹ Ibid.

⁴⁰ Ibid.

⁴¹ ILO: *Developments and challenges in the hospitality and tourism sector*, Issues paper for discussion at the Global Dialogue Forum for the Hotels, Catering, Tourism Sector, Geneva, 23–24 November 2010.

⁴² Federación Estatal de Hostelería, Comercio y Turismo de Comisiones Obreras: *Relaciones laborales en los establecimientos hoteleros: Los y las trabajadoras ante la crisis del modelo laboral y económico hotelero* (March 2010), p.187.

aged between 16 and 20 than those aged 20 and over working in food preparation and service-related occupations.⁴³ However, this traditional characteristic of employing young women and men will undergo future changes as the demographic structures of both developed and developing countries change. The presence of an ageing workforce in regions such as Europe, Japan and North America means that the HCT sector in the future will depend on an older profile of employees with potential impacts on workplace conditions, productivity and brand image. Populations are also aging in developing countries, where there are pools of younger workers placing an overall strain on these societies for more jobs.

⁴³ United States Bureau of Labor Statistics, http://www.bls.gov/emp/ep_table_109.htm [accessed 13 December 2012].

3. Recognizing gender issues

According to the ILO,⁴⁴ definitions of gender equality need to go beyond the workplace because what happens in employment is often a reflection of wider social issues and divisions. Gender equality means that women and men have equal conditions for realizing their full human rights and for contributing to, and benefiting from, economic, social, cultural and political development. Gender equality is therefore the equal valuing by society of the similarities and the differences of men and women, and the roles they play. It is based on women and men being full partners in their home, their community and their society. Gender equality starts with equal valuing of girls and boys.

Notions of gender and gender equity lie at the heart of an understanding of sustainability within tourism, particularly in a development context. This has two key dimensions, as expressed by Moreno Alarcón and Ferguson:⁴⁵

- (a) Gender and environmental sustainability: the combination of both concepts prompts examination of the relationship between environmental degradation, gender inequalities and discrimination against women. The way in which gender roles condition the relationship that women and men (both individually and collectively) have with natural resources is studied. In general, when dealing with environmental problems, the impacts “at the end of the tube” (wastes, contamination, land degradation) are more often identified and addressed than the matter of women’s access to, and control over, natural resources. Central elements such as, for example, women’s access to, and control over, land, or the control and management of water or forests, are still not considered relevant.
- (b) Gender and economic sustainability: studying and working towards economic sustainability from a gender perspective allows one to tackle the following matters:
 - Methodological criticisms: in the formulation of statistics and national accounts that are blind to gender
 - Discussions on binomial work/employment
 - Sexual division of labour
 - Labour participation and discrimination against women
 - Economic policies and their effects, differentiated by sex
 - Problems and alternatives related to gender and development
 - Invisibility of women in macroeconomic models
 - Gender bias in public policies and budgets
 - Impact of gender on public policies
 - Economy and gender equality

⁴⁴ ILO: *ABC of women worker’s rights and gender equality*, Geneva, 2010.

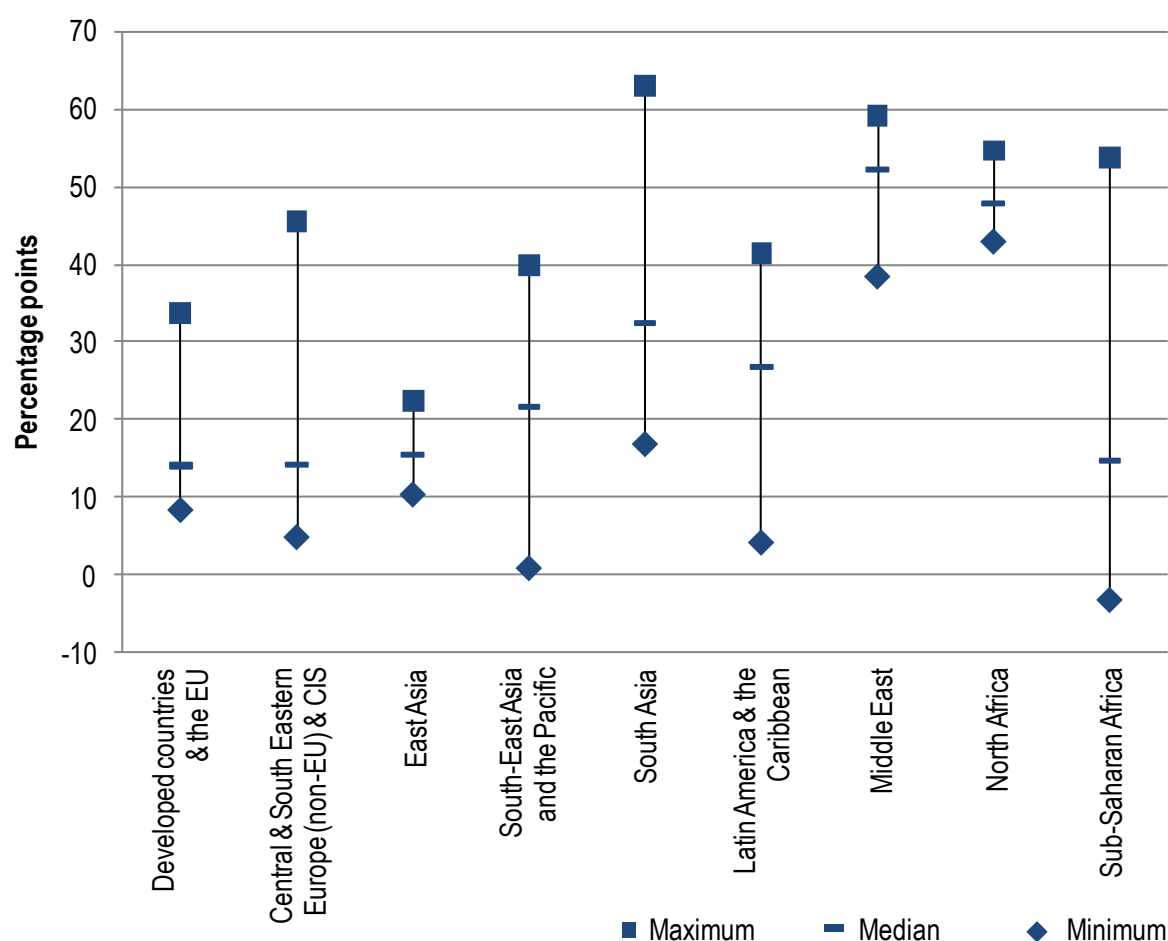
⁴⁵ D. Moreno Alarcón; L. Ferguson: *Tourism as an opportunity: Good practices in sustainable tourism from a gender perspective* (Spain, International and Ibero–American Foundation for Administration and Public Policies (FIIAPP), 2011).

- Budgets with a gender focus conditioned by economic and environmental sustainability.

Nevertheless, a gender perspective should not be considered only in terms of social sustainability as is often the case, for it is a category of analysis which has to be part of, and influence, each dimension of sustainable development. In this way, it will be possible to conceive of new ways of accomplishing activities for economic, environmental and social sustainability.

Participation levels in the workforce are key indicators of gender equality in the labour market. Figure 1 below shows minimums, maximums and medians of male-to-female ratios across different regions. First of all, it shows the overall male–female ratio in different regions, revealing that in North Africa, the Middle East, South Asia and sub-Saharan Africa, the gender gap in participation can be over 50 per cent. This figure also shows the differences between the different countries in the region, reflecting the differences even in all these areas. In the Middle East and North Africa, the medians were highest and differences between countries were also small, whereas in sub-Saharan Africa and South Asia, differences between countries being as big as from negative percentage points to over 50 percentage points.

Figure 1: Male-female gaps in labour force participation rates worldwide: regional minimum, maximum and median, percentage points, 2008



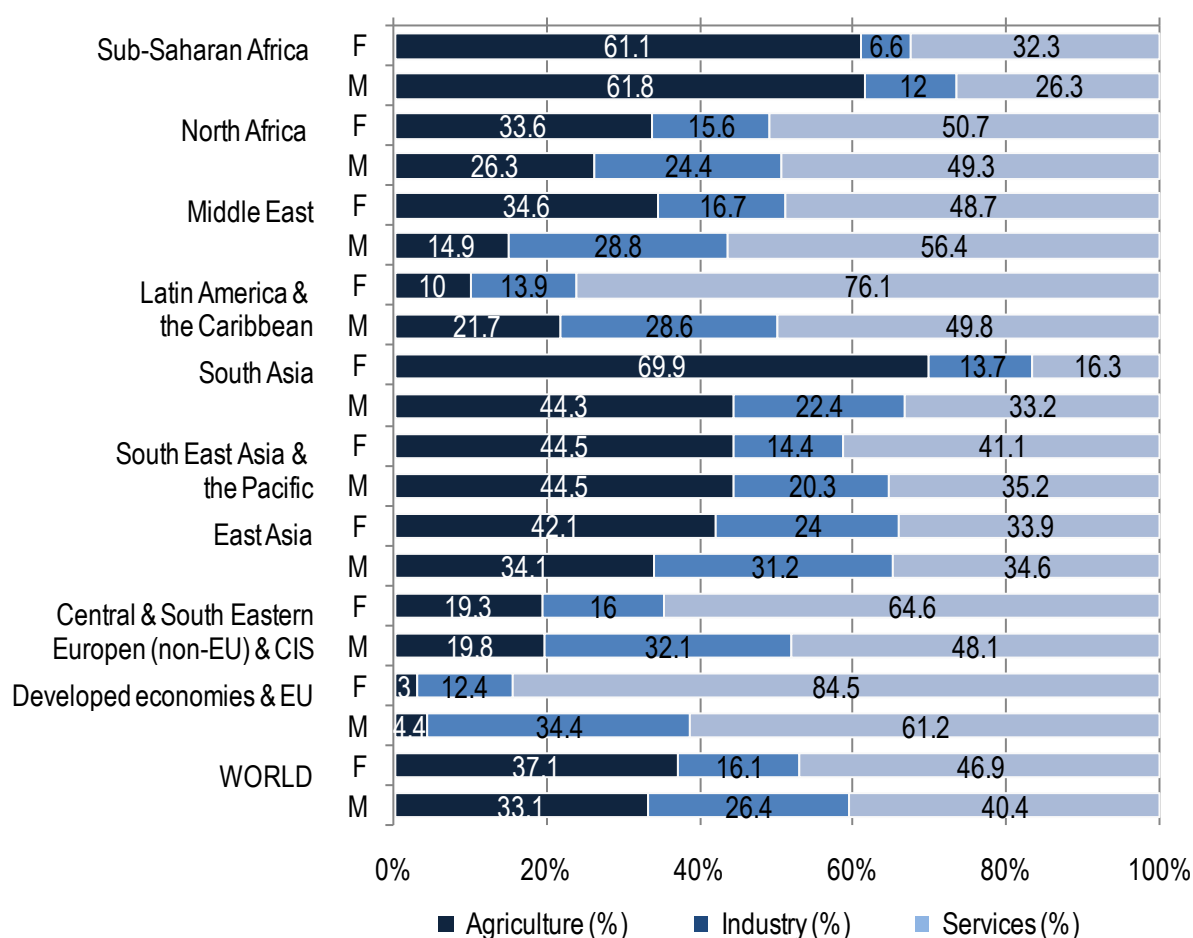
Source: ILO: *Women in labour markets: Measuring progress and identifying challenges* (Geneva 2010), p. 13.

This analysis also has implications for the potential of labour force capacity in HCT. In the regions where participation of women compared to men overall is low, the reasons

behind this gap may be found in cultural and religious factors. In these regions, promoting overall access to labour market and economic independence are more accurate measures to improve gender equality, and tackling gender equality in the HCT sector specifically is dependent on such overall measures. On the other hand, in regions where the spread of countries along the gap is wider, there might be more potential to promote equality by tackling sector specific questions such as why are jobs in the HCT sector gender segregated, and how can women's access to managerial posts and better working conditions be addressed.

A look at aggregate sectors gives a general overview of how women and men participate in the labour force in the three main economic sectors: sector, services and agriculture. In the developed economies as well as in Latin America, women tend to be most concentrated in services. In developing regions, especially South Asia and sub-Saharan Africa, women (and, in the latter, also men) are most concentrated in agriculture. Even though the overall participation rate of women in the labour force is low in the Middle East and North Africa, the women who do work are most often employed in services (over 50 per cent). This suggests clearly that HCT is among those sectors that can provide employment to women in regions where they have rather wider access to the labour market. On the other hand, services sectors are most often characterised by low pay and informal work, and the further segregation of women as service workers should not necessarily be a trend to be encouraged.

Figure 2: Global and regional distribution of employment by aggregate sector, by sex, 2008



Source: ILO: *Women in labour markets: Measuring progress and identifying challenges*, p. 38, Geneva 2010.

Variation in levels of gender participation in the workforce is not only found in comparisons between regional and national data; it can also be highlighted within countries. For example, Campa, Casarico and Profeta⁴⁶ note that the participation rate for women aged 15–64 in the workforce in Italy is 56.2 per cent in the north of the country but only 30.6 per cent in the south. Indeed, their study suggests strongly that cultural determinants contribute, alongside economic factors, in explaining this variation. It is reasonable to assume that cultural factors are also at the root of gendered discrepancies in labour market participation rates in other countries and regions.

3.1. Understanding the reasons behind gender inequality in the labour market

The gender pay gap reflects ongoing discrimination and inequalities in the labour market which, in practice, mainly affect women. Its causes are complex and interrelated. According to the European Commission,⁴⁷ gender inequality in the workplace can be attributed to:

Direct discrimination

- Some women are paid less than men for doing the same job. In Europe, this factor only explains a small part of the gender pay gap, due to the effectiveness of the EU and national legislation.

The undervaluing of women's work

- More frequently women earn less than men for doing jobs of equal value. One of the main causes is the way women's competences are valued compared to men's.
- Jobs requiring similar skills, qualifications or experience tend to be poorly paid and undervalued when they are dominated by women rather than by men. For example, the (mainly female) room attendants in hotels frequently earn rather less than male kitchen porters whose work demands differing physical exertions but is at an equivalent skills level.
- In addition the evaluation of performance, and hence pay level and career progression, may also be biased in favour of men. For example, where women and men are equally well qualified, more value can be attached to responsibility for capital than to responsibility for people.

Segregation in the labour market

- The gender pay gap is also reinforced by segregation in the labour market. Women and men still tend to work in different jobs. On the one hand, women and men often predominate in different sectors. On the other hand, within the same sector or company women predominate in lower valued and lower paid occupations.

⁴⁶ P. Campa; A. Casarico; P. Profeta: "Gender Culture and Gender Gap in Employment", in *CESifo Economic Studies* (2011, 57(1)), pp. 156–182.

⁴⁷ European Commission: *Justice: The causes of gender discrimination*, http://ec.europa.eu/justice/gender-equality/gender-pay-gap/causes/index_en.htm [accessed 21 October 2012].

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- Women often work in sectors where their work is lower valued and lower paid than those dominated by men. More than 40 per cent of women work in health, education and public administration. This is twice as much as the share of men in the same sectors. When we look at the health and social work sector alone, 80 per cent of those working in this sector are women.
 - Moreover, women are frequently employed as administrative assistants, shop assistants or low-skilled or unskilled workers – these occupations accounting for almost half of the female workforce. Many women work in low-paying occupations, for example, cleaning and care work.
 - Women are under-represented in managerial and senior positions. For example, women represent only 32 per cent of managers in companies within the EU, 10 per cent of members of management boards of the largest companies, and 29 per cent of scientists and engineers across Europe.

Traditions and stereotypes

- Segregation is frequently linked to traditions and stereotypes. While in some cases this may reflect personal choices, traditions and stereotypes may influence, for example, the choice of educational paths and, consequently, professional careers that girls and women make.
- While 55 per cent of university students are women, they are a minority in fields like mathematics, computing and engineering.
- Only 8.4 in 1,000 women aged 20–29 are graduates in mathematics, science and technology compared to 17.6 men.
- Consequently, there are fewer women working in scientific and technical jobs. In many cases this results in women working in lower valued and lower paid sectors of the economy.
- Because of these traditions and stereotypes, women are expected to reduce their working hours or exit the labour market to carry out child or elder care.

Balancing work and private life

- Women experience greater difficulties than men when it comes to balancing work and private life.
- Family and care responsibilities are still not equally shared. The task of looking after dependent family members is largely borne by women. Far more women than men choose to take parental leave. This fact, together with the lack of facilities for child care and elder care, means that women are often forced to exit the labour market: the employment rate for women with dependent children is only 62.4 per cent compared with 91.4 per cent for men with dependent children.
- Although part-time work may be a personal choice, women have greater recourse to part-time work in order to combine work and family responsibilities. There is evidence of pay gap when looked at from the differences in hourly earnings of part-time and full-time workers. Across Europe over one-third of women work part-time, compared to only 8 per cent of men. More than three-quarters of the total of part-time workers are women.

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- Consequently, women have more career interruptions or work shorter hours than men. This can impact negatively on their career development and promotion prospects. It also means less financially rewarding careers.

While the debate over gender inequality has engaged academics for many years, including sociologists, anthropologists, psychologists and political scientists, in most societies practical steps to overcome such divisions have failed to make significant progress. The ILO ⁴⁸ points to the universality of gender inequality across nations and cultures, challenging attempts to interpret this in localized terms:

Gender inequality remains an issue within labour markets globally. Women suffer multiple disadvantages in terms of access to labour markets, and often do not have the same level of freedom as men to choose to work. Gender differences in labour force participation rates and unemployment rates are a persistent feature of global labour markets.

According to a Eurofound study, the main reasons for gender inequality in labour markets in Europe are vertical segregation, family and care responsibilities, differences in work time and job valuation, educational differences as well as segregation of representation. Vertical segregation is reported by European countries to be a large factor in explaining gender pay gap. According to this study:

When career systems are strictly regulated and when mechanisms of recruitment and promotion are automatic and protected by collective agreements, as for example in the public sector, women tend to be less disadvantaged and their career patterns to be more similar to men's. By contrast, when recruitment and career advancement are subject to managerial discretion, women may be left far behind men. In the second case, stereotypes often still influence women's career dynamics. ⁴⁹

This analysis continues:

The objective differences in the role of women and men with regard to family responsibility play a major part in shaping women's careers. Women often choose part-time jobs in order to better reconcile work and family responsibilities, which makes it almost impossible to reach top managerial positions. Moreover, being the principal care givers, women are often unavailable to offer the kind of flexibility that companies would require. They are unavailable for long travelling and unplanned overtime. The studies carried out in different European countries confirm these objective factors.

Eurofound highlights evidence that quantitative evidence which shows that gendered roles in family and society and unequal distribution of care responsibilities, based on marital status and the number of dependent children, go some way to explain aspects of the gender pay gap. The number of dependent children is identified as a major factor in the gender pay gap in a number of European countries. An Estonian study finds that for each child a woman's earnings fall by 3.6 per cent, whereas men's earnings are not affected. Furthermore the study finds that, all other factors being equal, the difference between wages paid to married and single people is greater in the case of men than in the case of women. In Norway, having children explained up to 36 per cent of the gender pay gap in 2003. This situation is more relevant for those working in the private sector than in the public sector, especially for higher educated persons. Part of the reasons for these findings can be attributed to career and pay 'sacrificing' by women as they often choose part-time

⁴⁸ ILO: *Global Employment Trends for Women* (Geneva, 2009).

⁴⁹ Eurofound: *Addressing the gender pay gap: Government and social partner actions* (Dublin, 2010), p. 9.

and flexible work in order to be able to take care of the above described care and family responsibilities.

Placing a value on work and jobs is more difficult in front-line service work, where women tend to be a majority. Implementing the principle of equal remuneration for work of equal value, free from discrimination based on sex, is enshrined in the Equal Remuneration Convention, 1951 (No. 100). This principle has been reinforced with the follow-up to the ILO Declaration on Fundamental Principles and Rights at Work and, in particular, with the 2003, 2007 and 2011 Global Reports devoted to equality at work. To date, Convention No. 100, adopted in 1951, has been ratified by 171 countries.⁵⁰ However, despite this broad consensus regarding the principle enshrined in it, the pay gap between women and men remains a persistent and universal fact of the labour market. Yet, methods for objective job valuation can be developed, such as the Portuguese equal pay initiative.⁵¹

Box 2

Equal pay in Portugal's restaurants

According to a study by the ILO, for every one euro a Portuguese man earns, a woman earns just 79 cents. An innovative "job evaluation method" (JEM) is providing new solutions for pay equity across Portugal's restaurant sub-sector. Developed with the participation of the local employers' association, trade unions and the ILO, the JEM is a guide that provides a detailed profile of a worker's skills combined with the demands of the job including physical hazards and stress. It provides information on how to measure "comparable worth" between different types of jobs, and restaurant employers can ensure that equitable job opportunities were created, which in turn led to equal pay.

Source: M. Chicha: Promoting equity: Gender-neutral job evaluation for equal pay: A step-by-step guide (Geneva, International Labour Office, 2008).

Note: See also video clip: http://www.ilo.org/global/about-the-ilo/press-and-media-centre/videos/video-news-releases/WCMS_099053/lang--en/index.htm.

Recent statistical surveys have revealed that this gap exists in countries with very diverse economic structures and that, although the gap is decreasing in most of these countries, this progress is being achieved very slowly. Increased education especially in higher levels of women has not reduced pay gap significantly. It has only decreased the effect of the "personal characteristics component" in determining the reasons for the existence of the pay gap. In many EU countries, gender pay gap is wider for higher educated and high-skilled workers than low-skilled. Male-dominated sectors tend to have higher presence of trade unions.

Vertical segregation is reported by European countries to be a large factor in explaining gender pay gap. According to Eurofound:

When career systems are strictly regulated and when mechanisms of recruitment and promotion are automatic and protected by collective agreements, as for example in the public sector, women tend to be less disadvantaged and their career patterns to be more similar to men's. By contrast, when recruitment and career advancement are subject to managerial

⁵⁰ By February 2013.

⁵¹ See Eurofound: *Lack of gender bias in job evaluation in hotels and restaurants* (Dublin, 2009). <http://www.eurofound.europa.eu/ewco/2009/02/PT09020491.htm> [accessed 13 December 2012].

discretion, women may be left far behind men. In the second case, stereotypes often still influence women's career dynamics.⁵²

The reasons for gender pay gap can be analysed through a three-part framework.⁵³ The first explanation is occupational segregation: women tend to work in subordinate posts and occupations where attributes seen as innate for women, such as care and domestic and household work, can be commercialised. Second, women tend to work in industries that are low-paid: thus, there is segregation not only inside but within industries. HCT is a low-paid sector because it is low-skilled, which prevents workers from taking advantage of the employers' need to keep an employee to whom they have invested education and who has developed organization-specific skills. HCT also tends to offer short-term opportunities because of the low level of skills that can be acquired, which further discourages employers from investing in employees, as they may assume that they will leave soon anyway.

These two are structural factors that are difficult for employees to address or impact. The third, the human capital theory, suggests that pay rises along with education. However, women are seen as less committed and spending shorter time in the work life due to family obligations. Thus, employers prefer investing in men's education and see them as having more human capital due to longer stay in work life, which explains higher pay for men.

Legislative measures at a national level, however, can be deployed as a means to reduce the evident gap between male and female remunerative levels. The ILO,⁵⁴ with reference to a statutory national minimum wage, concludes that such measures are more likely to benefit women's pay than men's, arguing that "a growing body of literature points to the important role of minimum wage policies in combating gender-based pay discrimination and addressing the vulnerability of women to becoming trapped in low-paid jobs. The contribution of minimum wages to improving women's wages should be recognized as an objective in its own right, since women typically benefit more than male workers from minimum wages increases".

3.2. Women in employment in HCT

In 2002, a United Nations Environment and Development UK (UNED-UK) study estimated that on average 46 per cent of the tourism workforce are women.⁵⁵ Regional

⁵² Eurofound: *Addressing the gender pay gap: Government and social partner actions* (Dublin, 2010).

⁵³ See video clip: http://www.ilo.org/global/about-the-ilo/press-and-media-centre/videos/video-news-releases/WCMS_099053/lang--en/index.htm [accessed 13 December 2012]; ILO: *Promoting equity: Gender-neutral job evaluation for equal pay: A step-by-step guide* (Geneva, 2008); V. Kinnaird; D. Hall: "Understanding tourism processes: A gender-aware framework", in *Tourism Management* (1996, 17(2)), pp. 95–102; T. Sinclair (ed.): *Gender, Work and Tourism* (London: Routledge, 1997); P. Wilkinson; W. Pratiwi: "Gender and tourism in an Indonesian village, in *Annals of Tourism Research* (1995, 22(2)), pp. 283–299; and F. Muñoz-Bullón: "The gap between male and female pay in the Spanish tourism industry", in *Tourism Management* (2009, 30(5)), pp. 638–649.

⁵⁴ ILO: *Global Wage Report 2010/11: Wage policies in times of crisis* (Geneva, 2010), p. 73.

⁵⁵ UNED: *Gender & tourism: Women's employment and participation in tourism*, Summary of UNED-UK's project report (London, 2002).

figures varied from 2 to 80 per cent and the trend seemed to be that where the HCT sector is mature, women's employment is around 50 per cent.⁵⁶ A recent OECD report notes that:

Women's employment rates have markedly increased. While in 1970 less than half (45 per cent) of all women (aged 15 to 64) in OECD countries participated in the labour market, in 2008 this proportion increased to 58 per cent. ... Female employment rates vary widely across countries. While in 2008 more than 70 per cent of women are in paid employment in the Nordic countries, less than 50 per cent are employed in Greece, Italy, Mexico and Turkey. In a typical OECD country the proportion of women in paid work is on average 58 per cent.⁵⁷

However, lack of gender disaggregated data prevents detecting the reasons for the disparities in amounts of employment, working hours and wages. In addition, "the increase of women's involvement in the labour market has not been associated with substantial change in the amount of hours women are expected to spend on domestic duties; this is leading to much longer actual working hours for women, that is, up to 70–90 hours per week".⁵⁸ In HCT, where many companies are small and family enterprises, the mixing of women's paid work and domestic work is unclear. Moreover, the same factors lead to situations where it is difficult to distinguish formal from informal work.

Women's role in HCT is frequently seen to be an extension of their domestic responsibilities. Harris et al suggests that: "Traditionally women are employed in roles that are considered representative of their domestic roles, using the same skills base."⁵⁹ Hunter Powell and Watson see the value of domestic skills in terms of conscious managerial practice when they argue that "Employers take advantage of the social and domestic skills acquired by women through gender role socialization and hire women for jobs involving cleaning, serving on people and nurturing children."⁶⁰

Similarly, Knox's study reports the perceptions of respondents in the following terms:

Managers remarked that the women working in these jobs had been performing cleaning work in their own homes for many years and that they were highly proficient workers. These managers believed that male room attendants would be inclined to possess less experience and would be less efficient than their female counterparts. In contrast, housemen were exclusively male workers engaged on a full-time basis to perform "heavy duty" cleaning, including floor polishing in large public areas, pool cleaning and maintenance, and the cleaning of outdoor areas such as the hotel's driveways. This was said to be the work of men because it required operating "heavy" equipment such as floor polishers.⁶¹

⁵⁶ Ibid.

⁵⁷ OECD: Gender Brief (Paris, 2010), <http://www.oecd.org/social/family/44720649.pdf> [accessed 15 February 2013].

⁵⁸ UNED: *Gender & tourism: Women's employment and participation in tourism*, Summary of UNED–UK's project report (London, 2002).

⁵⁹ C. Harris; H. Tregidga; D. Williamson: "Cinderella in Babylon: the representation of housekeeping and housekeepers in the UK television series Hotel Babylon", in *Hospitality and Society* (2011, 1(1)), p. 51, pp. 47–66.

⁶⁰ H.P. Hunter Powell; D. Watson: "Service unseen: The hotel room attendant at work", in *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, (2006, 25(2)), p. 309, pp. 297–312.

⁶¹ A. Knox: "Gender desegregation and equal employment opportunity in Australian luxury hotels: Are we there yet?", in *Asia Pacific Journal of Human Resources* (2008, 46(2)), pp. 180–181.

Segregation by occupation is another feature of services work in general, and HCT is no exception.

Table 1: Women in hotels and restaurants by occupational status, 2010, by region (percentage)

| Region | Professional (%) | Clerks (%) | Service workers (%) |
|---------------|------------------|------------|---------------------|
| Asia | 38.9 | 49.4 | 35.6 |
| Latin America | 36.6 | 62.7 | 65.5 |
| Africa | 34.9 | 56.6 | 34.8 |
| Caribbean | N/A | 67.3 | 42.9 |
| Oceania | N/A | N/A | N/A |
| Average | 36.8 | 59.0 | 44.7 |

Source: UN–Women/UNWTO: *Global Report on Women in Tourism 2010* (New York/Madrid, 2011). Based on ILO Laborsta Database.

It is important to note that the relative status and benefits of gendered work in the HCT sector varies according to country, as does the position of different occupations compared to comparable work in other sectors. Tijdens and van Klaveren⁶² compared key occupational indicators for young women aged 18–30 in eight occupations across seven countries (Belarus, Brazil, India, Indonesia, Kazakhstan, South Africa and Ukraine). Relevant to this study, young women working as receptionists in hotels have relatively low earnings, compared to the other occupations analysed. In Brazil, they are even lower than the median earnings for all receptionists in the seven countries. By contrast, the young women employed as travel agency intermediaries in HCT rank third in the overall earnings across countries. In South Africa and in India their wages are relatively high, followed by Brazil, whereas they are relatively low in Belarus.

Specifically in tourism, Nga and Pine – in their study based in Hong Kong, China – note:

Not only is there vertical segregation, there is also horizontal segregation by function according to gender. Female managers are mainly in the functions of “personnel & training” (64.6 per cent) and “conference & banqueting” (68.7 per cent), whilst management posts in the areas of property & security”, “food & beverage”, and “control & finance” are mostly held by men.⁶³

In Spain, Mir, Palmer and Ques⁶⁴ report findings of their analysis of hotel employment and gender division in the Balearic Islands. Specifically, they highlight significant gender variation across departments in hotels, as represented in Table 2 and note male domination in the areas of kitchen, bar and technical services work and female majorities working in housekeeping, with restaurant relatively equally divided.

⁶² K. Tijdens; M. van Klaveren: “Young women in service sector occupations”, in *Wage Indicator Data Report* (Amsterdam, Wage Indicator Foundation, 2011).

⁶³ C. Nga; R. Pine: “Women and men in hotel management in Hong Kong: perceptions of gender and career development issues”, in *International Journal of Hospitality Management* (2003, 22(1)), pp. 85–102.

⁶⁴ V.R. Mir; J. R-M. Palmer; M.T. Ques: *Determinants of gender wage differentials in the hospitality industry in the Balearic Islands: the role of gender segregation* (2000), <http://www.uib.es/depart/deaweb/webpersonal/mtugores/archivos/discrimina.pdf> [accessed 15 February 2013].

Table 2: Distribution of employment by sex - hotels in the Balearic Islands, 2000 (percentage)

| Department | Male (%) | Female (%) |
|--------------------|----------|------------|
| Management | 49.5 | 50.5 |
| Reception | 60.0 | 40.0 |
| Housekeeping | 5.0 | 95.0 |
| Kitchen | 76.0 | 24.0 |
| Restaurant | 48.0 | 52.0 |
| Bar/nightclub | 76.6 | 23.4 |
| Technical services | 95.0 | 5.0 |
| Other areas | 57.0 | 43.0 |

Source: Mir, V.R., Palmer, J.R.-M. and Ques, M.T., 2000.

The tourism industry in Switzerland also manifests segregation, but with a different emphasis. According to Duc and Pluess,⁶⁵ a survey of wages in tourism "... demonstrates occupational segregation and wage differences in the Swiss travel and tourism industry. Women are extremely under-represented in higher positions in the business. In key managerial positions, where the income is subject to individual negotiations, women tend to earn 20–30 per cent less than men."

Hunter Powell and Watson,⁶⁶ in their study of hotel room attendants, also talk in terms of a gender-segregated occupation, noting that the origin of this is to do with the social construction of the nature of skills involved (primarily "domestic") rather than objective scrutiny of the tasks involved. Increasing focus on the flexible organization in tourism, particularly with respect to numerical flexibility as a response to seasonality, impacts particularly on women where, as long ago as 1990, Bagguley⁶⁷ noted that part-time work in tourism was largely populated by female employees.

Women's employment in HCT is particularly vulnerable to demand fluctuations. Breathnach et al.,⁶⁸ with reference to tourism in Ireland, clearly illustrate that women are much more likely to be released by their employers on a seasonal basis than are their male colleagues. Cukier-Snow and Wall⁶⁹ reach similar conclusions with respect to the greater vulnerability of female employment in tourism, based on their study in Bali, Indonesia. In part, such differentiation may be attributable to a reversion to traditional gender roles in times of economic pressure – a tendency to preserve male work opportunities in favour of those taken by women. This finding accords with the Marxist notion of women as a

⁶⁵ M. Duc; C. Pluess: *Spotlight: Switzerland in gender and tourism: Women's employment and participation in tourism*, (London, UNED-UK), p.2.

⁶⁶ H.P. Hunter Powell; D. Watson: "Service unseen: The hotel room attendant at work", in *International Journal of Hospitality Management* (2006, 25(2)), pp. 297–312.

⁶⁷ P. Bagguley: "Gender and Labour Flexibility in Hotel and Catering", in *The Service Industries Journal* (1990, 10(4)), pp. 737–747.

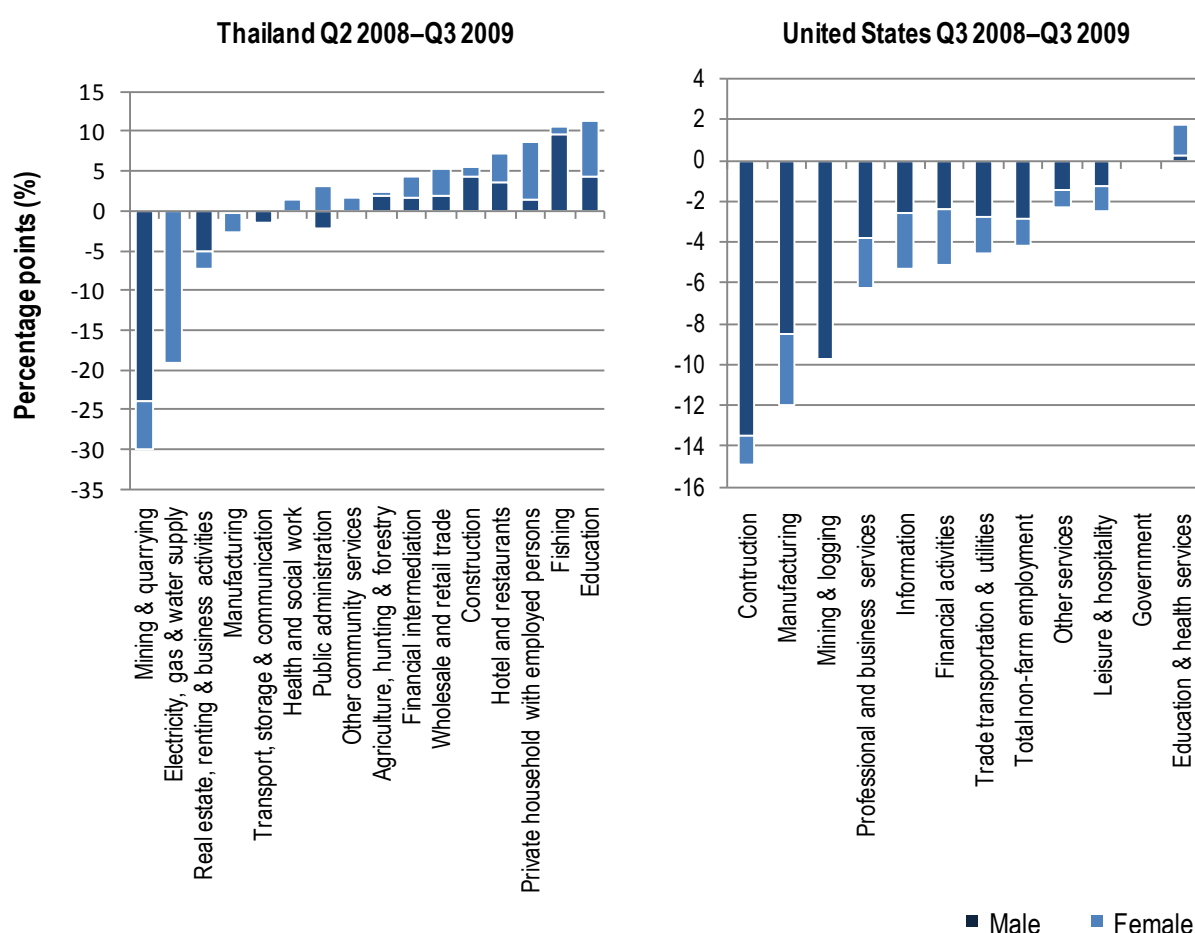
⁶⁸ P. Breathnach et al.: "Gender in Irish Tourism Employment", in (eds.) V. Kinnaird and D. Hall: *Tourism: A gender analysis* (Wallingford, CABI, 1994), pp. 52–73.

⁶⁹ J. Cukier-Snow; G. Wall: "Tourism Employment: Perspectives from Bali", in *Tourism Management* (1993, 14(3)), pp. 195–201.

“reserve army of labour”⁷⁰ within the workforce, dispensable as and when they are no longer required.

It is, therefore, not surprising that gender implications are evident when in assessing the impact of the current global downturn on tourism employment. As shown from Figure 3, employment across all sectors was more heavily hit by the crisis in the United States than in Thailand. However, hotels and restaurants survived better than many other sectors, as the impact of the financial crisis was indirect rather than direct. In the United States, women bore a larger share of the loss of jobs in hotels and restaurants than men, even though the difference is not big as the overall loss of jobs was only around 2 per cent. The trend is still the reverse of other sectors, where men bore a larger share of loss of employment. Overall in Thailand, more sectors increased their employment despite the crisis. Hotels and restaurants saw the fourth largest growth in jobs, the creation of jobs being distributed fairly evenly among men and women.

Figure 3: Employment change by sector in Thailand and United States, 2008–09



Source: ILO: Women in labour markets: Measuring progress and identifying challenges, p.41, Geneva, 2010.

Muñoz-Bullón studied gender inequality especially with regard to wage inequalities in the Spanish hotel and restaurant sub-sector.⁷¹ He finds that qualification level, firm size,

⁷⁰ I. Bruegel: “Women as a reserve army of labour: A note on recent British experience”, in *Feminist Review* (1979, No. 3); P. Bagguley: “Gender and Labour Flexibility in Hotel and Catering”, in *The Service Industries Journal* (1990, 10(4)), pp. 737–747.

⁷¹ F. Muñoz-Bullón: “The gap between male and female pay in the Spanish tourism industry”, in *Tourism Management* (2009, 30(5)), pp. 638–649.

type of contract and the specific sub-sector were important wage-determining factors for both men and women. Young employees and non-agency recruits earn less than the average regardless of their sex. Other factors, such as migrant background and short job tenure have deleterious effects for women's earnings but are not or are only marginally significant for men.

According to this study, the component relating to differences in characteristics (education, etc.) of men and women explains 88 per cent of the wage gap in tourism, whereas in the overall economy, it explains only 12.5 per cent of the gap. The remaining component is defined by Muñoz-Bullón as a "discrimination component". In Portugal, for instance, this discrimination component was 45 per cent, meaning that in Portugal, 45 per cent of the wage gap is explained by the unknown discrimination effect and only 55 per cent by characteristics of the employee. Thus, in Spain, women in tourism were in a better position to improve their wage prospects by developing their personal characteristics than in other sectors of the economy. No such comprehensive studies exist, however, that could confirm that this is the case for HCT in general.

Muñoz-Bullón also noted that men generally occupy jobs that require high qualifications, and in sub-sectors where wages are higher (restaurants versus tour guides in Spain, for example) and men are more often hired with open ended contracts. In relation to the discrimination component, Muñoz-Bullón states that if the above mentioned phenomena of segregation between men and women are unrestricted choices, the gap is difficult to get rid of. However, he sees it likely that these phenomena of segregation are partly due to some kind of discrimination: occupational, social or contractual. His main conclusion is that the firm's choice to hire men and women on an equal basis for all jobs, and offer equal pay for equal work, have a large effect on wage equality.

3.3. Women and wages

Minimum wage may provide an effective protection for women in low-wage industries. In such industries most workers are covered by legislation and there is less room for sex-based discrimination. Minimum wage legislation is more efficient than equal pay provisions that must be claimed for in court.

Tamborini ⁷² examines the effects of the globalizing economy on labour market opportunities for women. He suggests that "outward looking" and export-oriented or globalized development strategies encourage female participation in the workforce. The reasons are affiliated with often parallel neoliberal economic reforms which allow foreign companies to seek low labour costs, lower unionization and deregulation of labour in countries that choose participation in the global economy as a development strategy. International tourism fulfils the characteristics of a sector oriented towards international markets and choosing international tourism as a development strategy might have gender-related implications on the labour market. Especially the question of international businesses seeking low labour costs should be considered from the point of view of international hotel chains: is female domination in the work force a sign of a "race to the bottom". ⁷³

⁷² C. Tamborini: "Work, wages and gender in export-oriented cities: Global assembly versus international tourism in Mexico", in *Bulletin of Latin American Research* (2007, 26(1)), p. 27.

⁷³ Casellas, Holcomb, cited in Tamborini 2007, p. 27.

Jordan's⁷⁴ qualitative study in the UK attaches wage differences and poor working conditions especially for women in the tourism sector to a culture of tourism. She studied travel agencies, tour operators and other tourism organizations apart from hotels and restaurants. Men dominate managerial, financial and business development posts and women personnel, retail and marketing. The companies studied had a culture of internalizing, rationalizing and thus legitimizing sex segregation, both vertical and horizontal. This culture was related to the characteristics of the tourism sector, focusing on domestic-type work and the commodification of female characteristics. Young, attractive women represent an image of the sector such as care, patience, and hospitality, and they are therefore placed in the forefront and customer interface. Similar images of the HCT sector have been recognised in analyses of tourism advertising, which often uses gendered and even sexually appealing imagery of young women, combined with the liberating aspects and exotic nature of paradise destinations.

According to Jordan's study, employers also believe that women are attracted to working in this sector because of the perceived glamour of tourism and travel. These two perceptions, women being positioned as the marketing image for selling tourist destinations and services, and their wanting to work in this glamorous sector helps companies legitimize hiring women in low-paid jobs and maintaining barriers for career development. The fact that there are a majority of women working in tourism further makes it difficult to view it as a sector where there would not be equal employment opportunities between men and women, because women are not seen as a minority.

HCT enterprises also rarely offer training, because on the job learning is perceived as more valuable than individual skills development. This may be related to factors detected by Muñoz-Bullón: tourism is viewed as a sector where only a certain amount of human capital can be acquired and investing in the workforce is not seen economically feasible for companies.

Jordan also studied promotion systems and found that most tourism companies operated by informal and without written criteria basis, without advertising posts and senior managers making appointments based on middle managers' recommendations. This may contribute to vertical segregation because of emphasis on personal relationships and preconceived ideas about the jobs for which men and women are best suited, especially in a culture described above.

3.4. Equality of opportunity and treatment

On the role of equal opportunity policies in the United Kingdom, Jordan noted that those manager of enterprises that did not have nor felt they needed a formal equal opportunities policy tended to have a male-dominated management structure, either having more male managers than female or females managing departments such as human resources (HR), reservations, and sales. Employees in these firms saw the companies only as a short-term placement for work because they did not believe in verbal promises of advancement opportunities. On the contrary, both male and female employees were happier and more committed in companies with equal opportunity programmes that were often related to training that led women to believe that they are qualified and trained for higher posts. This again reinstates Muñoz-Bullón's claim: women tend to be less committed to their employers, not only because of family responsibilities but also because of the lack of education, learning and career prospects offered to them. In general, equal opportunities policies have produced mutually beneficial results, but dissemination of these

⁷⁴ F. Jordan: "An occupational hazard? Sex segregation in tourism employment", in *Tourism Management* (1997, 18(8)), pp. 525–534.

good practices is scarce because of the dispersed nature of the business in the United Kingdom.

In the HCT sector, the low level of trade union representation has consequences for promotions and career prospects which will depend strongly on managerial perception and prejudice. This might be one reason why the gender pay-gap remains and is explained at least partially by vertical segregation even though HCT is a female-dominated sector, most managers are men or the proportion of men is higher in management than worker positions. The situation might be different in large hotel chain companies, which usually implement sophisticated career development and HR policies.⁷⁵

Even though many deficiencies for women's equality in the workplace are present in the HCT sector, it can be viewed as a "particularly good sector" for engaging in efforts towards the advancement of women. This is because of its size, rapid growth rate and extremely diverse, dynamic and flexible nature. The same applies for combating gender stereotypes. The UNED–UK report states that gender stereotypes which are common in all cultures are reflected in employment in the HCT sector, but at the same time, it is a sector where gender stereotypes can be challenged.⁷⁶

Baum⁷⁷ studied HR policies in the HCT sector and concluded that strategic approaches were lacking in maximizing the potential of key groups of employees, including women. Typically, the sector makes few allowances for personal and lifestyle preferences which do not fit in closely with workplace norms, which in turn follow socially constructed gender norms.

3.5. Key themes and cases

3.5.1. Women migrant workers

Muñoz-Bullón's study in Spain highlights that migrants earn less than native workers in tourism, but that the difference is statistically significant only for women. This research confirms a wider range of studies⁷⁸ which note that migrant worker status creates particular vulnerabilities in the workforce and that women migrants are especially likely to suffer in this regard in terms of the status of their work and the payment they receive. In the United Kingdom, Dyer, McDowell and Batnitzky⁷⁹ argue that the gendered role of migrant workers is not necessarily simple and extends beyond the vulnerable status of migrants in the workforce.

⁷⁵ J. Boardman; C. Barbato: *Review of socially responsible HR and labour relations practice in international hotel chains*, ILO sectoral activities programme, Geneva, 2008.

⁷⁶ UNED: *Gender & tourism: Women's employment and participation in tourism*, Summary of UNED–UK's project report (London, 2002).

⁷⁷ T. Baum: "Human resources in tourism: Still waiting for change" in *Tourism Management* (2007, 28(6)), pp. 1383–1399.

⁷⁸ See, for example, I. Browne; J. Misra: "The intersection of gender and race in the labor market", in *Annual Review of Sociology* (2003, 29), pp. 487–513; A. Adib; Y. Guerrier: "The interlocking of gender with nationality, race, ethnicity and class: the narratives of women in hotel work", in *Gender, Work & Organization* (2003, 10(4)), pp. 413–32.

⁷⁹ S. Dyer; I. McDowell; I. Batnitsky: "The Impact of Migration on the Gendering of Service Work: The Case of a West London Hotel", in *Gender, Work & Organization* (2010, 17(6)), pp. 635–657.

Their study notes:

Migration status at times reinforces gender segregation. ...Women migrants are still found undertaking “women's work” on the front desk and in housekeeping. However, many young women in housekeeping, working in the UK as a right endowed by their EU citizenship, are less obligated to perform the docility and deference required of them. Nevertheless, these women undertake hard work for low pay with little job security. Their migration status as EU citizens might afford them more agency in the UK job market than those working on temporary sector-based work permits, but they are still concentrated in some of the lowest status jobs in the London labour market.

3.6. Women and HCT cooperatives

Cooperatives can help to bridge gender gaps for positive development and poverty-reduction outcomes. As a contribution to filling some of the knowledge gaps in relation to women's cooperative membership, ILO CoopAFRICA launched a research initiative jointly with the Co-operative Alliance of Kenya (CAK), the Moshi University College of Co-operative and Business Studies (MUCCoBS), and the Uganda Cooperative Alliance (UCA) covering Kenya, Tanzania and Uganda. The synthesis report of the research findings is available, and although not specifically focussed on HCT, it provides an overview of the status of women's participation in cooperatives, an assessment of the determining factors and impact of membership and a review of emerging good practices in this field.⁸⁰

A specific tourism example is “Rodia”, a women's agro-tourism cooperative established in 1994 and located in the northern part of Greece. Some 22 rural women are involved in manufacturing local products, mainly pasta, and they have developed a catering business for local festivities such as christenings, weddings, etc. A major role in their decision to take up this entrepreneurial activity was also played by the local stakeholder, especially the representatives of the municipality, by donating to the cooperative an old building that once housed the elementary school (which no longer exists due to the very small number of children in the village). The women set up their workshop and store in this building. The members of the cooperative are between 40 and 60 years old and completed primary school; only the president, who is 42 years old is among the younger members, completed secondary school. Women did not invest a large amount of capital in the cooperative. They bought very simple equipment for their production line. At the beginning, they took advantage of national funding programmes and, later, a European funding programme for equipment and marketing.⁸¹

In Petra, Jordan, a microfinance project was started for a group of women to learn how to make Nabataean pottery. They were given some finance from United States Agency for International Development (USAID) and the seven women who were taught were empowered to teach seven more and these women all work together in the Taybet Women Cooperative.⁸² Malia Asfour, Director of the Jordan Tourism Board in North

⁸⁰ See: <http://www.ilo.org/public/english/employment/ent/coop/africa/index.htm> [accessed 13 December 2012]

⁸¹ S. Koutsou et al.: “Women's Entrepreneurship and Rural Tourism in Greece: Private Enterprises and Cooperative”, in *South-European Society and Politics* (2009, Vol. 14, No. 2), pp. 191–209, Routledge, http://teithe.academia.edu/OuraniaNotta/Papers/942951/Womens_Entrepreneurship_and_Rural_Tourism_in_Greece_Private_Enterprises_and_Cooperatives [accessed 13 December 2012].

⁸² “International Women's Day 2012: Perspectives from women in tourism” in *Adventure Travel News*, <http://www.adventuretravelnews.com/international-womens-day-2012-perspectives-from-women-in-tourism> [accessed 18 February 2013].

America (JTBNA) says, “They sell their goods in a little gift shop, they provide pottery for the big hotel chains and they support their families, and they teach more women in their community. When you teach women a trade, they are able to teach other women and support so many members of their family.”

3.7. Women in informal employment in HCT

Informal employment comprises a large and diverse category of workers, which can be divided into the more homogeneous categories, informal self-employment and informal wage-employment, according to status in employment. The informal economy accounts for over half of total non-agricultural employment in Latin America and the Caribbean, nearly half in East Asia and as much as 80 per cent in other parts of Asia and in Africa. In terms of urban areas, the informal economy accounted for well over half in Africa and Asia and a quarter in Latin America and the Caribbean.⁸³ The Decisions for Life project in Brazil notes that gender pay gap tends to be larger in the formal than the informal economy,⁸⁴ highlighting the responsibility of the corporate sector in HCT to take the lead in addressing gender pay gaps at all levels.

HCT, by its nature, includes many micro-enterprises and self-employed persons which straddle the borders between formality and informality in both the less-developed and developed world and operate across a wide range of sub-sectors, including accommodation (bed and breakfast establishments in the family home, for example), food stalls (hawkers), handicraft sellers, sex workers and many others. In the Gambian context, Bah and Goodwin⁸⁵ define the tourism informal economy to include all those individuals and micro enterprises that engage with tourists and the tourism industry, but are not members of the Gambian Hotel Association or the Ground Handlers and Equipment Hirers Association which brings together craft market vendors, tourist taxi drivers, official tourist guides, juice pressers and fruit sellers as well as small hotels, guest houses and ground tour operators.

The service nature of the sector and high proportion of low-skill domestic-type jobs increase accessibility to women. Often women are most involved in informal economy activities, particularly hawking.⁸⁶

⁸³ M.A. Chen: “Women in the informal sector: A global picture, the global movement”, in *SAIS Review* (2001), info.worldbank.org.

⁸⁴ M.K. Van Klaveren et al.: “An overview of women’s work and employment in Brazil”, in AIAS Working Paper (2009, Amsterdam), pp. 9–83.

⁸⁵ A. Bah; H. Goodwin: *Improving access for the informal sector to tourism in the Gambia*, PPT Working Paper series, 2003, No. 15.

⁸⁶ K. Shah: “Tourism, the poor and other stakeholders: Asian experience”, in *ODI Fair-Trade in Tourism Paper* (London, ODI, 2000).

Chakrabarti ⁸⁷ classifies informal employment to include

- Employees of informal enterprises;
- Casual or day labourers;
- Temporary or part-time workers;
- Paid domestic workers;
- Unregistered or undeclared workers;
- Industrial out workers (home workers).

Each of these categories is well represented within tourism and Chakrabarti concludes by noting that, in the Indian context:

Women are the bigger workforce of the informal economy as they are more likely than men to undertake “unpaid” activities, whether economic or non-economic, women are also more likely than men to be involved simultaneously in unpaid care work and in unpaid or low-paid economic activity. More generally, women are less likely than men to be engaged in full-time regular employment as “employees” in formal sector enterprises, which is the simplest form of work to capture in surveys. Often the work of women is unrecognized by society, their families and even themselves.

Likewise, in the HCT-focused economies of the Caribbean, gender divisions are also important in the context of the informal economy. In the case of Trinidad and Tobago, Sookram and Watson ⁸⁸ and Sookram et al. ⁸⁹ found that men tend to dominate in the “business” informal economy, whereas women tend to lead in the “household” informal economy, including HCT.

Similar evidence is forthcoming from sub-Saharan Africa. In Kenya, for example, “there are 360,000 people employed in the informal economy, many of whom are women selling handicrafts such as weaving and wooden carvings”. ⁹⁰ In the formal sector in Kenya, tourism employs 45,000 women. Although women entrepreneurs have been able to profit from the informal economy by selling crafts, weavings, and clothing to tourists, they are significantly less visible in larger and more profitable businesses. Chapman and Randall ⁹¹ highlight similar evidence in Rwanda with respect to women’s engagement in the informal economy in HCT.

⁸⁷ S. Chakrabarti: *Gender dimensions of the informal sector and informal employment in India*, paper to the Global Forum on Gender Statistics, Accra, Ghana , 26–28 January 2009.

⁸⁸ S. Sookram; P.K. Watson: “Small-business participation in the informal sector of an emerging economy”, in *Journal of Development Studies* (2008, 44(10)), pp. 1531–1553.

⁸⁹ S. Sookram; P.K. Watson; F. Schneider: “Characteristics of households in the informal sector of an emerging economy”, in *Applied Economics* (2009, 41(27)), pp. 3545–3559.

⁹⁰ M. Ikiana: *Vision and long-term strategy for Kenya’s tourism industry* (Nairobi, The Kenya Institute for Public Policy and Analysis, 2001).

⁹¹ J. Chapman; S. Randall: *Contribution of tourism to gender equality and women’s empowerment in the Great Lakes region*, Occasional Research Paper 7 (Kigali, Kigali Institute of Education Centre for Gender, Culture and Development, 2001).

3.8. Effect of the internationalization of business on women's employment in Mexico

Internationally or outward oriented industries tend to have high female participation in their workforces. In Mexico, 54 per cent in sector in Ciudad Juarez where assembly is dominant, and 57.5 per cent in services in Cancun, where international HCT is predominant are women.⁹² Women were also more often hired in hotels and restaurants in Cancun than in Ciudad Juarez, where there is little international HCT. They are overrepresented in Cancun in occupations such as service workers, clerical workers and sales clerks, and especially in domestic services: cleaning, laundry and bed-making (considered both as a low-rank and gendered occupations). Female-dominated occupations in Cancun, except for clerical workers, are the three lowest-paid occupational categories (housekeeping, service and front-office). Interestingly, in manufacturing, job prospects for women are better in assembly for global export than production for domestic purposes, where men dominate. Tamborini finds that existing literature is divided about whether this is a good thing or not: some suggest that HCT offers important employment opportunities for women in developing countries and contributes to their independence and empowerment, but others see that tourism is “inevitably exploitative”, bringing with it low-paid, low-skilled and seasonal work that does not contribute to wholesome and sustainable development.⁹³

Tamborini's findings indicate that export-oriented industries, both global assembly and international tourism brings income opportunities for women compared to the urban Mexican average. In HCT, these prospects are slightly poorer than in assembly and slightly poorer for women than men. The sector has also one special occupational category that remains low-paid: domestic services. This points out to the characteristics of HCT in general: it is a service sector with fairly little career prospects and training opportunities. Even though HCT does bring with it these kinds of possibilities, Tamborini found that income inequality is considerably lower in both Cancun and Ciudad Juarez than the overall urban Mexican average.

Tamborini argues that his study reveals the complexity of the factors affecting the impact of globalization on labour markets and gender. In contrast with pessimistic views of inherent market exploitation, it allows for multiple explanations to exist: some groups do better than others, and these groups can be partially defined by gender and other factors such as ethnicity. In more general terms, Tamborini notes that it is difficult to come to conclusions of absolute good or bad effects of globalization for women in developing countries. Rather, the results depend on the “type and mode” of industries and companies comprising the export-oriented sector. This leaves room for companies' individual practices and policies as well, and these will be examined in Part 4 of this paper.

3.9. Gender and the sexualization of labour in the HCT sector

In a developing world context,⁹⁴ there are well-documented arguments that the international HCT sector “constructs, commoditizes, and markets eroticized and deeply gendered images of non-European host societies that stress the passivity and enduring

⁹² Tamborini, 2007, p.34.

⁹³ Ibid., p. 30.

⁹⁴ Cabezas; L. Amalia: “The eroticization of labor in Cuba's all-inclusive resorts: Performing race, class, and gender in the new tourist economy”, in *Social Identities* (2006, 12(5)), pp. 507–521.

“otherness” of a country’s citizens”.⁹⁵ Sinclair⁹⁶ rightly argues that “the extreme case of sexualized conduct in tourism is that of prostitution tourism” which, of course, applies to both women and men but is more widely associated with the latter. Jeffreys⁹⁷ depicts the extent of prostitution tourism, particularly in Asian countries and highlights the industrialization of this work area, to the detriment of individual workers who, as a result, have substantially lost control over their working conditions, working hours and, indeed, of their own bodies. Mattar⁹⁸ points to the economic and employment significance of child sex tourism, noting that the sex tourism sector is not limited to providing economic benefits to families in poor nations, but that they extend to a range of other “actors”, including pimps, brothel owners, hotels, travel agencies, recruiters and local police. They all may reap economic benefits from the continuation of the sector.

However, the sexualization of work in HCT has a much wider presence, featuring strongly in the work of, among others, the services employees of cruise lines where, historically, workers were expected to adopt clearly stereotyped, sexualized roles in conformity with the expectations of some customer market segments.

3.10. Women and the pro-poor tourism agenda

The sector has demonstrated its potential for creating jobs and encouraging income-generating activities to benefit local communities in remote destination areas in less developed countries. The ILO’s toolkit⁹⁹ for the reduction of poverty through tourism highlights the opportunities that exist for both sexes in this regard. The HCT sector provides a wide range of entry points for women’s employment within micro-enterprises and larger businesses. Alongside, opportunities exist for creating self-employment in small and medium sized income generating activities, thus creating paths towards the elimination of poverty of women and local communities. However, there are a number of conditions under which this potential can be used more effectively. This requires collaboration of all stakeholders – governments and intergovernmental bodies, local government, sector, trade unions, local communities and their different member groups, NGOs, community based tourism initiatives, etc. Harnessing tourism’s potential whilst safeguarding natural environments and cultural heritages should be the goal of further tourism development, thereby also contributing to social and economic development.

⁹⁵ See, for example: L.A. Bolles: “Sand, Sea, and the Forbidden” in *Transforming Anthropology*. (1992, 3(1)), pp. 300–333; C. Enloe: *Bananas, beaches, and bases: Making feminist sense of international politics* (Berkeley: University of California Press, 1989); B. Mullings: “Globalization, tourism and the international sex trade” in K. Kempadoo (ed.), *Sun, sex, and gold: Tourism and sex work in the Caribbean*. (Lanham, Maryland: Rowman & Littlefield, 1999), pp. 55–80.

⁹⁶ T. Sinclair: “Issues and theories of gender and work in tourism”, in T. Sinclair (ed.): *Gender, work and tourism* (London: Routledge, 1997), pp. 5, 1–14.

⁹⁷ Jeffreys, S. 1999: “Globalizing sexual exploitation: sex tourism and the traffic in women”, in *Leisure Studies*, 18(3), pp. 179–196.

⁹⁸ M. Mattar: “Child sexual tourism: The appropriate legal response”, paper to the III Bilateral Conference, “Parallel Worlds” Child sexual tourism and other forms of trafficking, Tijuana – San Diego, 2003.

⁹⁹ ILO: *Toolkit on poverty reduction through tourism*, (Geneva, Sectoral Activities Department, ILO, 2011).

As illustrated in Table 3, women's participation in the HCT labour market varies across countries, even within the same region.

Table 3: Women in the workforce, 2009- Greater Mekong subregion (percentage)

| | Agriculture (%) | Tourism (%) | Non-agricultural work (%) |
|----------|-----------------|-------------|---------------------------|
| Cambodia | 53 | 54 | 44 |
| Laos | 54 | 50 | 50 |
| Thailand | 44 | 65 | 45 |
| Viet Nam | 52 | 70 | 40 |

Source: Extracted from Asian Development Bank (ADB) (Manila, 2009)

UNWTO ¹⁰⁰ highlights the potential for women in employment within a pro-poor tourism context.

Tourism can also help poor women break the poverty cycle through formal and informal employment, entrepreneurship, training, and community betterment. Not all women are benefitting equally from tourism development, however. In some cases, lack of education and resources may prevent the poorest women from benefitting from tourism development. While in some regions tourism helps empower women, in other regions, tourism negatively affects the lives of women and perpetuates existing economic and gender inequalities.

This analysis is supported in a study in the Lao People's Democratic Republic by the Lao National Tourism Administration and the ADB which also highlights important barriers faced by women in seeking to develop tourism businesses. Generally in the Lao People's Democratic Republic, women are extremely active in "handicraft production, food processing, small-scale trading and services, but have limited access to market information, technical training and credit." ¹⁰¹ The majority of small enterprises have little capital to invest in enterprise growth, particularly female entrepreneurs who run businesses for household maintenance. Other constraints are complicated lending procedures, villagers' fear of borrowing, and borrowers' lack of collateral. In one study, it was found that though 40 per cent of land was inherited from the wife's family, 58 per cent of land is registered into the husband's name, with only 16 per cent registered in the wife's name alone. Thus most women lack proper collateral and can obtain only very small loans, if at all. Furthermore, many traditionally view debt as shameful and are unfamiliar with credit for business expansion.

The Lao People's Democratic Republic study also highlights the added disadvantage faced by women from ethnic minorities in tourism. Women from ethnic groups are less likely to be involved in small-trading in urban areas, but are quite active in handicrafts for sale at major tourist attractions. They face more constraints in access to capital than Lao women as they are less likely to own land, be literate, or be able to travel to and communicate with banks and lenders. ¹⁰²

¹⁰⁰ UNWTO: *Global Report on Women in Tourism 2010* (Madrid, 2011).

¹⁰¹ CPC/ADB: *Northern region development strategy: Gender strategy (Draft)*, (2004), p. v.

¹⁰² Lao National Tourism Administration and the Asian Development Bank, study (2012), p.6.

Box 3
Case study: Mulberries

Mulberries is a not-for-profit company located in Xieng Khuang Province in the Lao People's Democratic Republic. Its products are sold to tourists in the country through shops at the main silk farm in Xieng Khuang Province and in Vientiane. Mulberries seeks to create income generating opportunities for Lao people in a socially and environmentally sustainable manner. The company aims to achieve this goal by encouraging the traditional community arts of silkworm rearing, reeling, weaving, and natural dyeing. It provides training, tools and a market for village people who wish to work towards a brighter future. The vast majority of the two hundred people who undertake training and work with Mulberries at any one time are women from villages throughout the Lao People's Democratic Republic.

4. A survey of international hotel and tourism companies

4.1. Methods

In order to explore current policy and practice with respect to gender issues and gender equality in tourism, a survey of major international hotel and tourism companies was conducted in 2012 in support of this report. With the assistance of the International Hotel and Restaurant Association (IHRA) and the World Travel and Tourism Council (WTTC), an on-line survey of member hotel and tourism companies was conducted to obtain insights into policies and organizational practice with respect to gender. A questionnaire was sent to CEOs and/or corporate HR directors, requesting completion and electronic return to the researcher. A total of 46 responses were received of which 45 were useable. In addition to key core information about gender policies and practice within the surveyed organizations, the questionnaire allowed respondents to elaborate in an open-ended format on a number of key questions and many did so in some detail.

The responding organizations were diverse in size, structure and headquarters location, as can be seen in Table 4.

Table 4: Organizations responding to the online Gender Survey of IHRA member hotel and tourism companies, 2012 (numbers)

| | Total | Employees | | | Countries of operation | | | Headquarters in | | | |
|--|-------|-----------|----------|------------|------------------------|-----|--------|-----------------|--------|------|-------|
| | | Up to 500 | 500–2000 | Over 2,000 | 1 | 2–5 | Over 5 | North America | Europe | Asia | Other |
| Mainly in hotel sub-sector | 41 | – | – | – | – | – | – | – | – | – | – |
| Mainly in tourism sub-sector | 5 | – | – | – | – | – | – | – | – | – | – |
| Single unit hotel/ restaurant | 1 | – | 1 | – | 1 | – | – | 1 | – | – | – |
| Multiples, chain operations | 42 | 1 | 6 | 35 | 4 | 4 | 34 | 7 | 28 | 4 | – |
| Other agencies (public sector, industry association) | 3 | N/A | N/A | N/A | 4 | – | – | 1 | 2 | 1 | 3 |

Source: Responses to the IHRA online survey of CEOs and/or corporate HR directors.

In order to obtain elaboration of the key themes from the global survey, an intensive focus group with a cross-section of sector professionals was held – as a means of exploring routes forward for the hotel sub-sector in aspiring to gender equality – in May 2012 in Glasgow, Scotland. The eight participants currently work in four countries – France, Turkey, United Kingdom and United States – and represent global, regional and local businesses. They also occupy a range of roles including CEO of a regional hotel chain, regional VP of global businesses, regional operations director, corporate development VP, senior executive team member within a global chain unit and CEO and owner of a small business. Two participants in this focus group were women.

4.2. Findings from the international survey

The responses are not necessarily representative of a very complex global sector but are sufficient to give a good flavour of key issues faced by businesses with respect to gender-related policy and practice. Almost all respondents reported that maximizing the

skills and talents of all their employees, irrespective of sex, was a matter of company policy and practice.

Responding companies located in Asia and in Latin America reported employing the lowest proportion of women. In some countries such as India, those employed tended to be at supervisory and middle management and not operational levels. By contrast, in other parts of the world, companies reported that women predominate in the ranks of lower skills and customer-facing roles while being under-represented at management levels.

Those responding to the survey were asked whether their companies had specific policies in place to promote gender equality and opportunity. Thirty-two out of the 46 (or 70 per cent) reported the existence of such formal policies, ranging from a general commitment within company employment commitments to very specific and detailed articulation of the processes and procedures in place to achieve equality and enhance opportunity. All companies stopped short of specifically promoting gender affirmative action policies but three respondents reported running specific development programmes designed to encourage/support women seeking promotion to senior unit or corporate management posts.

The survey asked whether companies promoted opportunities for transnational mobility within the company specifically or inclusively for women. Of those that operated in more than one country, Table 5 shows the responses by position.

Table 5: Transnational mobility options promoted to women by level of position, 2012 (percentage)

| | Yes (%) | No (%) |
|-------------------------------|---------|--------|
| Senior management | 80 | 20 |
| Middle management | 89 | 11 |
| Management trainees | 100 | 0 |
| Junior management/supervisors | 54 | 46 |
| Technical staff (chefs) | 46 | 54 |
| Front-line operational staff | 32 | 68 |
| Corporate office personnel | 54 | 46 |
| Other staff | 16 | 84 |

Source: IHRA survey responses

These findings suggest that hotel companies, in themselves, have the opportunity to act as stimulants of intra-organizational mobility for women, facilitating this on the basis of both corporate requirements and in support of individual career aspirations and growth. What is less clear is the extent to which such mobility actually takes place on the back of promotional efforts by companies since record keeping in this regard seems to be limited. As has already been noted, mobility at managerial and senior technical levels has a well-established tradition within the sector but would appear to be predominantly a male prerogative. Similar voluntary and developmental movement within the lower or unskilled workforce by women is probably relatively uncommon.

Information on workforce composition held by hotel companies is varied in its quality and depth. Most of the responding organizations reported that they did have reliable information on gender balance. Smaller, independent operators were rather less likely to hold this information in comprehensive format. Larger organizations were aware of the extent to which the packaging of senior vacancies tended to attract a majority of male applicants.

The survey enquired into the reasons why hotel companies employ female workers and the responses, predictably, were varied and, possibly contradictory. These responses are shown in Table 6.

Table 6: Reasons for employing female workers, 2012 (percentage)

| Stated reason | Companies responding yes (%) |
|---|------------------------------|
| Absence of men with suitable skills in the local labour market | 9 |
| Female workers are cheaper to employ than male workers | 11 |
| Female workers are more reliable and committed to their work | 41 |
| Company policy is to employ the best workers, irrespective of sex | 93 |
| Company is committed to socially responsible employment practices | 87 |
| Women have less expectations for promotion | 34 |
| Other reasons | 52 |
| Source: IHRA survey responses | |

These data indicate the diverse motivational reasons why hotel companies seek gender balance in their workforce. There is a combination of what might be described as positive and negative motivations behind such employment, reflecting economic, skills, organizational and ethical considerations.

Furthermore, hotels are increasingly accommodating the needs of female business travellers. There is also recognition that more women are taking the decisions related to leisure and family travel. Some hotel chains are developing programmes aimed at improving their services so as to enhance the stay of women travellers.¹⁰³ Having well-trained female employees will contribute to the tailored experiences of the rising numbers of women travellers.

Respondents were asked to review a series of statements about women and their current and future role within the international hotel sector. The outcomes of this aspect of the study are reported in table 7.

Table 7: The current and future role of female workers in the hotel industry, 2012 (percentage)¹⁰⁴

| Statement | Agree (%) | Disagree (%) | Neutral (%) |
|--|-----------|--------------|-------------|
| The use of women labour in the international hotel industry is likely to increase over the next 10 years | 64 | 27 | 9 |
| There is political pressure to increase the use of women in the hotel industry | 32 | 54 | 14 |
| The presence of female workers improves the quality of our overall workforce | 79 | 5 | 16 |
| Female workers create problems in the workforce | 9 | 83 | 8 |

¹⁰³ D. Carrington: "What women want: Hotels look to cater for more female business travellers", in *CNN Business Traveller* (2013), <http://edition.cnn.com/2013/03/06/travel/business-travel-women-hotels/index.html> [accessed 12 March 2013].

¹⁰⁴ In analysing responses, "strongly agree" and "agree" were combined as were "strongly disagree" and "disagree" (figures rounded).

| Statement | Agree (%) | Disagree (%) | Neutral (%) |
|---|-----------|--------------|-------------|
| Women greatly improve the talent pool from which we can recruit internationally | 85 | 4 | 11 |
| Female workers are frequently better qualified than male workers available in the local community | 35 | 27 | 38 |
| Demographic pressure in many countries will force an increase in the employment of female labour in the hotel industry | 68 | 12 | 20 |
| The hotel industry provides great employment opportunities for women | 79 | 2 | 19 |
| Employing female workers is unacceptable on social and political grounds | 0 | 87 | 13 |
| Female workers are popular with our customers | 91 | 0 | 9 |
| Female workers can cause tensions in the workplace | 17 | 68 | 15 |
| The company has a strategy to increase the number of female workers in its hotels | 45 | 22 | 33 |
| Hotel companies need to plan their employment strategies for the future in the light of changing demographic structures within host communities | 32 | 17 | 51 |
| Female workers should be confined to unskilled positions in hotels | 6 | 82 | 12 |

Source: IHRA survey responses

This opinion survey demonstrates varying perceptions of the role of women within the international hotel industry workforce. Overall, perspectives are positive with respect to the contribution which women can and do within the industry.

What is clear is that major international hotel chains, at a corporate level, have articulated policies which are designed to ensure equal opportunities in terms of recruitment, development and promotion, irrespective of gender. What is also clear is that such policies are less prevalent in regional companies, particularly those located outside of Europe and North America and within stand-alone businesses. Equally evident from detail provided within the responses is that the ownership factors influence the extent to which equal opportunities policies can be and are implemented within individual properties. In other words, owners have an increasing voice in senior appointments within hotels and may exercise influence and/or vetoes in the appointment of women to such positions, even where such action may be contrary to company policy.

4.3. Findings from the focus group

The responses from the focus group represented both realism and recognition that a failure to overcome gender inequality in the global hotel industry represents a major waste of a potential talent. Given the diverse sectoral backgrounds that the participants represented, issues and themes which emerged ranged over a wide spectrum but added greater depth to the outcomes of the industry survey.

Key points raised by respondents included:

- Some areas of work in the sector remain culturally hostile to female staff and management appear reluctant to make compromises to their behaviour and attitudes in order to make access easier for women. Areas identified in this regard by respondents were hotel kitchens, technical departments such as engineering and security and corporate boardrooms.

-
- Pressures and demands of managing two career families (an increasing necessity in many countries) generally leads to male (or partner) bias in decision-making so that, for many women, career choice and decision-making are subjugated to those of their partner, mostly male. This results in significant talent loss of those with potential in the sector.
 - Decisions relating to children and child care responsibilities present the single most important barrier to women's career and developmental progression within the hotel industries of many countries. Personal and lifestyle choices made by women frequently put family before career, at least in the short-medium term.
 - In some other countries, traditional cultural, religious and family values continue to influence women's career opportunities, particularly after marriage.
 - Respondents recognised that taking responsibility for childcare provision within businesses is one measure which can be taken to make a significant difference to women and their likelihood to remain within the organization. However, the cost of such provision and the challenge of justifying this to owners in financial terms is a barrier which respondents felt would be difficult to surmount. It should be mentioned that such measures would benefit male employees with children as well.
 - Within larger hotel brands, brand ownership and operational management are becoming increasingly detached through various forms of management arrangements and franchises. As a consequence, ROI-focused owners are driving spending decisions to the detriment of longer term career investment decisions. This particularly affects women seeking flexibility in their career management arrangements.
 - Legislated entitlements to maternity and paternity give women (and their partners) considerable flexibility in their early years of parenthood. For example, in most Scandinavian countries, up to three years of shared maternity and paternity leave is offered. In fast a moving sector and consumer environment, this could create challenges for companies to keep positions open and to re-assimilate employees into a workplace that has changed significantly.
 - Unless there are specific, state-driven measures to support the increased participation and retention of women in the hotel and tourism workforce (such as those successfully implemented in Singapore over an extended timeframe), employers will generally look to alternative sources of labour instead of accommodating the working flexibility that women may be looking for.
 - Micro and small businesses in the tourism and hospitality sector remain wary of the potential organizational consequences of employing women of child-bearing age in positions. Older female workers, whether new entrants to the sector or returnees, are relegated primarily to areas such as housekeeping. Respondents did not see them playing a major role either in front-of-house or career-path roles so long as alternative sources of recruitment were available.

5. Employment trends for women in HCT

5.1. A global overview

Table 8 ranks 68 countries in order from that with the lowest proportion of women employed in the sector to the highest. As is clearly visible from the table, the countries with the lowest female participation in tourism employment are situated in North Africa or the Middle East. Cultural and religious aspects strongly affect overall access to employment, which is also reflected at a sectoral level.

Table 8: Countries or areas from smallest to highest share of women in tourism employment, 2008 (numbers and percentage) ¹⁰⁵

| Country or area | Total | Women | % | Country or area | Total | Women | % |
|--------------------------------|-----------|-----------|------|---------------------|-----------|-----------|------|
| Saudi Arabia | 252 206 | 3 682 | 1.5 | Spain | 1 452 569 | 812 060 | 55.9 |
| Egypt | 462 000 | 11 000 | 2.4 | Sweden | 148 000 | 83 000 | 56.1 |
| Iraq | 62 621 | 2 272 | 3.6 | Switzerland | 257 000 | 146 000 | 56.8 |
| Occupied Palestinian Territory | 19 599 | 851 | 4.3 | Germany | 1 459 000 | 844 000 | 57.8 |
| Iran, Islamic Republic of | 211 000 | 17 000 | 8.1 | Ireland | 128 600 | 74 700 | 58.1 |
| United Arab Emirates | 72 459 | 8 605 | 11.9 | Costa Rica | 100 309 | 58 573 | 58.4 |
| Turkey | 998 000 | 148 000 | 14.8 | Mexico | 2 836 735 | 1 659 300 | 58.5 |
| Macedonia, FYR | 19 117 | 6 373 | 33.3 | Japan | 3 340 000 | 1 980 000 | 59.3 |
| Mauritius | 37 100 | 12 500 | 33.7 | Canada | 1 073 500 | 640 400 | 59.7 |
| Malta | 13 260 | 5 348 | 40.3 | Bahamas | 27 225 | 16 250 | 59.7 |
| Israel | 129 924 | 54 749 | 42.1 | Antigua and Barbuda | 5 783 | 3 455 | 59.7 |
| Greece | 325 465 | 149 361 | 45.9 | Portugal | 319 400 | 191 400 | 59.9 |
| Serbia | 83 866 | 39 243 | 46.8 | Slovakia | 107 600 | 64 600 | 60 |
| France | 870 500 | 413 800 | 47.5 | New Zealand | 101 000 | 60 700 | 60.1 |
| Malaysia | 783 600 | 380 200 | 48.5 | Panama | 70 800 | 43 100 | 60.9 |
| Belgium | 141 948 | 69 554 | 49 | Slovenia | 41 000 | 25 000 | 61 |
| Azerbaijan | 23 400 | 11 700 | 50 | San Marino | 218 | 133 | 61 |
| Italy | 1 179 431 | 593 453 | 50.3 | Saint Helena | 36 | 23 | 63.9 |
| China, Macau | 41 300 | 20 800 | 50.4 | Bulgaria | 168 800 | 108 300 | 64.2 |
| Cayman Islands | 4 300 | 2 192 | 51 | Austria | 251 086 | 161 603 | 64.4 |
| Cyprus | 25 739 | 13 253 | 51.5 | Thailand | 2353 200 | 1 530 400 | 65 |
| Netherlands | 337 000 | 178 000 | 52.8 | Romania | 154 200 | 100 600 | 65.2 |
| Croatia | 89 100 | 47 100 | 52.9 | Mongolia | 34 500 | 22 616 | 65.6 |
| Denmark | 81 988 | 43 409 | 52.9 | Norway | 68 000 | 45 000 | 66.2 |
| United States | 9 795 000 | 5 203 000 | 53.1 | Korea, Republic of | 2 044 000 | 1 396 000 | 68.3 |
| Armenia | 12 400 | 6 600 | 53.2 | Poland | 307 000 | 210 000 | 68.4 |
| United Kingdom | 1 283 000 | 688 000 | 53.6 | Kazakhstan | 103 100 | 71 300 | 69.2 |

¹⁰⁵ All countries with information on both total employment and women's employment for 2008 are included in the list.

| Country or area | Total | Women | % | Country or area | Total | Women | % |
|-----------------|-----------|-----------|------|----------------------|-----------|-----------|------|
| Philippines | 953 000 | 518 000 | 54.4 | Finland | 88 934 | 65 977 | 74.2 |
| Czech Republic | 176 907 | 96 222 | 54.4 | Moldova, Republic of | 21 200 | 15 800 | 74.5 |
| Iceland | 6 400 | 3 500 | 54.7 | Peru | 730 183 | 557 435 | 76.3 |
| Singapore | 120 000 | 66 400 | 55.3 | Estonia | 24 200 | 19 100 | 78.9 |
| Hungary | 157 200 | 87 600 | 55.7 | Russian Federation | 1 467 000 | 1 160 000 | 79.1 |
| Indonesia | 4 069 000 | 2 271 000 | 55.8 | Latvia | 30 421 | 25 013 | 82.2 |
| Australia | 708 328 | 395 662 | 55.9 | Lithuania | 38 889 | 33 301 | 85.6 |

Source: ILO Laborsta Database

Globally, the overall percentage of women's participation in the tourism labour force is 55.5 per cent. Compared to figures reported previously by the ILO¹⁰⁶ and regional figures that can be as high as 70 per cent, this appears to be a low figure. It is skewed because of the few countries with extremely low participation by women. Regional analyses may give a more enlightening picture of the issue than a global average.

Recent economic turbulence and decline has had significant impacts on tourism employment in some regions of the world. UNWTO and ILO¹⁰⁷ report the following:

Employment in tourism was less impacted and tended to recover quicker than in other economic sectors according to data on employment in hotels and restaurants. By region, employment declines in hotels and restaurants were limited to advanced economies in Europe and the Americas. Employment growth rates in hotels and restaurants in emerging economies were actually positive during the crisis while in advanced economies, although negative, the decline was weaker than in other sectors.

The report, however, does not distinguish the impacts of recession on the employment of women except in terms of specific locations, notably Costa Rica, where job losses were significantly skewed against women.

5.2. Europe

5.2.1. Employment

According to the Eurostat Labour Force Survey, in the EU overall economy the share of men and women in employment is roughly 55–45, whereas in the accommodation and restaurant sector, it is vice versa, roughly 45–55. In Switzerland and Norway, the sex distribution of the sector more closely reminds studies stating that women are overrepresented HCT sector: in these two countries, the ratio is roughly 40–60. Turkey is an interesting point of comparison, because there the trend is adverse and roughly 85 per cent of tourism workers are men and 15 per cent women, in the youngest age group the share of women being the smallest.¹⁰⁸

¹⁰⁶ ILO Laborsta, <http://laborsta.ilo.org/>.

¹⁰⁷ UNWTO–ILO: *Economic crisis, tourism decline and its impact on the poor*, 2010, <http://www.unglobalpulse.org/projects/rivaf-research-economic-crisis-tourism-decline-and-its-impact-poor> [accessed 28 May 2012].

¹⁰⁸ Data is based on European Labour Force Survey (LFS), Appendices I and II.

Separated in age groups, there are no major differences in the above mentioned distribution in the EU. In the EU-15,¹⁰⁹ the share of men is slightly higher than in EU-27,¹¹⁰ referring perhaps to more skilled work in the sector in the most economically developed part of the EU. In Norway and in Switzerland especially in the youngest age group (15–24), the amount of women was clearly higher than men, the distribution being on average 30 per cent of men and 70 per cent of women. In the other age groups the ratio is close to 40–60 as stated above. This may be due to the large amount of work in the HCT sector by young part-time, non-professional workers who are still in education or looking for a job in another sector.

Eurostat data permits the examination of length of service and its impact on women's and men's share of employment. The data is disaggregated very roughly for length of service under three months and three months or over. Yet, a general trend can be detected, according to which there are relatively more women than men whose service has lasted less than three months. In the EU-27, in the category "less than three months", there were from 23 to 29 per cent more women than men during 2008–2010, whereas in the category "three months or more", the relative difference was smaller and there were (only) from 17 to 19 per cent more women than men. The same trend applies to the overall economy, too. The reasons for this are hard to detect, but the general pattern of women being more often in temporary contracts may relate to staying in the service of same employer for a shorter time. For Norway, Switzerland and Turkey, there is no comprehensive data on length of service.

In HCT, more women are temporarily employed than in the overall economy. In part this reflects seasonality. It applies to EU-27, EU-15 and Switzerland, where the distribution of temporary employees by sex in the overall economy is close to 50–50. Around 60 per cent of temporary employees are women. When comparing the amount of temporary employees to all employees in HCT, women are again more often temporarily employed than men. The average percentage of both men and women workers in temporary contracts in both EU-27 and EU-15 is around 18 per cent, whereas for men it is around 16 per cent and for women around 19 per cent. Interestingly, for Switzerland, the trend is contrary to the EU and a higher percentage of men working in HCT are temporarily employed than women (14 and 13 per cent respectively). In Turkey, where the share of women working in HCT is small, women are still more often temporarily employed than men.¹¹¹

When looking at the reasons for temporary employment in the overall economy, the main reason given by both men and women is not having found a permanent job (on average 62 per cent mentioned this as their main reason). Women stated not finding permanent employment as their reason slightly more often than men (63 and 60 per cent). Women also more often did not want permanent jobs. On the contrary, men were more often in education and therefore worked on a temporary basis and more men than women were on probation period. However, a significant majority of both men and women wished to work on a permanent contract but would not do so. This confirms previous findings on the HCT sector and its working conditions: temporary contracts are often a feature that employees do not choose or wish to obtain but are forced to due to the nature of the sector, making it a less attractive sector to work in.

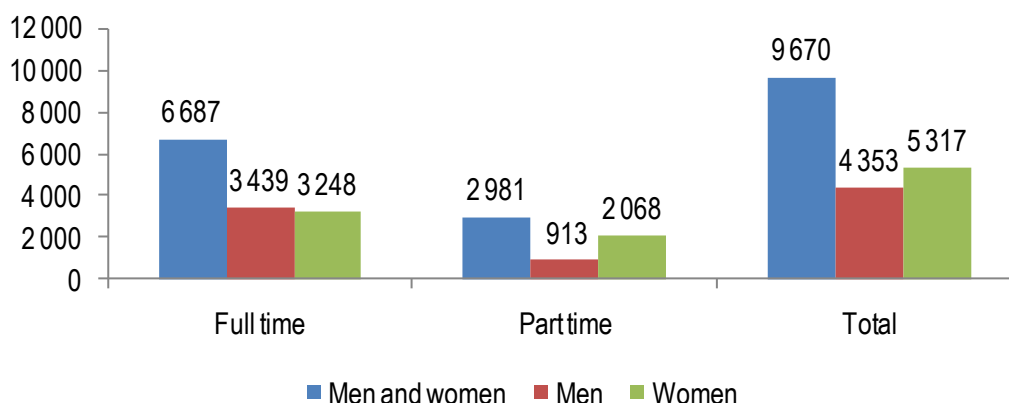
¹⁰⁹ Austria, Belgium, Denmark, Finland, France, Germany, Greece, Ireland, Italy, Luxembourg, Netherlands, Portugal, Spain, Sweden and United Kingdom.

¹¹⁰ Austria, Belgium, Bulgaria, Czech Republic, Cyprus, Denmark, Estonia, Finland, France, Germany, Greece, Hungary, Ireland, Italy, Latvia, Lithuania, Luxembourg, Malta, Netherlands, Poland, Portugal, Romania, Slovakia, Slovenia, Spain, Sweden and United Kingdom.

¹¹¹ Figures for 2010.

The prevalence of part-time work is, of course, also greatly influenced by the seasonal nature of tourism in many parts of Europe¹¹² particularly in areas far from major urban centres. Extreme seasonality is found in both the north and the south of Europe and some operations can only offer relatively brief employment opportunities during short summer or winter seasons. In highly seasonal destinations in Europe, women are more likely to constitute dispensable ‘reserve army of labour’ in the off season, with men retaining the limited number of permanent, sustainable employment opportunities that may be available.¹¹³ Below, part-time work by sex is examined, but it cannot be broken down by age groups to confirm this assumption.

Figure 4: Employed persons by sex and full-time/part-time activity in accommodation and food service activities, EU-27, 2011 (thousands)



Source: Eurostat, Labour Force Survey, Category “Tourism employment”

In the EU-27, women clearly do more part-time work than men (see Figure 4). The reasons for part-time employment confirm the results of previous gender research on labour markets. Women work part time mainly because they are occupied with care responsibilities or other family or personal responsibilities. Men work part-time mainly because they have not found full-time jobs or because they are in education or training, a similar pattern as with temporary employment. A rough conclusion could be made by saying that women choose to work part-time (for example, as a consequence of the lack of adequate child-care facilities) and men work part-time because of necessity or because they are accumulating human capital in order to be employed full-time one day. Jordan and Muñoz-Bullón’s finding – that women do not invest in their own human capital because they are less aware of the benefits – is also partly confirmed by this data. These findings do not only represent the tourism segment but the entire HCT sector. It is not certain, that for example the components representing those who are in education or training or “other reasons”, which can here be interpreted as those who did not want a full-time job, are similar in the HCT sector. This is due to the nature of the sector as an entry point to the labour market for employees with diverse backgrounds and different career aspirations.

¹¹² T. Baum; S. Lundtorp: *Seasonality in tourism* (London, Elsevier, 2000).

¹¹³ T. Baum: “Tourism and Cold Water Islands of the North Atlantic”, in G. Baldacchino; R. Greenwood and M. Shrimpton (eds): *A political economy for small islands: Lessons from the edge of the north Atlantic* (London: Macmillan, 1999).

Kara et al.'s ¹¹⁴ findings highlight significant differences in workplace satisfaction indicators in a Turkish hospitality context. They found that “male employees are motivated more by extrinsic factors and female employees are motivated more by intrinsic factors. Their source of job satisfaction stem from the degree of personal needs and expectations”. Pinar et al.'s ¹¹⁵ study also highlights gender discrimination tendencies in hospitality and tourism in Turkey and draw conclusions which link gender differences in both pay and status within the industry to traditional social roles. They also speculate that, with the modernization of Turkish society, such gender gaps are likely to decrease as the country and its HCT businesses seek to maximise its utilization of talent and skills at all levels.

Figure 5: Self-employed persons in accommodation and food service activities, EU-27, 2010 (thousands)



Source: Eurostat, Labour Force Survey

Figure 5 illustrates that in accommodation and food service activities in the EU, men are more often entrepreneurs than women. This pattern is similar to self-employment patterns in the overall economy. Altogether, there are more self-employed persons with employees, that is, employers, than self-employed persons working on their own account. Men are also more likely to act as employers. For women, the amount of self-employed persons is roughly the same, even little higher, for own-account workers.

¹¹⁴ D. Kara; M. Uysal; V. Magnini: “Gender differences on job satisfaction of the five-star hotel employees: The case of the Turkish hotel industry”, in *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management* (2012, 24(7)), pp. 1059, 1047–1065.

¹¹⁵ M. Pinar et al.: “Gender diversity in the hospitality industry: An empirical study in Turkey”, in *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, (2011, 30(1)), pp. 73–81.

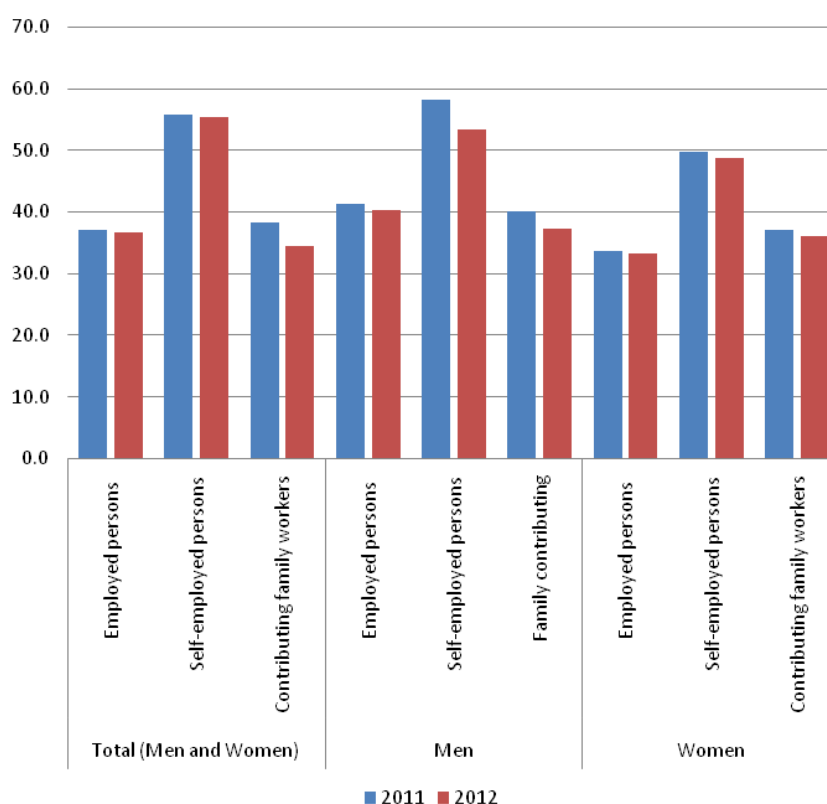
5.2.2. Unemployment

The EU currently faces levels of economic downturn unprecedented in the modern era. The impact of this on employment is of real consequence in the context of gender equality. The European Commission ¹¹⁶ highlights concerns in this regard. It is feared that the achievements in gender equality are at risk and that the effects of the recession will put greater pressure on women. The downturn could be used as a reason to limit or cut gender equality measures, and analysis of national responses to the crisis confirms this risk. However, these times of crisis offer a unique opportunity for change, given that gender equality is a precondition for sustainable growth, employment, competitiveness and social cohesion. Policy makers have the opportunity to implement policies to make the labour market and society more gender-equal in the future.

Interestingly, the evidence presented by the European Commission highlights greater increases in male unemployment across the 27 Member States than is the case with women. This is explained on the basis of decline within heavy sectors within the 2008–10 timeframe.

5.2.3. Working hours

Figure 6: Average number of actual weekly hours of work in accommodation and food service activities, by sex, EU-27, 2011–12 ¹¹⁷



Source: Eurostat, Labour Force Survey

¹¹⁶ European Commission: *Report on equality between women and men* (Luxembourg, Publications Office of the EU, 2010).

¹¹⁷ The average is based on the data for Q1–Q3 2011 and 2012. The data includes full-time and part-time work.

Figure 6 shows that men generally work more hours than women. This is true for all three categories of employed persons, self-employed persons and contributing family workers. Interestingly, in the categories “self-employed” and “employed” persons, the gap between men and women is bigger than for in the category “contributing family workers”. There are several conclusions that can be drawn: first, the fact that men clock more hours may refer to women’s larger responsibilities outside work life as well as to the fact that men work more often in managerial posts where long days and a larger commitment to work are required. This may imply that sex segregation comes into the picture most clearly through vertical segregation between managerial and supervisory work for men, and care, service, household and clerical work for women.

5.2.4. Earnings ¹¹⁸

Table 9: Gender pay gap in overall economy, and accommodation and food services, EU-27 plus Norway and Switzerland, 2011 (percentage)

| Country | All sectors | Accommodation and food services |
|-------------------|-------------|---------------------------------|
| EU (27 countries) | 16.2 | 14.7* |
| Norway | 15.9 | 9.2 |
| Switzerland | 17.9 | 8.4 |

* Data for Austria, Greece, Ireland and Italy was not available.

Source: Eurostat gender pay gap statistics in unadjusted form in per cent – NACE Rev. 2, (Structure of earnings survey methodology).

Table 9 illustrates that in 2011 the gender pay gap was smaller in accommodation and food services than in the overall economy.

How is this distribution reflected in earnings? The overall average wage difference in the EU-27 is 18.2 per cent more for men than women. The difference is largest for professionals (37.8 per cent) and craft workers (26.1 per cent). It is hard to say what kind of posts these employees hold within the HCT sector. However, these are the sectors where there were relatively more men than in other occupations. For managers, the wage difference is around the same as the overall average, perhaps deriving from the fairly even distribution of men and women in these posts. Clerks, a female-dominated occupational category, show the smallest difference in earnings of only 3.4 per cent, except for a negative difference for plant and machine operators (-2.5 per cent), which again is a category where there are more men than women. Male service workers earn 16.9 per cent more than women in this female-dominated category. Thus, female or male domination does not correlate linearly to greater or smaller differences in earnings in the hotel and restaurant sector. In the Euro area, the pattern is similar but all differences in earnings are smaller, on average 13.7 per cent. ¹¹⁹

¹¹⁸ Data is based on Eurostat Structure of earnings survey (SES).

¹¹⁹ Eurostat data for 2006. The last category is combined from two categories: unknown and armed forces. There, too, wage differences are large, but only one country reported having armed forces occupations in the hotels and restaurants industry, and the data is thus not reliable for assessing wage differences. Overall, it is difficult to assess which posts in the tourism industry could belong to either of these categories, thus it is left out of the analysis.

5.3. Latin America and the Caribbean

5.3.1. Employment

In Latin America and the Caribbean, the number of women in hotels and restaurants differs greatly and is influenced by a variety of factors including the nature and structure of the HCT sector in each country as well as cultural, economic and political traditions in the countries concerned. In Latin America, as illustrated in table 10, female participation in hotels and restaurants is highest in Bolivia and Peru and lowest in Brazil. These data do not give a clear indication of the roles which men and women play in the sector in the region.

Table 10: Total employment in hotels and restaurants in selected Latin American and Caribbean countries, 2008, by sex (thousands and percentage)

| | Total (thousand) | Women (thousand) | Men (thousand) | % of women |
|---------------------|------------------|------------------|----------------|------------|
| Antigua and Barbuda | 5.8 | 3.5 | 2.3 | 59.7 |
| Bahamas | 27.2 | 16.3 | 11.0 | 59.7 |
| Bolivia* | 159.3 | 125.5 | 33.8 | 78.8 |
| Brazil* | 3351.0 | 1736 | 1615.0 | 51.8 |
| Costa Rica | 100.3 | 58.6 | 41.7 | 58.4 |
| Dominican Republic* | 222.3 | 117.8 | 104.5 | 53.0 |
| Ecuador** | 225.4 | 140.1 | 85.3 | 62.2 |
| Mexico | 2836.7 | 1659.3 | 1177.4 | 58.5 |
| Peru | 730.2 | 557.4 | 172.7 | 76.3 |

*Data from 2007. **Data from 2006.

Source: ILO Laborsta, Labour force survey. Countries are selected based on data availability.

For services workers overall, the share of employment is evenly distributed in this region. In all manager occupations, men dominate. Similarly, most bartenders and sommeliers are men, as are taxi drivers and private drivers. For receptionists, travel clerks and ticket clerks, women are the majority. Women also are the majority in chambermaids and cleaners, except for pot cleaners and dishwashers, where there is a clear majority in men. There is no significant difference between men and women for cooks, waiters and sightseeing guides.

5.3.2. Unemployment

Table 11 indicates that compared to unemployment in the overall economy, in wholesale and retail trade, and restaurants and hotels, women represent a larger share of the unemployed persons. This reflects the overall larger amount of women working in wholesale and retail trade, and restaurants and hotels, compared to the overall economy.

Table 11: Unemployment in wholesale and retail trade and restaurants and hotels, in selected Latin American and Caribbean countries and areas, 2008,
(thousands and percentage)

| | Wholesale and retail trade, and restaurants and hotels | | | | Overall economy | | | |
|---------------------|--|---------------------|-------------------|---------------|---------------------|---------------------|-------------------|---------------|
| | Total (thousand) | Women (thousand) | Men (thousand) | % of women | Total (thousand) | Women (thousand) | Men (thousand) | % of women |
| Bahamas* | 5.31 | 3.85 | 1.46 | 72.5 | 14.61 | 8.17 | 6.44 | 55.9 |
| Chile | 108.40 | 57.60 | 50.80 | 53.1 | 544.70 | 238.00 | 306.70 | 43.7 |
| Jamaica | 36.70 | 28.60 | 8.10 | 77.9 | 134.60 | 81.80 | 52.80 | 60.8 |
| Puerto Rico** | 34.00 | 17.00 | 17.00 | 50.0 | 158.00 | 60.00 | 97.00 | 38.0 |
| Trinidad and Tobago | 5.70 | 4.30 | 1.40 | 75.4 | 29.00 | 16.10 | 12.8 | 55.5 |

*Data from 2007. ** Excluding hotels.

Source: ILO Laborsta, Labour force survey Countries are selected based on data availability.

5.3.3. Working hours

Table 12: Working hours in hotels and restaurants in selected Latin American and Caribbean countries, 2005, (hours per week)

| Country | Total | Men | Women |
|--------------------|-------|------|-------|
| Argentina | 45.2 | 46.8 | 40.0 |
| Bermuda | 35.0 | 38.0 | 30.0 |
| Bolivia | 46.0 | 55.1 | 43.4 |
| Brazil | 44.9 | 45.5 | 44.3 |
| Chile | 43.6 | 45.3 | 41.7 |
| Costa Rica | 46.8 | 52.1 | 42.8 |
| Dominican Republic | 40.9 | 43.9 | 37.8 |
| Ecuador | 46.1 | 50.0 | 43.7 |
| Mexico | 46.5 | 46.5 | 44.9 |
| Panama | 44.6 | 45.4 | 43.9 |
| Average | 44.0 | 46.9 | 41.3 |

Source: ILO Laborsta

The trend that women work less hours prevails in general in Latin America as well. In Brazil, Mexico and Panama, working hours are roughly the same for men and women. If looking at the employment figures of these countries in Table 12 above, we can see that these countries have a fairly equal distribution of men and women in tourism employment.

In Brazil, working time in the overall economy diminished between 2002 and 2007 by 0.9 hours or 2.1 per cent. This affected more men's working time (2.7 per cent) than women's (1.3 per cent). The frequency with which reduced hours were found was above average or average in industries with long hours, like in agriculture, fishing, construction and transport etc. The average working weeks of women were notably long in manufacturing (42.3 hours), wholesale and retail (43.2 hours), and restaurants and hotels (43.7 hours). In terms of wages, evidence from Bermuda points to a narrowing of the gap between men and women over the timeframe 2005–07.

Table 13: Earnings per month in Bermuda, 2005–07 (US dollars)

| | Earnings per month (US\$) | | |
|----------------|---------------------------|--------------|-------------|
| | 2005 | 2006 | 2007 |
| Total | 2 623 | 2 787 | 2 746 |
| Men | 2 744 | 2 942 | 2 862 |
| Women | 2 450 | 2 573 | 2 607 |
| Pay gap | 10.7% | 12.5% | 8.9% |

Source: ILO Laborsta. Countries selected based on data availability

5.4. Asia

5.4.1. Employment

Data on the breakdown of HCT employment in selected Asian countries shows significant variation across the various identified sub-sectors, with core HCT employment generally female dominated. Table 14 highlights the employment structure of selected sub-sectors of the HCT sector in China, Hong Kong (China), the Republic of Korea and Thailand. This illustrates the challenge in drawing definitive conclusions with respect to opportunities for women in HCT, although in the selected, relatively developed countries, female participation rates in the HCT workplace are relatively high in most instances. It is unlikely that such gender balance will be found across all countries and regions of Asia.

Table 14: Occupational segregation in tourism in selected Asian countries or areas, circa 2005

| Country or area | Occupational category | Total | Men | Women | % women |
|--------------------------|---|-----------|-----------|-----------|---------|
| China | Catering services personnel | 8 224 950 | 3 922 160 | 4 302 790 | 52.3 |
| | Hotel, tourism, fitness and entertainment staff | 2 548 400 | 753 520 | 1 794 880 | 70.4 |
| | Transportation services personnel | 2 528 090 | 1 693 340 | 834 750 | 33.0 |
| Hong Kong, China | Travel attendants and guides | 12 895 | 5 248 | 7 647 | 59.3 |
| | Housekeeping & restaurant services workers | 162 790 | 99 026 | 63 764 | 39.2 |
| | Drivers | 166 643 | 161 962 | 4 681 | 2.8 |
| Republic of Korea | Cooks and foods services workers | 1 153 272 | 335 048 | 818 224 | 70.9 |
| | Cooks | 682 743 | 185 921 | 496 822 | 72.8 |
| | Food service related workers | 470 529 | 149 127 | 321 402 | 68.3 |
| | Travel attendants and related workers | 18 452 | 9 103 | 9 349 | 50.7 |
| | Transport attendant workers | 9 932 | 5 203 | 4 729 | 47.6 |
| | Tour guides | 8 520 | 3 900 | 4 620 | 54.2 |
| Thailand | Travel attendants and related workers | 40 590 | 19 952 | 20 638 | 50.8 |
| | Housekeeping and restaurant services workers | 192 583 | 71 680 | 120 903 | 62.8 |

Source: Extracted by the author from a number of published and unpublished sources

More recent data from Hong Kong, China reinforce this picture, as noted in Table 15, while showing indications of more equal gender balance.

Table 15: Employment in tourism in Hong Kong, China, by sex, September 2012 (percentage)

| | Men (%) | Women (%) |
|--|---------|-----------|
| Accommodation and food services | 47 | 53 |
| Number of establishments (guest houses, hostels, boarding houses and hotels) | 52 | 48 |
| Food services only | 46 | 54 |

Source: Extracted from the HKCSD (2012) quarterly report of employment and vacancy statistics, <http://www.statistics.gov.hk/pub/B10500032012QQ03B0100.pdf> [accessed 5 February 2013].

5.4.2. Unemployment

Of those seeking work in catering and tourism across a number of Asian countries, women are in the minority, with the exception of the Republic of Korea. However, the proportion of women seeking work in HCT is higher than the proportion across the economy, except in the case of Singapore.

Table 16: Unemployment by economic sectors, East Asia, 2006 (thousands and percentage)

| Country or area | Tourism | | | Total | | |
|-------------------|------------------|------------------|---------|------------------|------------------|---------|
| | Total (thousand) | Women (thousand) | % women | Total (thousand) | Women (thousand) | % women |
| China | 55.7 | 27.2 | 48.8 | 171.1 | 60.8 | 35.5 |
| Hong Kong, China | 64.0 | 37.0 | 57.8 | 827.0 | 294.0 | 35.6 |
| Republic of Korea | 1.7 | 0.8 | 47.1 | 10.4 | 4.8 | 46.2 |
| Macau, China | 8.7 | 3.8 | 43.7 | 84.2 | 39.5 | 46.9 |

Source: ILO Laborsta. For Hong Kong, China, data is for wholesale and retail trade and hotels and restaurants, <http://www.statistics.gov.hk/pub/B10500032012QQ03B0100.pdf> [accessed 5 February 2013].

Likewise, with the exception of the Republic of Korea, the number of women seeking work in HCT, as a proportion of the total, is somewhat lower than is the case with men.

5.4.3. Working hours

Across selected countries in Asia, working hours in tourism exceed those in the economy as a whole in the case of both men and women.

Table 17: Working hours in hotels and restaurants and the overall economy in selected East Asian countries or areas, by sex, 2007 (hours per week)

| Country or area | Tourism (hours per week) | | | Total (hours per week) | | |
|-------------------|--------------------------|------|-------|------------------------|------|-------|
| | Total | Men | Women | Total | Men | Women |
| China | 52.1 | 52.6 | 51.6 | 45.5 | 46.8 | 44.0 |
| Hong Kong, China | 47.1 | 49.3 | 45.3 | 46.6 | 47.2 | 45.9 |
| Republic of Korea | 46.3 | 45.4 | 47.1 | N/A | N/A | N/A |
| Macau, China | 40.8 | 48.9 | 48.6 | 46.9 | 47.1 | 46.6 |
| Malaysia | 48.7 | 52.5 | 49.3 | 47.3 | 47.8 | 46.5 |

Source: ILO Laborsta Bangkok subregional office. For Hong Kong, China, data is for wholesale and retail trade and hotels and restaurants.

The disparity in working hours between men and women in selected Asian countries, while evident, is significantly less than that found in other regions and points to rather more equitable distribution of time and effort between men and women in the region.

5.4.4. Wages

Many Asian societies are fairly traditional in their expectations of gender roles in the home and workplace. For example, notwithstanding major efforts by government to increase female participation rates in the workplace, Li and Leung¹²⁰ report that “females in Singapore are expected to contribute to their family’s income and continue to fulfil their traditional duties as wife, mother and daughter As a result, they face the ‘double burden’ of employee and household manager.”

In Bangladesh, evidence points to considerable wage disparity between men and women, particularly in the HCT sector. The largest male–female wage gaps are in the construction and hotel and restaurant industries (in which women earn an average of 30 per cent less than men per hour), and in small- to mid-sized enterprises (those with between six and 20 workers).¹²¹ The disparity is highlighted by the fact that women tend to be employed in areas of the economy where they are most vulnerable economically and socially.

A divergence between qualifications and workplace reality is observable for women and young workers. Unskilled or semi-skilled women tend to work in the most vulnerable jobs, where they are more likely to experience poor working conditions, inequality of opportunity and treatment, violence, exploitation, stress and sexual harassment. They also suffer segregation in terms of access to education and training. Women are on average paid 25 per cent less than male workers for comparable skills.¹²²

¹²⁰ L. Li; R Wang Leung: “Female managers in Asian hotels: Profile and career challengers”, in *International Journal of Hospitality Management* (2001, 13(4)), pp. 192, 189–196.

¹²¹ ILO: *Global Employment Trends for Women* (Geneva, 2009), p. 18.

¹²² ILO: *Toolkit on Poverty reduction through tourism* (Geneva, 2011).

5.5. Sub-Saharan Africa

5.5.1. Employment

The following table includes information on the share of men and women in employment in hotels and restaurants in the countries for which data is available.

Table 18: Employment in hotels and restaurants in selected sub-Saharan African countries, by sex, various years (thousands and percentage)*

| | Total (thousand) | Men (thousand) | Women (thousand) | % women |
|--------------|------------------|----------------|------------------|---------|
| Botswana | 14.7 | 3.8 | 10.9 | 74.1 |
| Mali | 7.6 | 1.4 | 6.3 | 82.9 |
| Senegal | 28.6 | 12.2 | 16.4 | 57.3 |
| Ethiopia | 769.1 | 96.8 | 672.3 | 87.4 |
| Madagascar | 63.9 | 30.5 | 33.5 | 52.4 |
| Mauritius | 37.1 | 24.6 | 12.5 | 33.7 |
| Tanzania | 377.5 | 98.5 | 279.0 | 73.9 |
| Uganda | 24.8 | 64.4 | 176.4 | 73.1 |
| Nigeria | 217.1 | 53.6 | 163.6 | 75.4 |
| Sierra Leone | 4.9 | 2.6 | 2.2 | 44.9 |
| Average | | | | 65.5 |

* For Uganda data is from 2003, for Mali and Sierra Leone 2004, Ethiopia and Madagascar 2005, Botswana, Senegal and Tanzania from 2006, Nigeria from 2007 and for Mauritius from 2008.
Source: ILO Laborsta.

Of paid employees in the sector in Botswana, 74.1 per cent were women, which is slightly less than the overall percentage of women in the working population. The same applies for Sierra Leone, where overall less than half of HCT employees were women (44.9 per cent, Table 18 above). However, it is difficult to draw conclusions from these singular figures, because data is overall so weak that it does not give a full picture of the sector.

5.5.2. Unemployment

Table 19: Unemployed persons by sex, Mauritius 2008, Botswana 2006 and Sierra Leone 2004, (thousands and percentage)

| | | Total (thousand) | Men (thousand) | Women (thousand) | % women |
|--------------|------------------------|------------------|----------------|------------------|---------|
| Botswana | Total | 114 | 50.8 | 63.2 | 55.4 |
| | Hotels and restaurants | 4.1 | 0.8 | 3.4 | 82.9 |
| Mauritius | Total | 40.4 | 14.6 | 25.8 | 63.9 |
| | Hotels and restaurants | 2.5 | 0.9 | 1.6 | 64 |
| Sierra Leone | Total | 1.7 | 1.2 | 0.6 | 35.3 |
| | Hotels and restaurants | 0.013 | 0.007 | 0.006 | 46.2 |

Source: ILO Laborsta

Table 19 shows that, in Botswana, over 80 per cent of the unemployed in the hotels and restaurants were women. This may imply that men are favoured in the competition for jobs, and women thus bear the burden of the volatility in the HCT job market. Compared to the overall economy, women's share of the unemployed is larger. In Mauritius, the female unemployment in hotels and restaurants is about 60 per cent. These figures indicate that a wide mix of factors have an impact on women's employment prospects, both in the overall economy and in the HCT sector.

5.5.3. Wages

In Botswana, the difference in women's and men's wages grew significantly during the reference period 1999–2006, having grown from around 200 Botswanan Pula (BWP) to over BWP400. In relative terms, this represents an increase of the gap by 10 percentage points (from 22 to 32 per cent). This has moved Botswana from an average wage gap country to the group of countries with a large wage gap in the tourism sector.¹²³ In Tanzania, the wage gap was 28 per cent in 2001, but more recent data is not available. Surprisingly, in Madagascar in 2005, the gap was negative with a value of -35.5 per cent, meaning that women earned over a third more than men. Reasons for this phenomenon are impossible to deduct from the data, however.

5.6. North America

In a global workforce context, equality in pay has improved in the United States since 1979 when women earned about 62 per cent as much as men. In 2010, American women on average earned 81 per cent of what their male counterparts earned.¹²⁴ Women's participation in the US labour force climbed during the 1970s and 1980s, reaching 60 per cent in 2000. However, in 2010, women represented 46.7 per cent of the United States labour force, a slightly larger share than at the start of the recession in 2007. Overall 71.9 million women were employed or looking for work, representing 58.6 per cent of all women aged 16 and over and this proportion is not expected to increase by 2018.¹²⁵ It is difficult to extract HCT-specific information from Bureau of Labor Statistics or Department of Labor data but BLS data highlights that 16.1 per cent of female employment is within the services sectors compared with 12.9 per cent in the case of men. Likewise, the 2011 DOL study reports that women with children under 18 are almost twice as likely to be working full-time in the services sectors as their male counterparts. It further can be noted that, in 2010, 48.4 per cent of lodgings managers in the United States were female, indicative of broad equality of access to positions within that area of work within tourism.¹²⁶

¹²³ UNED–UK: *Gender & tourism: Women's employment and participation in tourism*, 1999.

¹²⁴ Bureau of Labor Statistics: *Highlights of women's earnings in 2009* (Washington, DC, BLS,, 2010), <http://www.bls.gov/cps/cpswom2009.pdf> [accessed 22 October 2012]; Department of Labor: *Women's employment during the recovery* (Washington, DC, DOL, 2011), http://www.dol.gov/_sec/media/reports/FemaleLaborForce/FemaleLaborForce.pdf [accessed 22 October 2012].

¹²⁵ Department of Labor: *Women's employment during the recovery* (Washington, DC, DOL, 2011), http://www.dol.gov/_sec/media/reports/FemaleLaborForce/FemaleLaborForce.pdf [accessed 22 October 2012].

¹²⁶ US Census: *Employed civilians by occupation, sex, race and Hispanic origin*, 2010, <http://www.census.gov/compendia/statab/2012/tables/12s0616.pdf> [accessed 5 February 2013].

The great recession of 2007–10 affected men and women differently in the United States.¹²⁷ Overall, employment in HCT-related sectors fell from a high of 5.885 million in 2008 to 5.33 million in 2010.¹²⁸ Men lost more jobs than women in the recession but also experienced a steadier recovery. One in five women are working part time because they cannot find full time work while at the start of the recession less than one in ten women were doing so. Despite these developments, the overall unemployment rate for women is lower than men's and they are also less likely to be among the long-term unemployed. Notwithstanding recessionary pressures within the American economy, women embarking on careers on HCT in the United States can expect to earn a higher maximum salary than those who choose their careers in other sectors of the economy.¹²⁹ Overall, the gender division across HCT and related sectors in the United States shows marked similarities to that found in other developed economies. Table 20 shows data for 2009 across three sub-sectors of HCT.

Table 20: Employment in key HCT and related sectors in the United States by sex, 2009 (percentage)

| | Women (%) | Men (%) |
|------------------------------------|-----------|---------|
| Leisure and hospitality | 51.5 | 48.5 |
| Arts, entertainment and recreation | 45.0 | 55.0 |
| Accommodation and food services | 53.0 | 47.0 |
| Total | 51.5 | 48.5 |

Source: United States Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics: *Labor force statistics from the current population survey: Women in the labor force: A databook*, Table 13, 2010.

Pay levels in the United States show clear indications that women are in a disadvantageous position in the tourism workforce. Table 21 shows that, with the exception of one area, women lag significantly behind men in terms of the pay they receive within specific sub-sectors.

Table 21: Women's pay in selected HCT-related occupations 2009 in the United States as a percentage of male colleagues

| Occupation | Women's pay (% of men's pay) |
|---|------------------------------|
| Food preparation and serving related occupations | 90.0 |
| First-line supervisors/managers of food preparation and serving workers | 87.9 |
| Cooks | 92.8 |
| Food preparation workers | 95.3 |
| Bartenders | 74.6 |

¹²⁷ ILO: *Gender inequality and women in the US labor force* (Washington, DC, 2011).

¹²⁸ The United States Census Bureau: "Arts, recreation & travel: travel and tourism: 1266: Tourism sales by commodity group, and tourism employment by industry group" in *The 2012 statistical abstract: The national data book*; 2012, http://www.census.gov/compendia/statab/cats/arts_recreation_travel/travel_and_tourism.html [accessed 22 October 2012].

¹²⁹ US Travel Association: *Fast forward. Travel creates opportunities and launches careers* (Washington DC, USTA, 2012).

| Occupation | Women's pay (% of men's pay) |
|--|------------------------------|
| Combined food preparation and serving workers, including fast food | 97.2 |
| Waiters and waitresses | 86.6 |
| Dining room and cafeteria attendants and bartender helpers | 111.1 |

Source: United States Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics: *Labor force statistics from the current population survey: Women in the labor force: A databook*, Table 18, 2010.

There is evidence from the United States that tourism, particularly in rural areas, is perceived to be predominantly “women’s work” and that men, retrenched from traditional sectors such as agriculture, are reluctant to seek opportunities in tourism as an alternative.¹³⁰ Likewise, in a rural American context, other studies suggest that women are more motivated than their male counterparts to develop agricultural businesses to include a tourism element because they see the economic and family employment benefits that accrue from such investment.¹³¹

In Canada, the Canadian Tourism Human Resources Council (CTHRC) identified that 52 per cent of the national tourism labour force is comprised of women, as opposed to “the Canadian labour force which has 47 per cent women and 53 per cent men”.¹³² A subsequent CTHRC report identified that 72 per cent of the Canadian tourism labour force in travel arrangement and reservation services is female.¹³³

Canadian data relating to the breakdown of employment by sub-sector in tourism and related sectors highlights clear divisions with respect to sex, as highlighted in table 22.

Table 22: Occupational segregation in the Canadian tourism workforce 2006 (percentage)

| | Female (%) | Male(%) |
|----------------------------|------------|---------|
| Canadian labour force | 47.4 | 52.6 |
| Tourism sector | 52.3 | 47.7 |
| Accommodation | 61.4 | 38.6 |
| Food and beverage services | 59.6 | 50.4 |
| Recreation & entertainment | 47.2 | 52.8 |
| Transport | 28.1 | 71.9 |
| Travel services | 70.5 | 29.5 |

Source: CTHRC: *Profile of tourism sector employees*, Ottawa (n.d.).

The CHRTC¹³⁴ reports that the tourism sector employed a higher proportion of women (58 per cent) than men (42 per cent) in the 15–24 age group. This reflects the

¹³⁰ MJ. Harvey, J. Hunt, C. Harris: “Gender and Community Tourism Dependence Level”, in *Annals of Tourism research* (1995, 22(2)), pp. 349–366.

¹³¹ M Chiappe and C. Flora: “Gendered elements of the alternative agricultural paradigm”, in *Rural Sociology* (1998, 63(3)), pp. 372–393; N. McGehee, K. Kim, G. Jennings: “Gender and motivation for agri-tourism entrepreneurship”, in *Tourism Management* (2007, 28(1)), pp. 280–289.

¹³² CTHRC: *Total tourism sector employment in Canada: 2005*, Update (Ottawa, 2005), p. 2.

¹³³ CTHRC: *Travel services 2006: Total tourism sector employment in Canada* (Ottawa, 2006), p. 2, <http://www.citc.ca/content/download/TravelServices-e.pdf> [accessed 22 October 2012].

¹³⁴ CTHRC: *Youth (aged 15–24 years) employed in tourism*, Ottawa, (nd).

larger share of women in the HCT sector; however the gap is more distinct in this age group. Compared to the total HCT labour force, a higher proportion of young women were found in each of the sector groups, but this trend was most prominent in transportation.

What is less clear from the Canadian data is the sex breakdown of tourism employment in relation to both wage levels and the status of the positions which they occupy. According to the *Global Gender Report 2011*, Canada's strength lies in educational attainment and economic participation. This would lead to a reasonable assumption about equity in relation to wages and access to promotions within the sector.

5.7. North Africa and the Middle East

The WTTC reports that Middle East travel and tourism employment was expected to generate 5,130,000 jobs in 2009, 9 per cent of total employment, or one in every 11.1 jobs. By 2019, this total is predicted to become 6,876,000 jobs, 9.5 per cent of total employment or one in every 10.5 jobs. Similarly, in North Africa, travel and tourism employment was estimated to become 5,440,000 jobs in 2009, 11.2 per cent of total employment, or one in every 8.9 jobs. By 2019, this number of jobs is expected to end with 6,914,000 jobs, 11.3 per cent of total employment or one in every 8.8 jobs.

At a country level, Mustafa argues that:

Tourism also is a crucial generator of employment to many of these countries (e.g. according to the Egyptian Tourism Authority, 10 per cent of the Egyptian population is depending on tourism for earning their living, of which a significant proportion is of semi-skilled and unskilled employees; in Bahrain, 17-18 per cent of jobs are in tourism, either directly or indirectly; in Oman, hotels are required by law to have 50 per cent of its employees from local national employees). Tourism also helps in reducing the dependence on other sources of economy (e.g. Gulf countries are giving a very good example here, these countries have started to recognize the importance of tourism to decrease their reliance on oil revenues in the long term, e.g. Dubai in UAE, Oman, Qatar and Bahrain); though, some other countries with big oil reserves are slow toward tourism development, that is due to the lack of need to diversify their economies (as Abu Dhabi in UAE, Kuwait and Saudi Arabia).

Al Mazro'ei highlights the challenges in addressing the specific position of women and tourism employment in this region. She argues that:

Relatively little attention has been paid to the employment of Muslim women in the tourism industry in the Middle East, North Africa or the Arabian Peninsula. This may be because accurate data are difficult to obtain. The few studies that have been done have suggested that tourism employment may offer specific opportunities and benefits for Muslim women, such as training opportunities, availability of jobs, access to jobs previously filled by men, etc.. This suggests that tourism employment might potentially help to improve the status of women in Muslim societies. However, the studies that have explored tourism employment for Muslim women have not addressed problems related to cultural and religious factors, nor have they explored difficulties related to tourism employment.

In relation to tourism sector employment, Al Mazro'ei highlights evidence from a range of countries in the region, notably Egypt and Jordan, which points to gradual increases in the number of women who are economically active in tourism. In particular, she points to the growth of educational programmes at tertiary and university level in fields such as hotel management as evidence of the growing recognition of women as a potential source of labour for the sector. She further argues that in those countries in the Middle East which have more open societies, such as Turkey, or where tourism is more established and accepted, such as Egypt, women are more likely to work as cleaners, tour guides, receptionists, secretaries, accountants, travel agents, shopkeepers, managers and administrators in the tourism sector.

There is a paucity of in-depth research evidence relating to the Middle Eastern and North African region that enumerates and addresses gender roles within HCT. Global figures point to the under-representation of women in the workforce generally and in HCT in particular in all countries of the region with the exception of Israel.¹³⁵ Miles,¹³⁶ in an analysis of gender roles in the Jordanian workforce, ascribes the level of participation but also change in this regard to a number of key factors:

- socio-cultural inhibitors to workforce participation – notably “the ‘conservative’ nature of Islam, the strength of family ties, the definition of the woman’s role as that of wife and mother, the segregation of women and men to avoid social problems, cultural restrictions on women’s mobility, the stigma attached to a husband whose wife works outside the home”;
- reluctance of the private sector to buck cultural traditions leaving it to the public sector to initiate the evident change which has occurred in Jordan; and
- high levels of male unemployment, especially among the growing youth population, further reducing opportunities for female labour force participation.

In relative regional terms, Egypt is a country where female participation in the workforce is well established and is reported at close to 20 per cent of those of working age in 2006.¹³⁷ However, even though female employment has increased at a faster rate than that of men, given the growth in educational opportunities for women in Egypt, it is less than might have been expected.¹³⁸ The European Training Foundation (ETF)¹³⁹ notes that “The active female population overall is better educated than the active male population, especially among young people. At the same time it is evident that one out of every three active women is not educated at all.” Growth in employment has been most pronounced in the services sector which, in 2006, accounted for over 50 per cent of total female employment. In relation to the HCT sector, the ETF report that:

... in 2006 the proportion of female personnel in hotel and restaurant employment as a whole was 4.1 per cent. ... technical services jobs accounted for 15 per cent of total male employment compared with only 4 per cent in the case of women. However, for general services and assistant jobs, the share of male employment was 48 per cent compared to 60 per cent for females. The distribution of female employment in the hotel sector by educational level indicates that almost 25 per cent of women employees hold a university degree.

In relation to wages in HCT in Egypt, the ETF reports that:

¹³⁵ ILO: “Women in labour markets: Measuring progress and identifying challenges”, in *ILO Trends Econometric Models*, 38; ILO Laborsta database, 2008 (Geneva, 2009).

¹³⁶ R. Miles: “Employment and unemployment in Jordan: Importance of the Gender System”, in *World Development* (2002, 30(3)), pp. 413–427.

¹³⁷ C. Zaki: “On trade, employment and gender; evidence from Egypt”, in *OECD Working paper*, 2012, <http://www.oecd.org/site/tadicite/48722363.pdf> [accessed 31 October 2012].

¹³⁸ R. Assaad and F. El-Hamidi: “Women in the Egyptian labor market: An analysis of the development, 1988–2006”, in R. Assaad (ed.): *The Egyptian Labor Market Revisited*, (Cairo The American University in Cairo Press, 2009).

¹³⁹ ETF: *Women and work in Egypt: Case study of tourism and ICT sector* (Turin, ETF, 2007), pp. 14.

With respect to remuneration, there is no notable gender wage differential for the same occupation in the formal hotel business. The Labour Code does not permit gender discrimination in remuneration (Article 35). However, in practice men often manage to earn extra income by working longer hours and night shifts, in addition to performing multi-skilled functions that enable them to gain bonuses and tips.

Sommerville et al.'s ¹⁴⁰ exploratory study of gender issues in the United Arab Emirates HCT sector paints a similar picture with respect to the barriers to opportunity for women. They note that "The findings of the current research with hotel employees and HR executives clearly indicate that they are aware of the gender imbalance in the United Arab Emirates workforce and of the impact of culture on gender equality in the United Arab Emirates. The country's excessive dependence on its male immigrant population has skewed the demographic profile of the labour market, hence it is difficult to practice gender equality effectively."

5.8. Australia and New Zealand

Australia and New Zealand illustrate some challenges in countries with indigenous minority communities who face major economic and social disadvantages, including in the area of employment. Tourism could provide opportunities for these communities and, particularly, women. In New Zealand, ¹⁴¹ overall, tourism employs slightly more females (51 per cent) than males (49 per cent). Within hospitality, the gender differences are more pronounced. In 2006, 62 per cent of the people employed in hospitality were female. In 2006 over 60 per cent of the employees in the accommodation and catering services, caf  s, restaurants and pubs were female. The accommodation sub-sector was the most female-dominated with 65 per cent of the people employed being female. ¹⁴² Table 23 gives breakdown information by sex and according to employment status (proprietors, part-time and full-time).

Table 23: Accommodation and food services employment in New Zealand by sex, December 2012 (percentage)

| | Female (%) | Male (%) |
|---------------------|------------|----------|
| Working proprietors | 52 | 48 |
| Part-time employees | 66 | 34 |
| Full-time employees | 52 | 48 |
| Total | 60 | 40 |

Source: Statistics New Zealand. 2013. Extracted from *Employment & unemployment (labour market) tables*, www.statistics.govt.nz, [accessed 5 February 2013].

For the Maori community in New Zealand, the gender gap was greater, with a 55 per cent female and 45 per cent male breakdown. Among the Maori group, females were more highly represented (75 and 68 per cent respectively) in accommodation and cafe-restaurant

¹⁴⁰ H. Sommerville, G. Chau and D. Coy: *Gender equality in the hospitality industry in Dubai*, paper to the 2010 Eurochrie conference, Amsterdam, 2010, <http://www.eurochrie2010.nl/publications/99.pdf> [accessed 31 October 2012].

¹⁴¹ Ministry of Tourism: *Measurement of Ma'ori in tourism* (Wellington, Ministry of Tourism, 2004).

¹⁴² Berl Economics: *Hospitality industry employment and training profile* (Wellington, Berl Economics, 2010).

services. In contrast, the transport-storage sector was predominantly male (70 per cent). The cultural-recreational sector was more evenly spread, with slightly more females (53 per cent).

The overall picture in Australia is similar to that in New Zealand, with a female majority in areas of work with lesser responsibility. Table 24 reports data extracted from the 2011 census.

Table 24: HCT and related employment by sex in Australia, 2011 (percentage)

| | Men (%) | | Women (%) | |
|--|----------------------------|---------------------------------|----------------------------|---------------------------------|
| | Arts & recreation services | Accommodation and food services | Arts & recreation services | Accommodation and food services |
| Employee not owning business | 51 | 42 | 49 | 58 |
| Owner managers of incorporated enterprises | 64 | 58 | 36 | 42 |
| Owner managers of unincorporated enterprises | 58 | 52 | 42 | 48 |
| Contributing family workers | 43 | 44 | 57 | 56 |
| Total | 52 | 44 | 48 | 56 |

Source: Australian Bureau of Statistics: *Census of population and housing, 2011*, : <http://www.abs.gov.au/websitedbs/census/home.nsf/home/data?opendocument#from-banner=LN> [accessed 5 February 2013].

Davidson et al, in their study of gendered employment in multinational hotel chains in Australia, note that line employees are evenly split on the basis of gender but point to a wide disparity (65.5 per cent to 34.5 per cent) by which men outstrip women in managerial positions.¹⁴³

¹⁴³ M. Davidson, C. Cuilding, N. Timo: "Employment, flexibility and labour market practices of domestic and MNC chain luxury hotels in Australia: Where has accountability gone?", in *International Journal of Hospitality Management* (2006, 25(2)), pp. 193–210.

6. Conclusions and recommendations

In drawing together conclusions with respect to the objectives of this study, what is evident is the fragmented and overlapping nature of sector-specific evidence available. While generic gender and employment data are published on a national basis, drilling down for information on HCT presents challenges. In terms of coverage, there are major gaps in the information available about many countries; in terms of currency, data are reported over a wide timeframe; and in terms of sectoral definitions and classifications, different countries employ varying criteria by which to delineate and collect data on the industries within and around the HCT sector. Published statistical data, incomplete and inconsistent as it is, is complemented by a wide range of academic studies which provide geographically specific (local, regional, national) perspectives of women within the workplace. Finally, information can be obtained from a range of international organizations and NGOs, some of which represent clearly stated positions on women, employment and poverty. As a result, definitive judgements with respect to these objectives must be tempered with a degree of caution.

As a consequence of the diversity of tourism at a global level, the wide range of employment types and opportunities offered within both the formal and informal economy, differing cultural and political constructions of the role of women within the economy and employment and ambiguity with respect to available data, general conclusions with respect to the above objectives are difficult to draw.

Statistical data highlight the important role which women play within the workforce in many countries, wherein they frequently constitute a majority in strictly numerical terms. However, such figures mask both pronounced segmentation in terms of the roles which women play. Women are disproportionately represented in lower skills and lower paid areas of HCT work, notably housekeeping and some customer contact areas. They are under-represented in kitchen work and in areas such as engineering and security. Furthermore, there are widespread disparities in terms of the extent to which women access senior technical and managerial roles within the sector. Where longitudinal data is available, it generally points to increasing levels of female participation in the HCT workforce but there is mixed evidence with respect to the impact of economic downturn on the gender balance in tourism employment. Women are also more likely to play flexible roles than their male counterparts, by undertaking part-time, seasonal, agency and casual work in the sector. Women are also over-represented within informal and marginalised areas of work within HCT and are thus subject to disproportionate exploitation through engagement with dirty work (defined as physically unhygienic or undignified) and prostitution tourism.

The extent and form of female employment in HCT is strongly influenced by cultural, social, religious and political factors. These considerations, together with demographic and wider economic concerns, drive the considerable variation that exists with respect to the quantity and quality of female employment within HCT. Such disparities were clearly evident in responses to the international hotel company survey which highlighted the differing responses of organizations to gender equality issues on a national and regional basis.

The culture of HCT, its operating environment, working conditions and some of its key departments are always supportive of the needs of women employees and their family care responsibilities. Some areas of work in the sector have traditions that emphasise a “macho”, male-dominated culture and it can be difficult for women to work effectively and in a rewarding way within this environment.

The nature of HCT and the business opportunities that the sector offers are such that, through the wide range of micro-enterprises that dominate the sector in many countries, HCT has the capacity to make a significant contribution to poverty alleviation through a pro-poor HCT agenda. In some contexts, women and their engagement in HCT offer families the only opportunity for income generation within economies where male employment is limited or marginal.

All international hotel enterprises actively promulgate policies designed to support gender equality in employment and their record, particularly in developed countries, is commendable. Application of such policies, however, appears to be variable and may be compromised in meeting the expectations and demands of local owners. International recruitment, talent management and succession planning schemes within major hotel companies are generally gender-neutral in intention although, in practice, their implementation can disadvantage women with child and parental care responsibilities.

The international HCT workplace has changed significantly over the past 50 years, in tandem with the growth and globalization of the sector. Within this workplace change process, opportunities for women to place an active and rewarding role have increased significantly in many countries. However, in some countries and regions, women remain excluded from or marginalised in the sector workplace. Notwithstanding changes that have occurred, evidence assessed in this study highlight a reality that the HCT workplace is gender-segregated so that women are frequently confined in their opportunities to limited areas of work and have restricted access to promotions and leadership roles. Where opportunities exist, women do exhibit considerable success in establishing and running micro-enterprises within the sector.

There is no simple panacea to effect change in the role which women play within the HCT sector. To a significant extent, what occurs in the workplace with respect to gender roles and responsibilities is subject to external cultural, economic and political influences. At the same time, demographic and skills changes in many countries mean that it is imperative that the HCT is both creative and mould-breaking in its use and deployment of all sources of talent. This clearly points to the more effective utilization of women within its workforce at all levels. Overcoming major gender-related barriers is crucial within this process.

Therefore, this report concludes that it is clear that change in the utilization and career development of female workers in international HCT companies is an economic and moral imperative. In order to achieve this, the following recommendations are proposed:

- social dialogue between HCT enterprises and trade unions can effect change in terms of equal opportunity by promoting and promulgating talent identification and development on the basis of transparent access for women and men;
- HCT enterprises can engage with their ownership partners in agreeing to the application of gender equality and equal opportunity policies and practices;
- enterprises and trade unions can actively promote opportunities and careers for women within non-traditional areas within the HCT workplace, notably kitchen and engineering departments;
- in tandem with the above, HCT enterprises could promote male careers within areas of work traditionally dominated by women such as housekeeping in order to reduce workplace segregation;
- social dialogue between HCT enterprises and trade unions should address practical barriers to international mobility for female executives and senior technical experts,

particularly relating to career management, work-life and work-family balance matters;

- HCT enterprises can address and remove practical obstacles to female participation in the HCT workplace through the provision of better social and physical security and secure staff accommodation; flexible working conditions and shifts; and access to flexible arrangements for training and development;
- HCT enterprises should support suitable childcare provision to enable employees (both male and female) to remain within their workforce;
- social dialogue between HCT enterprises and trade unions can implement and invest in measures to ensure that women on maternity leave can remain in close touch with business developments and wider sector/ market trends;
- social dialogue between HCT enterprises and trade unions can design career-entry routes and ladders (similar to graduate entry schemes) for mature entrants, career changers and women returning to work so as to limit opportunities to low skills areas of work;
- ILO Conventions of specific relevance to women workers such as the Equal Remuneration Convention, 1951 (No. 100), the Discrimination (Employment and Occupation) Convention, 1958 (No. 111), the Workers with Family Responsibilities Convention, 1981 (No. 156), the Maternity Protection Convention, 2000 (No. 183), and the Working Conditions (Hotels and Restaurants) Convention, 1991 (No. 172), should be reflected in collective agreements. These represent internationally recognized standards that can and should be applied;
- specific attention should be paid to health and safety. Because women are more likely to be in non-standard forms of employment than men in the HCT sector, they tend not to report illnesses or accidents for fear of losing their jobs. Safe and healthy workplaces are not only important for the workers and their wellbeing but also for the wellbeing of the guests and for the productivity of the enterprise;
- trade unions and employers can agree a joint policy against sexual harassment by customers but also by employees that is visible and applied in HCT workplaces, recognizing that sexual harassment can have serious implications for the concerned person and represents a major form of discrimination against women;
- governments can review employment legislation which may inhibit micro- and small HCT businesses from employing women of child- bearing/ rearing age and actively promote such workers as a source of skills;
- governments, social partners, state bodies and educational providers can actively promote careers for women in non-traditional areas of work in HCT in areas such as hotel kitchens;
- governments can support major hotel sector employers in the provision of child-care facilities within the workplace in order to incentivise the employment of women in key roles and positions while offering the same services to male employees;
- educational and training programmes in enterprise and micro-business development for HCT, within less developed economies, can encourage and facilitate higher levels of participation by men and women within wider pro-poor tourism initiatives;

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- governments, social partners and international development organizations can promote enhanced working conditions and remuneration in HCT in order to provide sustainable alternatives for women to exploitative options within sex tourism;
 - well-established social dialogue mechanisms in HCT enterprises can contribute to improved gender balance across the roles and positions of men and women in the HCT sector. Increased women's participation in decision-taking could lead to higher female representation in managerial positions;
 - social dialogue can encourage equality of opportunity and treatment and the reduction of wage gaps between men and women for jobs of equal value; and
 - the ILO, UNWTO, the IHRA and the International Union of Food, Agricultural, Hotel, Restaurant, Catering, Tobacco and Allied Workers' Associations (IUF) can collect and promote information on gender participation in the HCT workplace as guidelines and best practices for national governments and other key players within the sector.

Sectoral working papers ¹

| | <i>Year</i> | <i>Reference</i> |
|---|--------------------|-------------------------|
| The role of worker representation and consultation in managing health and safety in the construction industry | 2010 | WP.270 |
| Sectoral Coverage of the Global Economic Crisis, Trends in Employment and Working Conditions by Economic Activity, Statistical Update, Third Quarter 2009 | 2010 | WP.271 |
| Strengthening social dialogue in the utilities sector in Nigeria (Professor Sola Fajana) | 2010 | WP.272 |
| Strengthening social dialogue in the utilities sector in Malawi (Winford H. Masanjala) | 2010 | WP.273 |
| The Global Economic Crisis, Trends in Employment and Working Conditions by Economic Activity, Statistical Update, Fourth Quarter 2009 | 2010 | WP.274 |
| Green Jobs Creation Through Sustainable Refurbishment in the Developing Countries (Ramin Kievani, Joseph H.M. Tah, Esra Kurul and Henry Abanda) | 2010 | WP.275 |
| Working Conditions of Contract Workers in the Oil and Gas Industries (Ian Graham) | 2010 | WP.276 |
| Dispute Prevention and Resolution in Public Services Labour Relations: Good Policy and Practice (Clive Thompson) | 2010 | WP.277 |
| Automotive Industry: Trends and Reflections The global Economic Crisis – Sectoral Coverage | 2010 | WP.278 |
| Job Crisis Recovery, A Global Overview of Employment Trends and Working Conditions by Economic Activity Statistical Update, First Semester 2010 | 2010 | WP.279 |
| Labour-oriented Participation in Municipalities How decentralized social dialogue can benefit the urban economy and its sectors | 2010 | WP.280 |
| Situation of Social Dialogue in the Philippines Water Supply (Marie Beth Lorenzo) | 2011 | WP.281 |
| An approach aimed at improving social and labour practices in the property services sector (Andrew Bibby) | 2011 | WP.282 |
| Private Employment Agencies in Morocco (Ghada Ahmed) | 2011 | WP.283 |
| Restructuring and social dialogue in the chemical industry in India (National Safety Council of India (NSCI)) | 2011 | WP.284 |
| Restructuring and social dialogue in the chemical industry in China (Xiangquan Zeng, Xiaoman Li and Liwen Chen) | 2011 | WP.285 |
| Restructuring and social dialogue in the chemical industry in Brazil (Nilton Benedito Branco Freitas and (Thomaz Ferreira Jensen) | 2012 | WP.286 |
| The Digital Labour Challenge: Work in the Age of New Media (Aidan White) | 2012 | WP.287 |

¹ Working Papers Nos 1–269 are not included on this list for reasons of space, but may be requested from the Sectoral Activities Department.

| | <i>Year</i> | <i>Reference</i> |
|--|--------------------|-------------------------|
| The health of workers in selected sectors of the urban economy: Challenges and perspectives (Francisco Comaru and Edmundo Werna) | 2013 | WP.288 |
| International Perspectives on Women and Work in Hotels, Catering and Tourism (Thomas Baum) | 2013 | WP.289 |