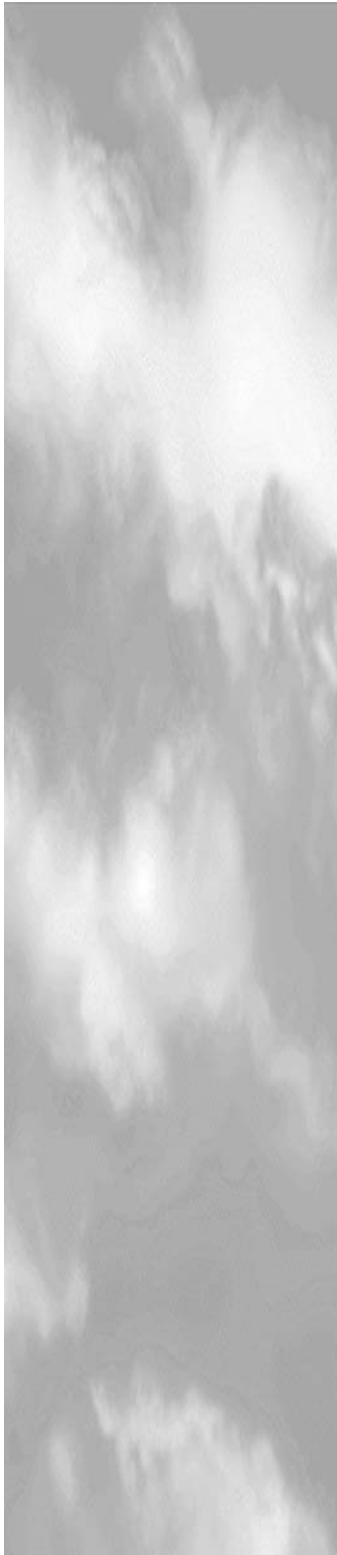


Human resource management

An enterprise's human assets or, put more conventionally, its human resources tend to be one of the most significant costs for most hospitality enterprises. In most hotels the payroll is the single biggest cost item, whilst in restaurants and bars it is usually second only to material costs. Furthermore, human resources are usually the first point of contact between an enterprise and its customers. The effective management of these human resources is therefore vital to the success of the enterprise. In smaller enterprises, management of the staff is by line managers who are often also the owners of the business. In larger enterprises the line managers will be assisted in staff management issues by human resource or personnel managers.

In talking with many personnel and human resource managers and in looking at many of the writings and research on human resource management, it is apparent that the role played by these human resource specialists varies considerably from employer to employer. These roles can be likened to the skills and functions involved in the building industry. At the basic level are the technicians such as electricians and plumbers. The human resource or personnel equivalent would be the recruiter or trainer. Above the technicians comes the builder, who carries out the wishes of the client by coordinating the activities of the various technicians. The human resource equivalent is the personnel manager, responsible for executing senior line managers' directions by



carrying out a range of tasks himself or herself and/or by coordinating the personnel technicians. Above the builder comes the architect, who is responsible for interpreting the client's wishes and advising the client about the best solutions. In the human resource context the equivalent is a human resource manager who is directly involved in business policy making and implementation.

Human resource policies are normally a part of an organization's overall policy, which will consist of a number of components (Figure 2.1). The extent to which they are a subpolicy or an essential component of the overall policy may be a key indicator of how an organization values its human assets and its human resource or personnel function.

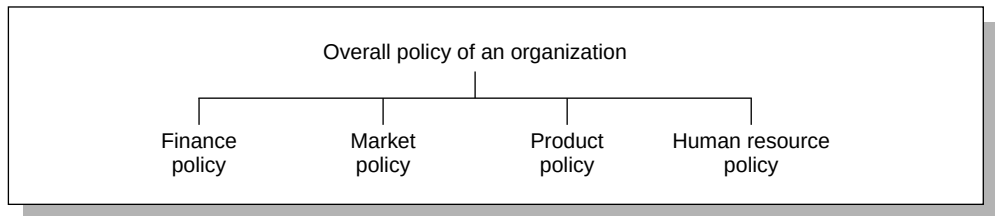


Figure 2.1 The components of an organization's policy

Virtually every management decision affects, to a greater or lesser extent, the people working in the organization. Most decisions are made within an organization's policy framework, explicit or implicit. Policies represent the aims, purposes, principles or intentions of an organization and provide the framework or guidelines for management decisions. Policies, sometimes expressed as 'mission statements', may be written down, as is the case with many larger organizations. Alternatively they may be merely inferred by decisions taken. Some companies in the hotel and catering industry, such as McDonald's, have a policy to operate within a narrow product sector. Other companies, such as Whitbread and Accor, have a policy to operate within many market sectors. These policies provide the management with the framework within which they make their decisions; e.g. where to expand, what to divest, how to expand, such as through organic growth, franchise, or merger and acquisition.

A debate has long raged concerning the differences between human resource management and personnel management. Some hold the view that human resource management is merely a new name for personnel management, whereas others consider it to be a new and different view of the way human resources are managed by the enterprise.

David Guest has written (*Personnel Management*, January 1989) that there are probably three popular approaches to defining 'human resource management'. The first is merely a retitling of personnel management, the second approach emphasizes the strategic aspects of managing human resources, and the third approach suggests that human resource management is 'distinctively different' from personnel management.

Ian Beardwell and Len Holden (1997) state that 'the term Human Resource Management has come to be used... as a description of the management of

employees'. These authors then go on to discuss a range of different perspectives suggesting that human resource management may be:

- the renaming of the traditional personnel function
- a managerial fusion of personnel management and industrial relations
- an enabling and development role for the individual employee
- a strategic managerial function aimed at determining and achieving organizational goals.

Storey (2001: p. 6) defines HR management as 'a distinctive approach to employment management which seeks to achieve competitive advantage through the strategic deployment of a highly committed and capable workforce, using an integrated array of cultural, structural and personnel techniques'. Storey points to the strategic qualities of contemporary human resource management, that HR policies are increasingly integrated with business strategies. Storey also refers (2001: p. 9) to the frequent description of HRM as being either 'hard' or 'soft' in characteristic. The hard approach to HRM (also known as the 'Michigan' dimension) stresses the need for a business-oriented style, with an emphasis on productivity, efficiency in utilization of human resources and the achievement of business goals. The soft approach (known as the 'Harvard' dimension), considers much more the achievement of goals of mutual benefit to both employee and organization, with greater emphasis on motivation and commitment of the human resource, shared values and worker involvement. In relation to the hospitality industry it is clear that due to its reliance on a capable and service-oriented workforce, there is a need to ensure true alignment between business strategies and plans and the HRM strategies and plans (see Holbeche, 2001). This concept of 'fit' between business and HR policy is much discussed in recent literature, based on the assumption that if HRM is more in line or contingent with the external environment and the organization's business strategy, then higher performance will result and the competitive edge is assured (Legge, cited in Storey, 2001). Another strand of thinking on HRM stresses the value of organizational culture, of individual commitment and mutuality of objectives and beliefs of both organization and employee (Beardwell, Holden and Claydon, 2004; Lucas, 2004). An emphasis on the elements that form the organization's culture is also a strong boost for the significance of HRM policies and practice, as most of such elements, from behaviours and rituals to communications and reward systems, may be influenced by the people management of the business, especially in the service sector.

From this brief description of human resource management it is apparent that good human resource management should be the responsibility of all managers – not just personnel managers. And if the Institute of Personnel Management's (IPM, now the Chartered Institute of Personnel and Development (CIPD)) original definition of personnel management is examined, it is apparent that there are strong similarities:

Personnel management is a responsibility of all those who manage people, as well as being a description of the work of those who are employed as specialists. It is that part of management which is concerned with people at work and with their relationships within an enterprise. It applies not only to industry and commerce but to all fields of employment.

Personnel management aims to achieve both efficiency and justice, neither of which can be pursued successfully without the other. It seeks to bring together and develop into an effective organization the men and women who make up an enterprise, enabling each to make his or her own best contribution to its success both as an individual and as a member of a working group. It seeks to provide fair terms and conditions of employment, and satisfying work for those employed.

The main distinction is that the CIPD's definition is rather general and pluralist (i.e. it indicates a balancing of the employer's and employees' interests) whereas the definitions put forward by Guest and Storey are more concerned with resourcing so that the organization's desired outcomes are achieved (a unitarist approach).

For the purpose of this book, human resource management is to be discussed as the concern of all managers, whereas personnel management is to be discussed as the activities of specialist personnel managers.

Human resource and personnel policies should embrace a number of different but interrelated issues. The first may be to do with deciding to be a 'leader' or 'follower' on the terms and conditions offered. A second may be concerned with human resource policies such as career prospects and to what extent an employer sets out to offer long-term secure careers to a significant proportion of the workforce. A third may deal with employee involvement and management style. To what extent do senior management really want to involve staff in decisions? One general feature of the top US companies identified by Peters and Waterman (1982) in the book *In Search of Excellence* has been a statement of company credo, and, in particular, the emphasis this has put on policy towards employees. Maybe it is this third type of concern which distinguishes human resource management from personnel management.

Personnel management as a specialist function

Personnel management, as a distinct specialization of management, is relatively new and consequently its specialist role and definition vary much more than is the case for older established specializations such as management accounting. In addition, because it leans heavily on the social sciences, its definitions and duties are more fluid.

To some, personnel management is seen as no more than the welfare branch of the company – concerned with looking after individual employees when in need. In 1986 two writers suggested that the personnel function could be described in one of three ways: clerk of works, contracts manager or architect (Tyson and Fell, 1989). In 1989 Nick Georgiades, at the European Association for Personnel Management Conference, suggested other roles: administrative handmaiden, policeman, toilet flusher, sanitary engineer. To others, it is the 'in-house staff agency', and in yet other cases the personnel management function is integrated completely into company activity. It is concerned with assisting in the harnessing of the employees' energies so that the enterprise operates efficiently, and it is also concerned with ensuring that the enterprise meets fully its social responsibilities to every employee. This is evident in the HCIMA's Hospitality Assured scheme and the Investors in People and the BHA's Excellence through People schemes (see Chapter 1).

This is no easy role, and frequently the personnel manager is seen, particularly in the private sector, as no more than a cost centre, or as the company's social conscience, by those managers who have to 'make the profits'. This should not be the case, because it must be recognized that for most organizations, there are two major functions: one is to achieve the 'group goals' such as increased sales or profits or, in the public sector, to provide services; the other is 'group maintenance', i.e. the role of creating and maintaining the group so that it can achieve its goals. Personnel managers assist management to achieve their objectives in the most effective manner by ensuring conditions of employment that attract, retain, motivate and obtain the commitment of the appropriate labour force.

Effective personnel management requires imagination in obtaining a fair share of the available labour. Consequently, good personnel policies can make considerable contributions to the success of an undertaking, and although their efforts frequently cannot be measured accurately in monetary terms, management should not be able to visualize doing its job effectively without the support of such policies. As Professor Ghoshal of INSEAD said, 'the role of HR is to support, not supplant' (*People Management*, May 1995). Figure 2.2 shows some of the issues of concern to HR managers whilst Figure 2.3 shows the main functions and responsibilities normally covered under the specialist personnel management function.

absenteeism	harassment
alcohol abuse	health and safety
annual hours contracts	information technology
assertiveness	internationalism
benchmarking	law of employment
bullying	organization structures – business process re-engineering
change management	outplacement
communications	outsourcing
competencies	part-time working
continuous professional development	performance-related pay
culture and cultural change	psychological tests
delaying	quality and human resource management
discipline	racial discrimination
distancing	re-engineering
drug abuse	sexual discrimination
empowerment	smoking at work
equal opportunities – discrimination on grounds of gender, race, age, disability	trade unions
ethics	violence
'family friendly' policies	
flexible working – flexible contracts	
flexible pay systems	

Figure 2.2 Some issues in human resource management

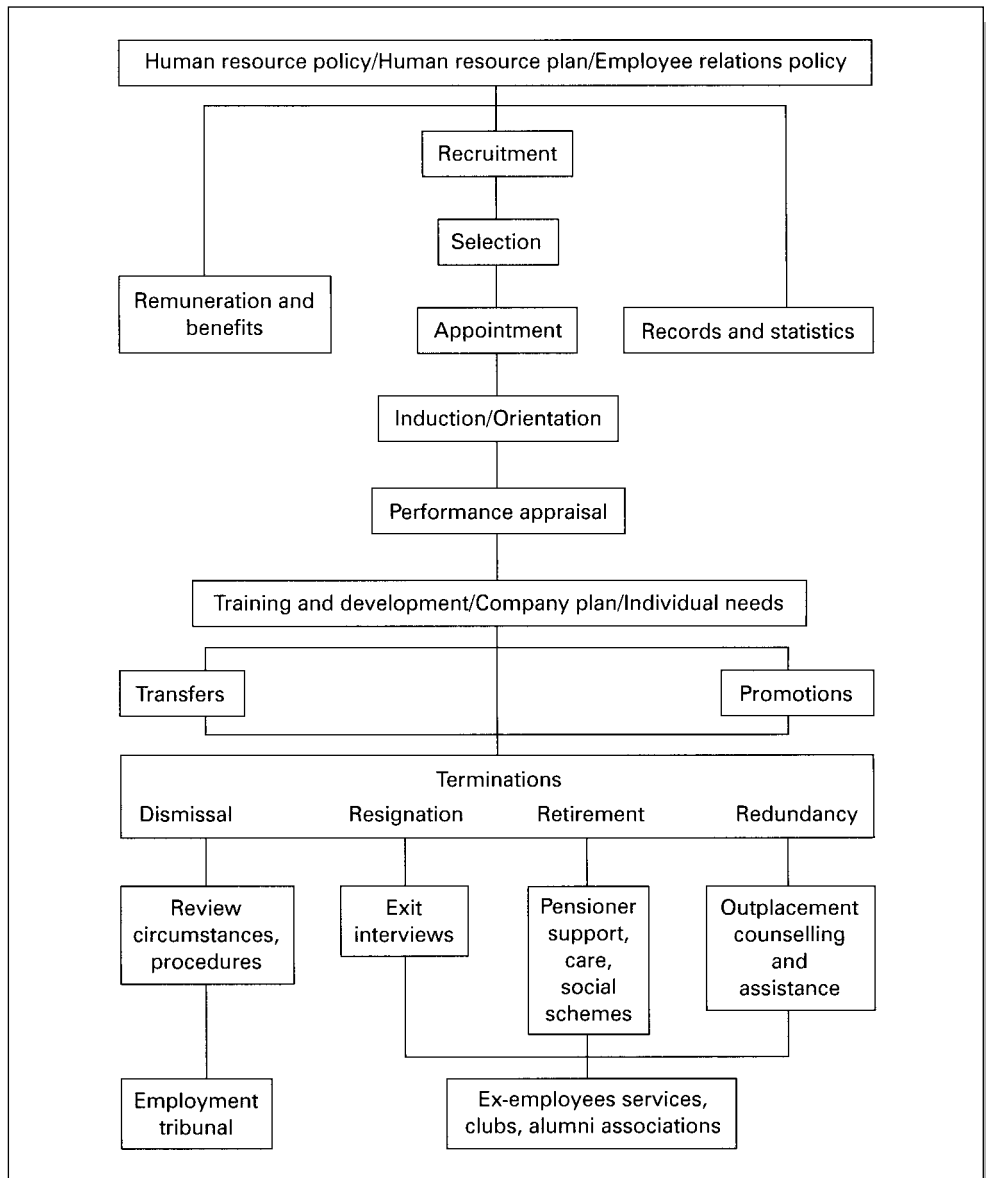


Figure 2.3 Elements of the specialist personnel management function

Human resource policies

Human resource policies do not develop in a vacuum, however. They are, as stated earlier, an expression of the style of management of an organization, an expression of its values. Human resource policies should be dynamic, both changing with and bringing about changes in the behaviour of the workforce and the organization. The part a personnel department can play in helping to formulate human resource policies will depend crucially on its current standing in the organization. However, its importance can often be estimated by looking at the levels of risk with which the

function is involved. Figure 2.4 illustrates the different levels of risk with which an organization's personnel department can be associated.

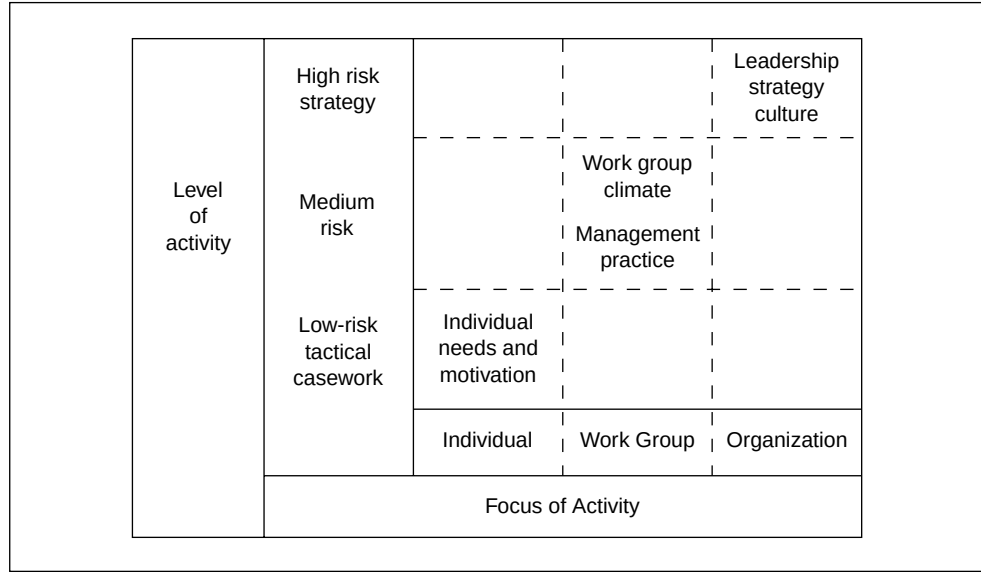


Figure 2.4 The level of personnel work

Source: *Personnel Management*, February 1990.

In order to arrive at a clearer understanding of the relationship between human resource policies and the style of management of an organization, it is necessary for managers and students of management to look at the findings of those who have studied the behaviour of people at work.

One of the problems in attempting such a task is the amount of published work available and the wide variety of opinions it expresses. Therefore only what this author considers the most important points have been selected. (Anyone wishing to study the subject should refer, as a starting point, to the reading list at the end of this chapter.)

People at work

The study of people at work falls within the province of the social sciences which are concerned with studying the relationships between individuals, groups of individuals and their environment. The knowledge obtained can be used in two principal ways, namely to understand and predict changes, i.e. to focus on 'content', and to bring about change, i.e. to focus on 'process' (see Mullins, 2005). The fundamental conclusion to be drawn from the work of behavioural scientists (Figure 2.5), and Abraham Maslow in particular, is that humans are satisfaction-seeking animals motivated primarily by their biological needs. Hotel and catering managers should be more conscious of the truth of this than most others. In addition, and unlike most other animals, once humans' biological needs are satisfied,

1841–1925	Henri Fayol (France)	Claimed to be the earliest known proponent of a theoretical analysis of managerial activities. He defined management as five functions: • to forecast • to organize • to command • to coordinate • to control.
1864–1920	Max Weber (Germany)	Responsible for defining three types of legitimate elements or criteria, including a clearly defined hierarchy, objective selection.
1856–1915	Frederick W. Taylor (USA)	The founder of the movement known as 'scientific management'. He proposed four 'great underlying principles': • the development of a true science of work • the scientific selection and progressive development of the workman • the bringing together of the science of work and the scientifically selected and trained man • the constant and intimate cooperation of management and men.
1880–1949	Elton Mayo (USA)	Often referred to as the founder of the Human Relations movement. His work demonstrated the importance of groups in affecting the behaviour of individuals at work. He is most famous for the Hawthorne investigations which led to a fuller understanding of the 'human factor' at work.
1903–1981	Rensis Likert (USA)	Showed that effective supervisors and managers tended to be 'employee centred' rather than 'job centred'. Likert distinguished four systems of management: • exploitive/authoritative • benevolent/authoritative • consultative • participative. He favoured the participative system, although other systems could also produce high productivity.
1906–1964	Douglas McGregor (USA)	Famous for theories X and Y. In theory X, people are assumed to dislike work and need direction and control. In theory Y, people are assumed to enjoy work and external control is not necessary. Managers' assumptions about their subordinates shape their behaviour.
Born 1923	Frederick Herzberg (USA)	Famous for demonstrating that factors that lead to dissatisfaction (hygiene factors) are quite different from those that lead to satisfaction (motivators). Determinants of job satisfaction are: • achievement • recognition • work itself • responsibility • advancement

Figure 2.5 Eleven theorists who have contributed to management thinking

		• company policy and administration • supervision • salary • interpersonal relations • working conditions.								
1908–1970	Abraham Maslow (USA)	Maslow saw human needs in a form of hierarchy, for which he is famous; as one set of needs is satisfied, another emerges. Their order is: • physiological needs • security and safety needs • affiliation or acceptance needs • esteem needs • self-actualization.								
Born 1909	Peter Drucker (USA)	Famous for developing the concept of 'management by objectives' (MbO). He believes that there are five basic principles of management: • set objectives • organize • motivate and communicate • measure performance • develop people.								
	Edgar Schein (USA)	Known for his work on motivation – introducing the concepts of the 'psychological contract' and the 'career anchor' into the language of management. His work also included the study of corporate culture – an organization's set of artifacts, values and assumptions.								
	Amitai Etzioni (USA)	Developed the classification of managers' power and workers' involvement <table><tr><th>Managers' power</th><th>Workers' involvement</th></tr><tr><td>Coercive</td><td>Alienative</td></tr><tr><td>Utilitarian</td><td>Calculative</td></tr><tr><td>Normative</td><td>Moral</td></tr></table>	Managers' power	Workers' involvement	Coercive	Alienative	Utilitarian	Calculative	Normative	Moral
Managers' power	Workers' involvement									
Coercive	Alienative									
Utilitarian	Calculative									
Normative	Moral									

Figure 2.5 *continued*

further needs emerge – mainly of a social nature. This manifests itself in the pursuit of status, security, power and other outward signs of success. Most people may not be conscious of these needs that drive or motivate them. If, however, management can recognize them, they can take appropriate steps to ensure that these driving forces can be used to the advantage of both the organization and the individual.

The first need, the need for bodily comfort, is satisfied relatively simply by adequate meals and housing. Most advanced nations, recognizing that the satisfaction of this need is essential to the survival of individuals and of society, ensure by and large that no one needs to go without food and shelter. Individuals in our society, therefore, no longer accept that working merely for food and shelter is an end in itself. There are many cases where people are financially better off being unemployed rather than employed, and consequently they choose to remain

unemployed. One report indicated that although pay is the single most important aspiration of unemployed people, satisfying and stimulating work and good relations with colleagues and managers are also regarded as being important (Hall, 1989). Most people expect much more from their employment than being able merely to purchase food and shelter.

Physical security is also these days very largely assured by the state. Regulations designed to protect the community and the individual from injury or disease penetrate every aspect of our daily lives, ranging from traffic to hygiene regulations. When people fall ill or suffer injury, the state cares for them so that they do not fear the consequences to the same extent as they may have done in the past or that they might in many other countries today. Therefore, seeking employment with low physical risk or with benevolent employers is no longer as important as it may have been a century or even fifty years ago. Consequently, because some basic needs are now largely guaranteed by the state, they no longer provide the motivation that they once did; some say that this provision has created a 'dependency culture' in some sections of the population. Instead, other and much more complex needs – the social needs – have emerged.

Satisfactory relationships with other people are among the highest of our needs. To work with, and for people we get on with, is something most of us like to do, and it is no doubt a major force attracting many people into the hospitality industry. In looking at staff turnover it should be noted that the greatest numbers leave in the earliest days of employment – the period when relationships have not developed. On the other hand, one of the main reasons why people stay in their jobs when all other conditions should encourage them to leave is their relationship with those at work, including colleagues, bosses, subordinates and customers.

In modern society another aspect of our relationship with others which plays a significant part is our need for social acceptance. Frequently this depends on our job and our way of living. By certain indications society locates us on the social ladder, but many people not content with their position attempt to move up. Social mobility has increased considerably even in the last 30 years and the main evidence is change of occupational status, type of housing, earning more money, obtaining a variety of other status symbols such as motor cars, longer holidays, thicker carpet in the office, etc., or even by changing from one occupation or employer to another with a higher social standing. This fact unfortunately deters many people from working in the hotel and catering industry because many of its jobs, in spite of being highly skilled, are not awarded the status awarded to other jobs demanding the same or maybe less skill. It is in this area that the industry's trade and professional bodies need to do a great deal of work. This problem is not unique to Britain. At the International Hotel and Restaurants Association Conferences in Tel Aviv in 1995 and in The Netherlands in 1999 the delegates resolved that national bodies worldwide needed to put greater effort into improving the perceived standing of hotel and catering work. The contribution of HRM (or lack of it) in hospitality firms towards image improvement has been a frequent criticism of the sophistication of HRM practices in the sector. However, recent research within UK hotels has revealed a general improvement in the quality of HRM, in the perceived value of jobs in the sector relative to other economic activities, and indeed of a favourable comparison with HRM approaches in those other activities (Hoque, 2000).

Next on the list of human needs comes the need to satisfy one's own ambitions and aspirations. This usually means making the maximum use of one's intellectual, social and manual skills. It may include the desire to be a company chairman or, more modestly, the wish to produce a satisfactory piece of workmanship. Today, with the undoubted economic need for mass production and consequent simplification, whether it be the production of in-flight meals or motor cars, a person's need for this satisfaction is constantly overridden. It is one of the strongest needs of working people and one for which they often make considerable sacrifices. Much research shows that people will put in long hours in difficult conditions even for low pay when intrinsic job satisfaction is high.

Finally – having satisfied all these needs – security of their continuing satisfaction is itself another and, these days, a growing need. Mergers and acquisitions along with automation now threaten many more people than ever before, and even those who a few years ago could feel secure no longer do so. The current trend to distancing and outsourcing, i.e. employing people on short contracts, through agencies, etc., whilst increasing an employer's flexibility, reduces job security. Seeking this security now plays an important part in employment relations and many people leave insecure employment for what they believe to be a secure alternative position. It is usually found that where job security is higher, such as in the public sector, labour turnover is lower – completely unlike the rate of labour turnover in some sectors of the hotel and catering industry, where job tenure is often short and notoriously precarious. Job security normally leads to a stable and skilled labour force with many of the consequent efficiencies. On the other hand, job security can be such that it can work against the best interests of the organization, with abuse abounding, such as excessive absenteeism and the protection of the grossly inefficient, as is the case in many public sector organizations.

When all these needs are satisfied, it is argued that an employee is more likely to offer stable and competent service, but, if any one of these needs remains unsatisfied, they will almost certainly behave in one of a variety of ways, some of which are contrary to the business interest.

First, they may seek employment elsewhere which offers more likelihood of a satisfying job. Second, they may seek other compensations, such as extra money or more time-off. If they have leadership qualities, they may become the focus for group, rather than individual, aspirations or dissatisfaction, and this may lead them to play an active part in trade union affairs or other similar activities. Third, they may just opt out and seek their satisfaction outside work, for example, at home or in club activities. In between these three distinct patterns of behaviour there are many degrees that most managers will recognize, including absenteeism, lateness, waste, pilferage and, of course, lack of cooperation or even sheer obstructionism, not all of which is blamed on management.

The behavioural scientist F. Herzberg developed a theory that suggests two largely independent sets of factors influence work behaviour. One set of factors, the 'hygiene' factors (such as work conditions), influence mainly the level of dissatisfaction. Improving the hygiene factors removes causes of dissatisfaction but without motivating the worker. Room temperature illustrates the point: ideal temperature goes unnoticed and does not motivate a person; a temperature that is too hot or too cold creates discomfort and demotivates.

The other set of factors are known as ‘motivators’ (achievement, praise, work itself). These actually make people feel positive about their work and have to be built into work in order to motivate the workforce. Ideally the hygiene factors should be put right at the same time.

Some alternative models of excellence in human resource management

Research conducted by the London School of Economics (see Guest, 1989) identified a number of different approaches to personnel management. These are as follows.

A paternalist welfare model

This approach emphasizes the need to look after employees as a means to the employees, in turn, looking after customers. An oft-quoted example from the past is Marks and Spencer or the former Trusthouse Forte.

A production model

The principal role of the personnel department is to support continuity of production by ensuring a proper supply of human resources, properly regulated through clear and consistent industrial relations guidelines. The Ford Motor Company is cited as an example.

A professional model

This model is based upon demonstrated and acknowledged competence of the personnel department in such technical areas as selection, training, pay and industrial relations. Examples include Shell and ICI.

A human resource model

This reflects a people-orientated focus throughout the organization, including respect for the individual, full utilization of individual abilities and sophisticated policies for employee involvement. An example of such a company is IBM.

Modern-day Taylorism

A variant of the production model, this is found in parts of the service sector. An example is McDonald's.

Which approach for which organization?

Most organizations will have to pay much closer attention to their human resource policies as labour markets become tighter, and expectations and aspirations of working people become heightened. Which of the above models or variants on these models will be the most suitable depends upon a whole range of different influences. The five different models above suggest that there are different solutions for different product markets and different technologies.

Human resource management and styles of leadership

A finding of considerable importance, highlighted by Douglas McGregor in his book *The Human Side of Enterprise* (1960), is that most people behave in the way expected of them and consequently live up or down to their superiors' expectations. Therefore the relationship between employee and boss can be described as a dynamic one: the higher the expectations made (within reason) of an employee, the higher the performance, and consequently even higher expectations can and will be made of and met by him or her in the future.

The style of management is therefore of vital importance in an organization because this determines to a large extent whether employees obtain satisfaction from their jobs and whether managers will achieve their business objectives.

The 'authoritarian' manager generally manages by issuing orders and instructions leaving little or no opportunity for discussion or even explanation. Very similar to this style is the 'unitarist' style, which is based on a reliance on traditional market forces and hierarchical systems with a clear split between the responsibilities of management and those of the workforce.

There are also the 'democratic' managers, who recognize that they are not only leading but are also part of a team and that this requires the others in the team – the staff – to be involved in decisions through discussion and explanation. The expression 'pluralist' is often used nowadays to describe such a style of management which recognizes that the aspirations of all sections of the workforce are to be taken into account in the decision-making process. A recent manifestation of democratic management is 'empowerment', discussed in the next chapter.

The third manager, the laissez-faire type, abdicates responsibility – leaving his or her staff to face the problems that are rightly more the manager's. The staff are left to face complaints from customers without the authority to rectify or overcome causes of disruption.

These three very simplified descriptions of styles of management have been included to illustrate that there are several different ways of managing and there are complex interactions between the individuals, the tasks and the environment, which usually determine a particular style of management.

There also exist different attitudes towards the workforce. Amitai Etzioni (1980) has produced a useful classification of the power used by managers to ensure compliance, and as with McGregor's theory, it can be shown that particular styles have particular effects. Etzioni states that there are three principal management orientations to workers. First, there is the use of coercive power, in which fear of the consequences is the main motivator. Those managers who bewail the passing of the 'divine right of dismissal' most probably fall into this category. The second category is the utilitarian use of power. This depends upon the manipulation of material rewards such as wages, and is commonly seen in large manufacturing industries where the predominant reward for work done is money. It is also seen in the hotel and catering industry, particularly in the way seasonal and casual workers are employed. Etzioni's third category is normative power. This rests largely upon the use of prestige, esteem and social acceptance. The managers of many organizations are motivated very much in this way, seeking power, responsibility, recognition, acceptance, titles, bigger cars, admission to prestige-carrying committees, etc.

Etzioni goes on to argue that each management type has a corresponding form of worker involvement. First, there is an alienative involvement which signifies that the employee has strong negative attitudes towards the employer. Normally this would persist only where no reasonable employment alternatives exist, but such an attitude might be manifested in various forms of sabotage, theft or, worst of all, arson (which does occur in hotels and restaurants). Second, Etzioni identifies a calculative involvement which is based on money or material exchange. Casual workers in catering are very likely to have this attitude towards their employers. Third, there is a moral involvement which signifies that the employee identifies closely with the employer's and colleagues' values and objectives. Employees will carry out their work because they value the objectives of the work.

In addition, Storey (2001) writes that an examination of many personnel texts will show that for much of its history, personnel management has been a management process or function concerned with achieving compliance from employees. More recently, however, there has been concern with achieving full employee commitment. Figure 2.6 illustrates an example of how this commitment can be expressed strategically.

Having given these brief outlines of some important contributions to our understanding of work people's behaviour, it must be emphasized that there are many other important contributions which, perforce, have had to be omitted. Our purpose, however, is to show that there are different, often mutually supporting, explanations of behaviour which state that different styles of management engender different worker attitudes.

Related research also demonstrates that there is no such thing as a universal leadership or management quality. Instead, successful management and leadership is contingent upon the interaction of a whole variety of factors, among which the nature of the goods and services being offered and the market itself are critical.

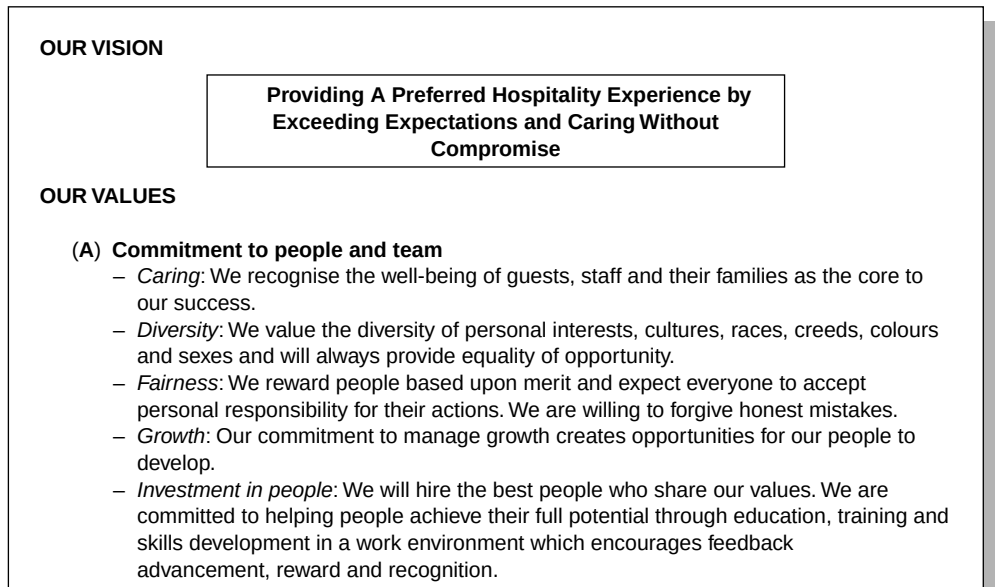


Figure 2.6 Mission, vision and value of Pan Pacific Hotels and Resorts

Source: Reproduced by courtesy of Pan Pacific.

- *Integrity*: We generate mutual respect for each other through honesty, truthfulness, maintaining our honour and keeping our work.
- *Empowerment*: Our people will be empowered with the skills, tools and authority to ensure that guest expectations are exceeded.
- *Openness in communication*: We will listen intently to understand, clearly state our expectations, provide appropriate and timely feedback, and share information and ideas. It is OK to say 'I don't know', or 'I don't agree'.
- *Openness of mind*: We will be receptive to new ideas and value the freedom of one's mind and thoughts.
- *Respect*: We have mutual respect for each other's talents and value dearly the contribution of all our associates.
- *Teamwork*: We believe in the strength and value of working together and cooperating for a common purpose.

(B) Commitment to business excellence

- *Creativity*: We value originality and being in the forefront of new ideas.
- *Excellence/Quality*: We will constantly strive to achieve the highest level of quality given the existing environment.
- *Flexibility*: Flexibility in management style allows us to diversify beyond the confines of the hospitality industry and to adapt to changes.
- *Fun at work*: We encourage the belief that work should be enjoyable and seek to provide a happy, fulfilling and stimulating work environment.
- *Guest and customer driven*: Consistently understanding our customers' needs and meeting, even exceeding their expectations.
- *Global mindset*: Knowing no boundaries or borders, operating on a global scale, setting a world standard of quality and understanding that each hotel's success affects Pan Pacific Hotels and Resorts worldwide.
- *Pride*: We take pride in becoming a leader and making a significant difference by providing the best hospitality while relentlessly pursuing perfection.
- *Profit oriented*: We seek to ensure a healthy profit, which enables growth and furthers the well-being of the staff, the company, shareholders and owners.

(C) Commitment to community

- *Community involvement*: We value our relationships, our involvement and our respected standing within the community.
- *Environmental sensitivity*: We will work towards being environmentally responsible in all aspects of our business.
- *Heritage*: We value the local culture, traditions and customs.
- *Safe Environment*: We strive to provide a safe environment for our guests and our employees.

Figure 2.6 *continued*

A steady, non-seasonal trade, as encountered in much industrial catering, will call for a style of management very different from that required by a busy seasonal hotel. Circumstances and time, therefore, can make a manager who would have been a failure in one situation, a success in another. See also Chapter 20.

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Questions

- 1 Describe the alternative types of human resource policies that can be adopted by employers.
- 2 Using an employer from the private (commercial) sector and another from the public sector, compare and contrast their approaches to human resource management.
- 3 Discuss the nature of human resource policies that are likely to be necessary in the future to attract, retain and motivate staff. (Divide staff into a number of different categories, e.g. full-time, part-time, casual, management, supervisory, operative, craft, unskilled, male, female.)
- 4 Evaluate the human resource policies of an employer you know well.