Continuous learning: A competitive advantage for the tourism industry
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**Abstract**
As rapid increases in technology continue to transform the tourism industry, a number of organizations have strategically implemented self-service processes to serve their customers and employees. This study focuses on the impact of self-directed learning within tourism organizations and to identify opportunities where self-directed learning may help to enhance service delivery. With self-service technology providing new opportunities and challenges throughout the tourism industry, an examination of the relationships that may exist will help to ensure that organizations within the tourism industry have the human resource capacity to engage in self-directed activities.

Measuring the self-directed learning readiness of employees may strengthen the ability of a tourism organization to adapt to change, bridge learning gaps, and provide an understanding of variables that promote self-directed learning capabilities and those that act as a barrier to self-directed learning. As human resource departments look for advantages in all segments of their organizations, self-directed learning processes should be considered to promote continuous learning opportunities for employees in the tourism industry.

**Keywords**
Tourism, human resources, self-directed learning, technology

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**Introduction**
While the highly competitive tourism industry attempts to look for advantages in all segments of operations, minimal research has attempted to bridge constructs of self-directed learning readiness with selected variables from the tourism industry’s largest and most significant resource - its employees. As the world’s largest employer with 231 million employees generating 10.4% of the world GDP, the tourism industry is rapidly expanding and is estimated to employ approximately 269.5 million people by the year 2015 (World Tourism & Travel Council, 2006). The competitiveness of a tourism organization is the result of the skill level and adaptability of employees to initiate change in their jobs. With greater emphasis on productivity and accountability for individual performance, the responsibility for employees to rapidly adapt to change is moving from an organizational perspective to that of self-directedness. As many organizations in the tourism industry continue to consolidate, these organizations are experiencing mergers and acquisitions as rapidly as many individual employees change jobs and careers.
On the employee development side, tourism organizations are also promoting employee learning through web based forms of self-directed and self-service training programmes. The rapid development of technology is significantly influencing tourism organizations by providing new opportunities and challenges for customers and employees. Human resource development initiatives must meet the unique interests and developmental needs of employees while building commitment and personal investment in their respective organizations for the future. As self-service technology allows the user greater control of time and pace of activity, in order to maximize learning capacity, it may be beneficial to consider self-directed learning readiness as a human resource strategy for self-service processes. While many opportunities exist for serving customers with self-service technology and in employee development training programmes, certain challenges also exist and require further examination.

Self-service technology provides continuous training and development opportunities that promote increased access to learning and information that is initiated by the user. As self-service technology continues to be implemented in the tourism industry, there may be a need for critical analysis for problem solving to meet the needs of increasing customer demands. This dynamic workforce may have a much greater responsibility to meet increasing expectations. Flexible employees, who can handle challenging responsibilities, will be needed to supplement technology rather than attempting to substitute technology for an organization’s incapable workforce.

While technology continues to rapidly advance, organizations in the tourism industry may not be able to rely on a single source of information that is gathered and distributed by a few leaders at the top of the organizational structure. As many organizations flatten their organizational hierarchy, the wealth of information is accessible to greater numbers of employees who are expected to interpret, plan, and guide initiatives (Senge, 1990). Data gathering and interpretation is now more accessible and available than ever before. While technology is fueling the growth of vast amounts of available information, employees are being challenged to apply relevant information to the context of their own work situation.

Personal characteristics of employees in the hospitality industry need closer examination to help develop learning opportunities that organizations can implement to meet the needs of the workplace. The theoretical framework of adult learning characteristics and self-directed learning needs were examined in the context of self-directed learning readiness in the tourism industry in order to provide a foundation for the successful implementation of effective human resource development programmes and policies.

Developing a broader knowledge base of self-directed learning readiness with selected variables may not only benefit a people-based business that is highly concentrated in employing and serving people, but other researchers and practitioners can also benefit from the unique social learning environment that the tourism industry has to offer. Specifically, the purpose of this study is to determine whether there is a significant relationship between self-directed learning readiness and personal characteristics (industry experience, education, age) of employees in the tourism industry. Self-service
technology, for the purpose of this study, is defined in terms of technology that enables customers and employees a direct control over the time and pace of their activity.

**Review of the literature**
With effective human resource development programmes that can help transition employees to facilitate self-service processes, tourism organizations will be better prepared to meet the challenges associated with applying rapidly changing self-service technologies. There is a debate however, whether self-service technology has a place in the tourism industry and other service-based industries. As argued by Carlin (2008), there is debate as to whether self-service kiosks particularly in high-end areas of the hospitality and tourism industry improve or dilute customer service. While customers want to have increased options and flexibility in performing service activities, they also seek support in being able to reach out for assistance, such as a front desk agent, when they need help with special requests (Serlin, 2007).

Self-service technology has often been viewed to be in opposition to full-service with the perception that it leads to diminishing levels of service as a result of less human contact. However, with increasing customer demand, greater exposure to mobile technologies, increased levels of technology, and greater understanding that self-service technology can support full-service operations, there is a greater acceptance and expectation of providing self-service options for customers in the tourism, retail, and banking industries (Chen, 2005; Meuter, Ostrom, Roundtree, & Bitner, 2000; Wollenhaupt, 2009). As self-service technology matures and becomes more widespread in retail stores, airports, hotels, and restaurants, customers throughout the tourism industry are becoming more accustomed to self-service processes (Carlin, 2008).

Debating whether self-service technology has a place in the tourism industry may be overcome by effective facilitation and well executed training programmes that focus on using self-service technology to support increased levels of service rather than using it as a substitute for service. With opportunities for a greater personalized approach for delivering services through self-service technology, more focused and continuous training strategies also need to emerge in order to meet the rapidly changing service environment (Gordon, 2000). While self-service technology offers innovative and unique service options for customers, opportunities and challenges exist for many tourism organizations.

Technology is continuing to change the environment of tourism including services, products, and customer experiences (Goeldner and Ritchie, 2006). As technology in tourism organizations has provided much of the success over past challenges with self-service strategies, human capital investment is required to match personal characteristics necessary to maximize the full potential of self-service benefits. From the introduction of automated bank teller machines in 1969, self-service gas stations, on-line banking, airline and hotel self-check-in, self-service food and beverage venues, entertainment ticket kiosks, self-service employee health and benefit enrollment, and self-directed succession planning, employees and customers of today are becoming more rapidly exposed to and demanding of self-service technologies (Erdly and Chatterjee, 2003).
The explosion of on-line learning in education and business is another example and result of the rapid increases in technology. An article in The Economist reported, “Self-service is now doing for the service sector what mass production once did for manufacturing, automating processes and significantly reducing costs” (You’re Hired, 2004, p. 21). While self-service customers are becoming more and more accustomed to serving themselves in many other aspects, in terms of greater access to information through mobile web based devices and applications, a growing number of customers are also expecting tourism organizations to provide this service option as well. With the explosion of technology, the delivery of services is also rapidly changing with self-service initiatives being implemented in nearly all aspects of the tourism industry.

Although the capacity of self-service strategies is limited by the competency of the user, self-directed learning is at the center of the self-service concept. The rapid development of self-service technology is significantly influencing tourism organizations by providing new opportunities and challenges for customers and employees. A Time magazine article recently reported the popularity of self-service with “U.S. customers spending $128 billion at self-service kiosks last year, an 80 percent jump from the year before, and by 2007 it could hit $1.3 trillion” (Kiviat, 2004, p. 101). To maximize learning capacity, self-directed learning readiness is a required strategy to consider with the self-service concept.

Self-service allows users greater control over their experience, just as self-directed learning emphasizes the learner’s personal control over his or her own learning experience (Long, 2000). Experience has played a significant role in the process of self-directed learning, adult learning, and adult education (Merriam and Brockett, 1997). Knowles (1973) values the experiences that adults bring to the learning environment as a rich learning resource that can significantly contribute to learning processes. Adults, Knowles argues, can bring valuable experiences that carry immediate and unique skills to the learning process.

These unique skills and experiences may have been acquired throughout their lifetime, and when the learner is able to recognize familiar connections to previous experiences, learning can be greatly accelerated, carrying great potential to expand the learner’s base of knowledge. Experience, Lindeman (1961) similarly explains, should be the highest priority and value in adult education. Lindeman was not an advocate for classifications of knowledge that would allow for specializations in small concentrated areas that neglect other areas of life; rather, he focused on learning and connecting meaning to categories of life experiences. One important assumption stressed in Lindeman’s philosophy of adult education is that education is life and learning, that can be applied to immediate, day-to-day experience, is the greatest quality of education. In addition, as adults progress through life, they gather a wealth of experience that may add value to learning when meaning is connected to the experience through personal evaluation.

Not all experiences may be equally educative; however, as Dewey (1938) explains, some experiences are miseducative and can inhibit future growth. While Dewey did not equate
experience with education, he did regard education coming through experience. The quality of the experience, according to Dewey, is important for the learner with regard to agreeableness or disagreeableness and influence on further experiences. Dewey describes continuity and interaction as inseparable unifying aspects of experience in multiple dimensions (lateral and longitudinal). The interplay between continuity and interaction form what Dewey refers to as a situation. The interpretation of an experience is determined by the past experience and the objective or situation of the present. All experiences, claims Dewey, are stored from an individual’s past, carried forward, and have an influence on all future experiences. Dewey’s rigorous commitment to understand the nature of experience and practical value of experience has significantly contributed to individual growth, learning strategies, and educational theories.

Age, Long (1991) argues, is a characteristic of adult education and, although it may be regarded as situational, it is one of the guiding principles used to distinguish adult education from other forms of education and pre-adult schooling. Distinguishing adult learning from pre-adult learning, Long discusses, is one of the predominant practices in adult education. As adults mature, Knowles (1984) argues, they become increasingly self-directed. Knowles’ (1975) andragogical framework outlines five assumptions of a mature adult as having an independent self-concept, accumulation of life experiences, a need for learning related to changing social roles, a need for immediate application of knowledge that is problem centered, and internal motivations for learning. Based on principles of adult learning theories, as people mature and often become more introspective, it may appear that their ability to be self-directed would increase, but, upon further investigation, the results may be inconclusive.

Similarly, as Mezirow (1985) explains, a prerequisite for autonomy in self-directed learning is self-knowledge. Furthermore, Mezirow claims that understanding reasons for an individual’s wants, interests, and needs occur through critical reflection of historical, biographical, and cultural events. Maturity, Mezirow argues, is central to the process of critical reflection just as critical reflection is to self-knowledge. Mezirow extends the notion of critical thinking to self-reflective learning. Developing a clearer understanding, according to Mezirow, involves identifying dysfunction in one’s life by understanding psychological assumptions of dependency acquired from experiences earlier in life. Similarly, Brookfield (1987) links critical reflection to critical thinking involving an ability to question existing behaviors, ideas, and information. Brookfield identifies four components to critical thinking as the ability to identify and challenge existing assumptions, recognition of the context of thoughts and actions, considering alternatives, and developing a reflective skepticism of existing behaviors.

In the tourism industry, as self-service strategies dominate changes taking place within technological processes, support for formal, informal, and incidental learning will be necessary on an individual level and collectively throughout organizations. Continuous learning as part of an everyday process that encompasses broader aspects of employee development requires greater understanding of related variables that will lead to further development. The shift from learning as a classroom activity to more fluid methods of learning may facilitate employees to take greater personal responsibility and control for
their own learning and acquiring knowledge in a learning organization (Buyens, Wouters, and Dewettinck, 2003). Effective employees who thrive in rapidly changing environments and high levels of competition will lead to satisfied customers (Iverson, 2001).

Learning on an organizational level depends on the learning capabilities of the employees to acquire and disseminate new knowledge in certain and uncertain operating conditions. Furthermore, employees in learning organizations require problem solving capabilities that lead to development in their capacity for future continuous learning (Senge, 1990). In highly competitive environments induced with an explosion of knowledge and technology, such as the tourism industry, adaptation to change is at the center of organizational learning capabilities (Buyens et al., 2003). With technology fueling the growth in the demand for continuous learning processes, human resource development professionals must refocus the traditional roles of trainers who simply provide specific training activities to becoming facilitators of change. Training activities, Buyens et al argue, remains a part of human resource development but is not necessarily the main product. Creating a work environment that is favorable for learning with unique personal development opportunities is the focus of an effective human resource development strategy.

Participation in learning activities provides learners the opportunity to actively shape the learning environment that fits closely to their job responsibilities. Buyens et al suggest that integrating training directly with work activities, more fluid levels of continuous learning may be achieved with real life challenges centered on the job. Fostering learning on the job is one of the most stimulating work environments for employees and creates an important condition for creating an effective learning atmosphere.

**Methodology**
A facilitator administered the survey to 216 employees who volunteered for the study and were employed in the tourism industry. Completion time of the survey was 30 minutes. Participants were granted privacy in a secluded room while completing the survey to ensure accurate and honest responses to survey questions. Participants were presented with an informed consent form before they participated in the study that clearly explained the voluntary nature of participation, ability to withdraw from the survey at any time, and confidentiality of the participants’ identities. The convenience sample size of 216 employees was adequate for the three predictors in the stepwise multiple linear regression model and consisted of a balanced representation of industry experience, education, and age.

A survey integrating the Oddi Continuing Learning Inventory (OCLI) and descriptive questions was presented to the participants as a five-page instrument, consisting of 49 questions. The OCLI instrument was administered to assess employees’ levels of self-directed learning readiness. The relationships among OCLI scores and personal characteristics (industry experience, education, age) were examined. Respondents circled an answer from a seven point Likert scale ranging from one, strongly agree, to seven, strongly disagree, to best describe their behavior. The survey was scored by the
researcher of this study according to the guidelines provided by the author, Oddi, to
obtain an overall OCLI measurement. The total self-directed learning readiness score
from the survey was used in the statistical procedures as recommended in the literature
(Brockett and Hiemstra, 1991; Oddi, 1984).

Developed as a doctoral dissertation by Oddi (1984), the OCLI instrument was
administered to assess employees’ levels of self-directed learning readiness. Personal
characteristics (industry experience, education, age), and OCLI scores were examined.
Data were coded as follows: Education--coded by highest attainment level of high school,
associate’s degree, still at university (undergraduate), bachelor’s degree, still at university
(graduate), master’s degree and higher. The OCLI survey is one of the most widely
reliable and validated instruments used for the measurement of readiness for self-directed
learning (Brockett & Hiemstra, 1991). The OCLI survey consists of 24 items measuring
the level of self-directed learning readiness of adults. With a reported Cronbach’s alpha
of 0.88 and retest reliability of r = 0.89, the OCLI is an adequately reliable instrument for
this study (Oddi, 1984).

By examining the relationship of the survey constructs to behavioral characteristics that
indicate self-directed learning readiness, validation of the OCLI instrument was
conducted (Oddi, Ellis, and Altman-Roberson, 1990). Three theories were developed to
describe the affective, motivational, and cognitive attributes of the self-directed learner.
The proactive drive versus reactive drive, commitment to learning versus apathy to
learning, and cognitive openness versus defensiveness were reported by Oddi et al (1990)
to be the three constructs that emerged. Factor analysis reported by Oddi (1984) indicated
that OCLI items contained self-confidence, autonomous learning, and learning with the
participation of others. When items were loaded on a general factor analysis, reading
avidity and self-regulation emerged as subsidiary factors. No factor was related to the
cognitive openness in the analysis since scores failed to correlate with the adult
intelligence factor.

When scores failed to correlate with adult intelligence, discriminate validity was
provided. The two other dimensions that Oddi describes as reading avidity and ability to
be self-regulating positively correlated with self-confidence, participation, and endurance.
These results indicate that the total OCLI score can be used to provide a reliable and valid
measure for the construct of self-directed learning readiness.

**Findings**

Due to missing responses on the OCLI scale, four participants were eliminated from the
study with 212 participants providing an adequate sample size for the number of
predictors used in the stepwise multiple linear regression model. Descriptive data for the
total sample include gender, age, ethnicity, education, position, and tourism related
industry experience. The sample contained 52% females (n = 111) and 48% males (n =
101). The average age of the participants was 34 years, with employees ranging from 21
to 63 years of age. Ethnicity was divided with 14% African American (n = 30), 2%
American Indian (n = 5), 17% Asian (n = 35), 45% Caucasian (n = 96), 13% Hispanic (n
= 27), and 9% Pacific Islander (n = 19). Level of education represented 35% with a high
school diploma (n = 76), 12% with an associate’s degree (n = 25), 24% enrolled in undergraduate education (n = 50), 19% with a completed bachelor’s degree (n = 41), 3% enrolled in graduate education (n = 6), and 7% with a completed master’s degree or higher (n = 14). In addition, the sample consisted of 34% working as supervisors (n = 71), while the majority, 66%, were non-supervisors (n = 141). Industry experience for employees who participated in the study ranged from less than a year to 33 years, with an average number of 8 years of tourism related work experience.

The final stepwise multiple linear regression model consisted of one predictor variable, education, while industry experience and age were excluded. Data inspection did not locate any outliers, therefore, no cases were deleted from the analysis. Evaluations of linearity, Kolmogorov-Smirnov tests of normality, homoscedasticity, and multicollinearity showed that the assumptions were met within the range of tolerance. One of the three variables, education, entered into the overall model, $R^2 = .81, R^2_{adj} = .81$, $F(1, 210) = 197.52, p = .001$. The final stepwise multiple linear regression model accounted for 81.1% of the variance in OCLI scores.

The stepwise multiple linear regression model reported that education had a statistically significant relationship (.05 level of significance) to the self-directed learning readiness of employees in the tourism industry. The strength of the correlation between education and self-directed learning readiness ($r = .696$) indicated that the higher the level of education attained, the higher self-directed learning readiness scores.

**Conclusion**

This research examined whether significant relationships existed among selected personal variables related to the self-directed learning readiness of employees in the tourism industry. Based on the results of these findings, strategies may be focused to align learning initiatives to maximize performance expectations. Specifically, by understanding the strength that education, for example, has on the self-directed learning readiness of employees, strategies can help to align effective processes that embrace self-directed learning and support areas that threaten or inhibit self-directed learning.

With greater emphasis on productivity and accountability for individual performance, organizations in the tourism industry are required to maximize the talents of all employees through continuous change and learning opportunities. With the rapid development of technology, specifically self-service technology, new opportunities and challenges for tourism organizations are being created. Since the competitiveness of tourism organizations is the result of the skill level and ability of employees to rapidly adapt to change, responsibility for performance is increasingly shifting towards self-directedness. Senge (1990) similarly argues that the challenge of an organization is to effectively engage employees with continuous and personal learning.

As self-service technologies are leading change initiatives in the tourism industry, continuous learning activities that build critical thinking skills will be necessary for tourism organizations to competitively operate in this uncertain and rapidly developing environment. Furthermore, as technology continues to fuel the growth of information,
employees are being challenged to continuously interpret and apply new information that is relevant to their unique situations. Self-service technology is reported to be at the beginning of the adoption curve and, within the near future, is expected to expand in growth from $128 billion to over $41.3 trillion (Frary, 2005). The impact for employees and customers is expected to be enormous. In view of this staggering opportunity for growth, learning initiatives will need close examination to ensure that employees’ skill levels can optimize the organization’s technological capabilities.

In practice, tourism organizations that are able to incorporate and apply self-directed learning concepts into their self-service processes may benefit in delivering successful programmes to their employees and customers. With further understanding in the differences of self-directed learning readiness, measurement, and benchmarking procedures among participants, tourism organizations have an opportunity to gain competitive advantages. Training and development practices should be applied to provide greater opportunities for employees to participate in personal learning goals and objectives.

By applying self-directed learning practices employees can have greater opportunities to practice making decisions and develop critical thinking skills. For example, the shift from learning as a classroom activity to more fluid methods of learning may facilitate employees to take greater personal responsibility and control for their own learning and acquiring knowledge in a learning organization (Buyens et al., 2003). In the tourism industry, as self-service strategies dominate changes taking place within technological processes, support for formal, informal, and incidental learning will be necessary to apply on an individual level and collectively throughout organizations.

Continuous learning as part of an everyday process that encompasses broader aspects of employee development requires greater understanding of related variables that will lead to further development. Integration and application of self-directed learning readiness instruments for pre-screening employees, or during new hire orientation, may also help tourism industry organizations understand the level of self-directed learning readiness of their workforce. Training and development initiatives can focus on the specific needs of the diverse skill levels of employees and departments. Levels of facilitation can be efficiently adjusted and applied to meet the needs of specific areas of the tourism operation.

While offering suggestions for future research investigations to refine self-directed learning, careful consideration should be given to the operational definition of variables. The operational components of tourism in this study were limited to what the participating organizations offered and hence, a limitation of this research. Future research should encompass a greater diversity of tourism industry components. When implementing self-service technologies, practices should also parallel self-directed learning concepts to provide users greater control of the experience. The complexity of examining aspects related to self-directed learning may appear to be narrow in some circumstances yet broad in others. Inquiry into self-directed learning, however, should continue to experiment with variables that will provide significant relationships and
predictive capabilities with self-directed learning instruments to measure participants’ levels of readiness in both educational and occupational environments.

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