

WOMEN OCCUPATIONAL EMPOWERMENT IN THE OMANI TOURISM SECTOR

Galal M. H. Afifi

Sultan Qaboos University, Sultanate of Oman

Nashwa Al-Sherif

Helwan University, Egypt

ABSTRACT: Investigating issues on women empowerment and employment are relatively well established in research. However, few works have been conducted in regard to tourism and even less in the Arabic region. Although tourism is a relatively new industry in Oman, women's contributions to the tourism profession in this evolving country have evidently increased in the recent years. Accordingly, this research aims to examine the attitude of the Omani women working in tourism toward this profession and to explore the extent to which gender horizontal or vertical gender segregation exists in the tourism employment, before illustrating the various driving and restraining factors influencing the Omani women's careers in tourism. A combination of semi-structured interviews and a unified survey was utilized in this research, which helped identify both qualitative and quantitative feedbacks. The research resulted in several major findings regarding the current situation of female workers in the Omani tourism sector, which could be significant for enhancing the ongoing efforts for empowering women in Oman. **Keywords:** Oman, women employment, women empowerment, tourism, gender

RESUMEN: Los estudios relativos a la capacitación y a la empleabilidad de la mujer se encuentran relativamente bien fundamentados en la investigación. Sin embargo, pocos trabajos investigativos han sido conducidos en lo que respecta al turismo, menos aún en la región Árabe. Aunque el turismo sea una industria relativamente nueva en Omán, el contributo de la mujer para las profesiones turísticas en este país en desarrollo ha aumentado visiblemente en los últimos años. De este modo, esta investigación busca examinar la actitud de las mujeres de Omán que trabajan en el área del turismo en la relación con esta profesión y analizar hasta qué punto la segregación de género vertical y horizontal existe en el sector de la empleabilidad en el turismo, para que después ilustremos los varios factores impulsores y limitadores que influencian la carrera turística de la mujer Omanesa. Utilizamos en esta pesquisa una combinación de entrevistas semiestructuradas y un cuestionario unificado que nos ayudaron a identificar retornos cualitativos y cuantitativos. La investigación apunta para grandes descubiertas en lo que respecta a la situación actual de las funcionarias del sector turístico Omanés, que se pueden revelar significativos en la ampliación de los esfuerzos continuados en favor de la capacitación de la mujer en Omán. **Palabras clave:** Omán, empleabilidad femenina, capacitación femenina, turismo, género.

RESUMO: Os estudos relativos à capacitação e à empregabilidade da mulher encontram-se relativamente bem fundamentados na investigação. Contudo, poucos trabalhos investigativos têm sido conduzidos no que diz respeito ao turismo e ainda menos na região Árabe. Embora o turismo seja uma indústria relativamente nova em Omã, a contribuição da mulher para as

Galal M. H. Afifi: Assistant professor, Sultan Qaboos University, Muscat, Sultanate of Oman. E-mail: galal@squ.edu.om

Nashwa Al-Sherif: Assistant professor, Helwan University, Cairo, Egypt. E-mail: nashwa1971@hotmail.com

profissões turísticas neste país em desenvolvimento tem vindo a crescer visivelmente nos últimos anos. Assim sendo, esta investigação visa examinar a atitude das mulheres Omanis que trabalham na área do turismo face a esta profissão e analisar até que ponto a segregação de género vertical e horizontal existe no sector da empregabilidade no turismo, para depois ilustrarmos os vários fatores impulsionadores e limitadores que influenciam a carreira turística da mulher Omani. Utilizámos nesta pesquisa uma combinação de entrevistas semiestruturadas e um questionário unificado que nos ajudaram a identificar retornos qualitativos e quantitativos. A investigação aponta para grandes descobertas no que diz respeito à situação atual das funcionárias do sector turístico Omani, que se podem revelar significativos na ampliação dos esforços continuados a favor da capacitação da mulher em Omã. **Palavras-chave:** Omã, empregabilidade feminina, capacitação feminina, turismo, género.

INTRODUCTION

In their inclusive report entitled “*Women’s Empowerment Principles: Equality Means Business*”, the United Nations Development Fund for Women (UNIFEM) and the UN Global Compact (2010) claim that empowering women to participate in the economic development at all levels and in all sectors is essential for building strong economies and stable, just societies. Other reports (e.g. UN, 2000; UNICEF, 2007) deem that empowering women is not a matter of luxury or just for strengthening women’s rights, but an issue of necessity if a country is to rise above the difficulties associated with poverty, assuming that if women are empowered to do more, economic growth will be more approachable. Conversely, eliminating a significant part of a nation’s workforce can have detrimental effects on the economy of that nation. Accordingly, “women empowerment” has recently become a noteworthy topic of research. In this context, numerous researchers (e.g. Ciulla, 1998; Page and Czuba, 1999; Blanchard *et al.*, 2001) argue that “empowerment” does not mean giving people power, as they have power in their wealth of knowledge and motivation to excel, but letting this power out by encouraging people to express their skills and knowledge to overcome obstacles in life and ultimately develop within their societies.

Although women are currently working in almost all the different aspects of life, segregation between genders in terms of employment, earnings, positions and promotions is still broadly evident. For instance, Mitra (2003) states that even though educational equality has opened up more possibilities for female

employees, there are still less opportunities for women than men, and fewer women are generally moving to senior management positions. Jurajda (2003) believes that, in many EU countries, the introduction of anti-discriminatory legislation did not lead to equality in opportunities, as studies assess that men could be paid up to 30% more than their female counterparts in the same occupations. Even in self-employment, men find it easier to raise capitals for self-employment schemes (Leung, 2006).

In this regard, researchers generally believe that there are still many barriers hindering women empowerment and equity. First and most importantly, ideas inherently lie into the cultures of certain nations and societies (Nussbaum, 1995). Even if the state and its legislators are aware of the benefits of women's equal participation, many societies could still be scared of changing the *status quo*. Accordingly, societal norms may continue impeding women empowerment, regardless of the supportive legislations (WSRWD, 2009; Wilson, 2001). Second, Cave and Kilic (2010) reckon that - even in more liberal communities – occupational stereotyping may emerge to hinder women empowerment, where women could be stereotyped as well-qualified to work in specific areas (e.g. secretarial, teaching, and nursing) rather than others (e.g. army, transportation, heavy industries). However, “women stereotyping” is definitely not a new concern, as it seems embedded in the history of humankind. Describing the historical relationship between men and women in work, Crompton (1997: 6) states, *“Women and men have always worked together... The way in which this work is divided between them, however, has changed and developed over time and still varies considerably between different societies. However for a number of reasons, most societies have allocated particular tasks to men and others to women - that is men and women have not usually performed the same work”*.

Researchers such as Mitchell (2000) and Cave and Kilic (2010) extend the list of obstacles to include also what they entitled “*community assumptions*”, which comprise: (1) women need to work close to home to escort children to and from schools and to act rapidly

in case of emergencies; (2) women have limited work experience and higher records of absence due to family responsibilities and maternity leaves; (3) women can hardly move at night due to the escalating social problems and criminal ratio. Finally, differences in educational attainment, especially in developing countries, may also cause gender occupational inequality. Accordingly, numerous researchers (e.g. Witz and Savage, 1992; Anderson and Dimon, 1995; Jordan, 1997; Ng and Pine, 2003; Skalpe, 2007; and Thrané, 2008) claim that women employment is usually associated with both horizontal and vertical segregations, where the earlier refers to differences in the type of work assigned for men and women, while the later indicates to discrimination in occupational promotions.

In tourism, the industry has undergone a period of rapid growth and consequently a mounting rate of job opportunities during the last few decades. In 2010, the UNWTO estimated that tourism jobs (direct and indirect) have boosted to more than 235 million representing about 7% of the overall number of worldwide jobs (UNWTO, 2010), and are expected to rise to almost 300 million jobs by 2019 (Merco Press, 2010). In parallel, estimations of the International Labour Organisation (ILO) show a similar increase of women's share in tourism jobs, from one-third in 1983 to 46% in 2000 (ILO, 2001).

In more details, a European Union study (1997) found out that 63% of the European tourism workers were women. In Scotland, for instance, female workers exceed the number of male workers (Boyne, 1999). In Bulgaria, several sources suggest that women represent around two-thirds of those employed in tourism (Ghodsee, 2003). In hospitality, women typically represent the majority of the workforce. This is evident in USA, where 52% of the restaurant employees were women (Soeder, 1998); Austria where women accounted for 60% – 70% of the hospitality employment (Weiermair, 1996) as well as in Denmark (62%), Australia (58%), the Netherlands (52%) and Italy (50%) (Juyaux, n.d.). Giving a comprehensive view, the United Nations Environ-

ment and Development Forum (Hemmati, 1999) claims that in countries where tourism is a more mature industry, women share in tourism employment tends to be larger than men mainly due to working in the hospitality sector.

Accordingly, UNWTO and UN Women (2011), as well as several other researchers (e.g. Cave and Kilic, 2010; Wilson, 2003), argue that tourism is an exceptionally suitable profession for women as it provides significant opportunities for women's advancement through formal, informal, and supply-chain employment. In this context, they assume that tourism offers four advantages for women. First, it provides homegrown entrepreneurship opportunities especially in handcrafting, traditional food production and local guidance, which are mostly managed by local families with limited budgets. This makes tourism more likely to employ women, poor segments, and minority groups than other industries. Second, tourism part-time and shift work as well as seasonality and therefore seasonal unemployment can be attractive for women with household responsibilities (Ghodsee, 2003). Third, tourism provides various entry points for women's employment, which enables women with different skills to find suitable work (Hemmati, 1999). Finally, tourism projects are mostly working on a small profit margin, which makes them prefer to hire cheap labour (Skalpe, 2007). According to Jordan (1997), female workers, particularly married women seeking part-time work, have habitually been available for lower payments. Therefore, women are more likely to accept lower salaries, which makes them more welcomed to work in the tourism business.

On the other hand and focusing on women's positions in tourism, Hemmati (1999) records that, resembling the situation in the labour market in general, women working in tourism suffer from both horizontal and vertical occupational segregation with less career development opportunities (Hemmati, 1999). Some researchers assume that it is even more difficult for women to get senior managerial positions in tourism than in other professions for several reasons. In hotels, for instance, managers may work

up to 12 hours a day and may frequently stay overnight; as well in some tourism and airline senior positions, travelling for days or even weeks could be the norm. Accordingly, women struggling with family responsibilities may find it difficult to compete with men when it comes to devoting time to work, which may diminish their opportunities to stand out for senior positions (McGehee et al., 2007). However, several examples support this assumption.

For instance, Cave and Kilic (2010) found out that most of the general managers in the hospitality sector in Europe are male and that men dominate senior management posts in areas such as marketing, food and beverage, and finance, while women tend to be employed as waitresses, housekeepers and receptionists. Even where women reach senior management positions, it is limited to certain posts such as human resources. At British Airways, for example, women have never occupied top executive positions and few women have been board members. Mills (2002) justifies that by the hypothesis that airlines managerial positions have always been seen as male occupations. However, this pattern of occupational segregation is evident in developing as well as developed countries including Norway, China, the United States and Mexico (Cave and Kilic, 2010). Finally, in Egypt – as an Arabic model – Al-Sharief (2005) notifies that out of 337 thousand persons working directly in tourism, only 13.9% are female, and that 6.4% of the members of managerial boards, 7.8% of the general managers, and 15.8% of the deputy general managers are female.

Women empowerment in the Omani tourism industry

Since HM Sultan Qaboos Bin Said's accession in 1970, Omani citizens have firmly been the focus of all the Omani government plans, and women development has always been a priority. Before the reforms made in the last four decades, there were only three primary schools serving 900 boys. In 1970, a new education policy for both men and women was assigned (Al-Riyami and Afifi, 2003), which boosted the female presence in schools from 0% in 1970 to 49% in 2007 (Neelufer and Goveas, 2011). As well,

Omani women who were educated overseas were invited to return back and help rebuild the nation. Currently, women represent about 49.2% of 2.1 million Omani citizens (NCSI, 2013). In labour, women are encouraged to stand out and participate in the country's development; accordingly women are currently employed in almost every profession. A UNICEF census notified in 2000 that 17% of the Omani workers were women (Dawn, 2000). More recent studies (e.g. Salha, 2010; Katzman, 2011) illustrate that this share has enlarged to 30% and that 40% of them are in professional jobs. Aiming to enhance this percentage, HM Sultan Qaboos has lately signed the Decent Work Country Programme (2010 – 2013), which is dedicated to increase job opportunities for women (Neelufer and Goveas, 2011).

On the other hand, revised national and international tourism reports disclose that Oman has been successfully developing its tourism business for some years now. With the worldwide volatility in the petroleum trade, and the expected reduction in the petroleum production, Oman has recently started encouraging tourism as a major future source of earnings. Statistics of international organizations such as the World Travel and Tourism Council (WTTC, 2011) show that the number of tourists visiting Oman has increased from less than 0.5 million in 2004 to more than 1.1 million in 2010. According to the Euro-Monitor International (2011), this number is expected to exceed the barrier of three million before 2020, relying on the ambitious tourism plans unveiled by the Omani government since drafting its “Vision 2020”. Translating this potential demand into revenues, WTTC (2011: 5) assumes that *“the total contribution of travel and tourism to GDP (including wider effects from investment, the supply chain and induced income impacts) is expected to be OMR 1,698.6mn in 2011 (6.8% of GDP). It is forecast to rise by 5.5% pa from OMR 2,906.1mn by 2021 (7.7% of GDP)”*. These promising expectations led Oman to continue supporting several mega tourism projects (e.g. Blue City, The Wave, Jabal Seifah, Muscat Dunes and Salalah Beach), despite the effects of the recent global economic downturn. It

also stimulates the Omani Ministry of Tourism (OMT) to launch its first global promotional campaign in several countries including UK, Germany, France, Netherlands, Belgium, UAE, India, and Australia using the tag-line '*Beauty has an address ~ Oman*' (Business Monitor International, 2011).

Similar to several other countries, creating new job opportunities for the incremental number of population is a foremost motive for tourism in Oman. Thus, human resources development has always been a focal point in tourism strategies and projects conducted under the auspices of the OMT. Revising the OMT official reports reveals that in 2009 about 16,507 persons were working in a wide range of tourism direct-related jobs, representing 1.5 - 2% of the total employees in Oman (Al-Balushi, 2010). The accommodation sector acquires the highest number of jobs with 48.3%, followed by airline companies with 28.4%. Far below, travel agencies, restaurant and car rental agencies come with 9.7%, 9.6% and 4% respectively. However, Omanis represented 47.7% only of the tourism employees in Oman (Table 1).

**Table 1: No. of employees in the Omani tourism Sector 2009
(Al-Balushi, 2010)**

Tourism Establishments	Omani	Non Omani	Total	% to total Jobs
Accommodation	3,557	4,416	7,973	48.3%
Airline companies	2,775	1,915	4,690	28.4%
Travel agencies	746	850	1,596	9.7%
Restaurants	632	953	1,585	9.6%
Car rental agencies	309	354	663	4%
Total	7,849	8,231	16,507	100%

Aiming to get a more thorough understanding of the tourism workforce in Oman, OMT commissioned in 2010 a UNWTO extensive project to unearth related problems and suggest policies and strategies to improve the quality of the tourism workforce. The project concluded that the size of the tourism workforce in Oman is expected to double over the following five years, and that Oman is currently facing an obvious qualitative and quantitative imbalance in the tourism employment (i.e. shortage in la-

hours' number and insufficiency in their quality). Accordingly, an action plan was suggested including a series of procedures to improve the quality and provision of education and training programmes and to strengthen the industry/education coordination (UNWTO, 2012). However, extremely few reports had discussed the role of women in the Omani tourism industry. This is not surprising as information about women tourism employment in the Arabic region is commonly scarce.

Research aim

Despite the fact that there is a plethora of studies, which have discussed women empowerment worldwide, there is less work on this issue in the Arabic region. These worldwide studies, which have been mainly focusing on Europe, America and some Asian countries, generally claim that the tourism profession can hardly be described a sector where gender equality is actually applied. On the other hand, Oman is a country, which could be described as "innovative" regarding women's rights and empowerment. Accordingly, this research aims to examine the attitude of females working in tourism toward this profession as well as to explore the extent to which gender horizontal and vertical segregations exist in tourism employment, before illustrating the various driving and restraining factors influencing the Omani women's career in tourism, which should result in suggesting recommendations for facilitating women empowerment in Oman.

METHODOLOGY

Different methodologies have been applied in studying women employment in the tourism labour market. On the one hand, Creswell (2007) argues that qualitative research is more appropriate for examining how individuals or groups view a problem as well as for suggesting solutions. In this context, Cave and Kiliç (2010), for instance, used unstructured interviews to examine the role of Turkish women in tourism employment; Marshall (2001) applied extensive semi-structured interviews to study the

relationship between women and tourism seasonality. However, a qualitative approach is highly acknowledged as more conducive for measuring the richness of women's contributions, fears, challenges and aspirations; but it is also criticized for offering limited statistical analysis possibilities. On the other hand, structured quantitative methods have as well been utilized in a considerable volume of women/tourism related studies by researchers such as (Ghodsee, 2003), who used surveys to study the state (Bulgaria) role in supporting women working in tourism. Aiming to benefit from using both qualitative and quantitative approaches, in one of the foremost studies about women's empowerment, Gentry (2007) developed a comprehensive concept merging the two approaches, by using a combination of observation, semi-structured interviews and survey. As well, Saunders et al. (2003) claim that women studies are driven by many issues such as culture, values, norms, socio-economical and socio-political factors, which makes a combination of qualitative and quantitative methods more appropriate for attaining the required understanding. This later belief is adopted by this research as well.

Accordingly and in regard to this research, semi-structured interviews associated with self-administrated survey were utilized as research methods. This technique was effective in several aspects: first, using the self-administrated survey facilitated asking analogous questions, which help collecting quantitative data. Second, "semi-structured interviews" was appropriate for altering the discussion sequence, as well as, expanding its scope to probe for more information when useful. In this context, a pilot study was conducted to filter the research population as well as test both the survey and the interview checklist. Consequently, initial interviews were conducted with six female members working in different tourism entities (i.e. the Omani Ministry of Tourism, a travel agency, a five-star hotel, and Oman Air). During the pilot study, the interviewees were directed to revise an initial version of the survey to check two issues: first, wording, sequence and other potential errors and second, the questions' suitability for

achieving the research aims. Based on the responses, the survey questions were confirmed as relevant and suitable for fulfilling the research potential aims. Also, few terminological and wording modifications were suggested. The pilot study helped modifying the interviews checklist to shed more light on the different factors affecting female tourism employees. As a result of the pilot study, a modified checklist and a refined survey were designed.

Besides recording the interviewees' demographic and occupational data, the survey comprises 15 questions measured on a 10-point Likert scale, where 1 = very negative and 10 = very positive. The questions were set to examine four main areas: the interviewees' attitude toward working in tourism, the interviewees' satisfaction, the level of social pressure due to working in tourism, and the existence of either horizontal or vertical segregation. On the other hand, the semi-structured interview checklist covered three main topics: reasons of gender horizontal or vertical segregation in tourism employment (if any), driving and restraining factors influencing Omani women's careers in tourism, in addition to suggestions of required procedures for facilitating women empowerment in Oman. During the interviews, the interviewees were allowed to develop their own ideas and to pursue any new thoughts they believe to be associated with the researched issues. All the interviews were conducted face-to-face in the interviewees' offices between the 26th of January and the 7th of August 2013, where each interview extended between 15 to 25 minutes.

The survey was meant to be distributed to 150 female staff members from 25 tourism-related entities; while the checklist was used to navigate 25 semi-structured interviews. The interviewees' selection process was based on a criterion of two factors. First, "diversity"; where the list of interviewees' entities extended to include entities such as the Omani Ministry of Tourism, Public Authority for Craft Industries, Omran (a governmental tourism development entity), Oman Sail, as well as travel agencies, hotels, airline companies, and museums. On the other hand, it was exceptionally difficult to find Omani women working for tou-

rist restaurants or as tourist guides. Second, “the interviewee’s position”, where it was meant to represent women working in as-wide-as-possible positions (e.g. starting from head of departments to newly hired staff members). Finally, SPSS 15 software was utilized to analyse the data and find correlations. The ANOVA test was applied to measure the results' significance and therefore credibility.

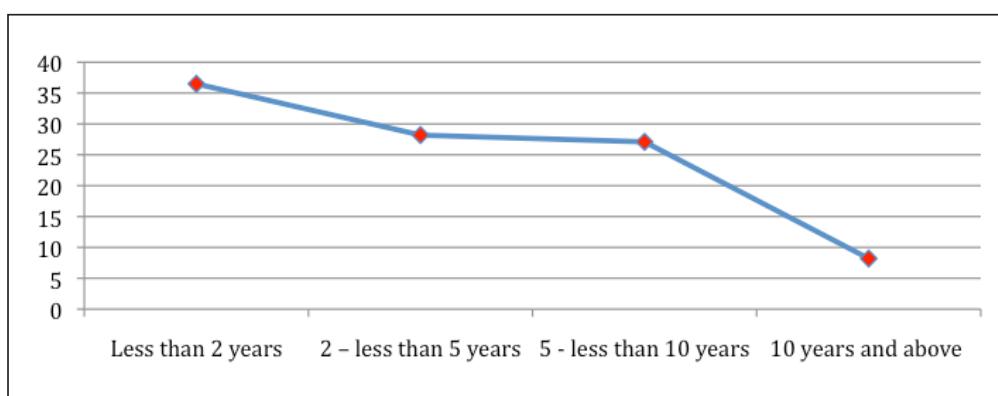
RESULTS

150 questionnaires were collected; 14 of them were considered invalid mostly for ignoring answering some questions. In the same context, 25 interviews were conducted during the survey completion process. Two interviews were disregarded due to giving insufficient short answers and showing no sincere interest in discussions (interviews duration extended for approximately 5 minutes only). Analysing the 23 interviews raised several questions which necessitated re-conducting 5 interviews to either complete discussing or clarifying specific issues more deeply. In this context, table 2 illustrates the participants' profile including their tourism employers, years of experience in the tourism profession, level of education and marital status.

Analysing the respondents' profile (table 2) reveals clearly that the longer the experience, the harder to find women working in tourism, where 36.5% of the respondents have less than two years experience, while only 8.2% of the respondents have more than 10 years work experience in tourism (Figure 1). This result could be interpreted in two extremely different ways. First, it could be understood as an expressive distribution which reflects truthfully the Omani women's escalating trend to work in the tourism profession in the last few years. Nevertheless, it could also be analysed as a reflection of an attitude to quit working in tourism which leaves few women with long experience. Asking interviewees for an explanation reveals that the majority tends to the first justification. “Over 12 years in tourism, I saw lot of women leaving for other jobs for different reasons, but I believe more that this [situation] is due to the increasing number of freshly graduated girls who have been joining tourism [work] recently; 10 years ago, few women would accept working in tourism” (interview no. 27).

Table 2: Respondents' Profile

Profile	Frequency (%)
Type of organization	
Travel agencies	36.8
Gov. entities	25.0
Hotels	27.9
Airlines/Airports	10.3
Years of Experience	
Less than 2 years	36.5
2 – less than 5 years	28.2
5 - less than 10 years	27.1
10 years and above	8.2
Level of Education	
Pre-secondary school	5.9
Secondary school	41.2
Higher education	44.7
Postgraduate Education	8.2
Marital Status	
Married with children	38.8
Married	14.1
Single	45.9
Others	1.2

**Figure 1: Experience of women working in tourism**

52.9% of the respondents hold a higher education or a postgraduate degree, which ensures the quality of women working in tourism. If this could be linked to the confirmed relationship between level of women's education and their social background,

then it could probably be assumed that women working in the Omani tourism industry are majorly coming from relatively higher social backgrounds. Single females, represented the majority of the respondents (45.9%). This is expected, knowing that the Omani population is generally young where 67.2% of the females are under 30 years old (NCSI, 2013).

Aiming to achieve a better understanding of the respondents' attitude towards working in tourism, data is analysed relying on the respondents' four previously-mentioned classifications (see: table 2): tourism sector, years of experience, level of education and marital status. Table no. 3 shows the participants' responses according to the tourism sector in which they are working.

In this regard, it is significantly obvious that women working in airline companies and airports (AL) have a definite positive attitude toward working in tourism as they achieved the highest records of willingness to work (Q.1. $\bar{x} = 9.6$), accepting tourism as the best profession for their capabilities (Q.2. $\bar{x} = 8.6$), and being optimistic regarding their professional future (Q.3. $\bar{x} = 9.3$). They will also hardly switch from working in tourism to any other profession (Q.4. $\bar{x} = 3.6$). On the contrary, women working in governmental tourism entities (GV) believe barely that they are in the best jobs for their capabilities (Q.2. $\bar{x} = 6.0$), but they are as well scarcely ready to leave (Q.4. $\bar{x} = 5.1$). This is mostly due to the numerous advantages associated with working in Omani governmental entities (e.g. stability, society recognition). On the other hand, despite that, women working in both hospitality and tourism intermediaries (HO and TA) have joined these sectors willingly (Q.1. $\bar{x} = 7.9$ and 9.2), they record the highest level of desire to quit working in tourism (Q.4. $\bar{x} = 6.9$ and 7.2). Analysing questions no. 7, 8, 9, and 10 could help highlight why women working in HO and TA tend to quit more than those working in AL and GV.

Despite women working in tourism generally disagreeing that their salaries are higher than other professions (Q.7. $\bar{x} = 4.0$), surprisingly, women working in HO and TA are relatively more satisfied with their salaries (Q.7. $\bar{x} = 5.6$ and 4.4) and have a higher sense of success (Q.8. $\bar{x} = 9.0$ and 9.1) compared to their counterparts in AL and GV (Q.7. $\bar{x} = 4.0$ and 1.9) (Q.8. $\bar{x} = 8.9$ and 8.8).

Thus, it could be concluded that salaries and future uncertainty are definitely not the main reasons why women working in HO and TA tend more to change their tourism profession.

Table 3: Participants' responses according to their tourism employment sector

	AL*	HO**	GV+	TA ±	Mean (\bar{x})	(P-value)
Participants' attitude toward working in tourism						
I willingly work in tourism	9.6	7.9	7.1	9.2	8.4	0.029687 a
Tourism is the best profession for my capabilities	8.6	7.9	6.0	8.2	7.6	0.004274 a
I believe I have a promising future in tourism	9.3	8.4	7.9	8.2	8.3	0.525872
If I can, I will switch from tourism to another profession (-)	(3.6)	(6.9)	(5.1)	(7.2)	(6.3)	0.009695 a
Mean (\bar{x})	8.5	6.8	6.5	7.1		
Participants' satisfaction						
I am happy for working in tourism	8.4	8.4	8.2	9.4	8.7	0.182975
I am in a job suitable for my capabilities	8.9	8.3	7.0	8.2	8.0	0.201017
Salary in tourism is better than other professions	4.0	5.6	1.9	4.4	4.1	5.26E-05
I consider myself successful	8.9	9.0	8.8	9.1	9.0	0.927147
Mean (\bar{x})	7.6	7.8	6.5	7.8		
Extent of social pressure due to working in tourism						
Working in tourism causes social pressure on women (-)	(4.4)	(5.7)	(3.9)	(4.9)	(4.9)	0.212235
The existence of either a horizontal or vertical segregation						
I believe my job is more suitable for men (-)	(2.3)	(5.3)	(4.0)	(5.0)	(4.6)	0.180694
Men have better opportunities for promotion in tourism (-)	(7.0)	(5.5)	(4.2)	(7.0)	(5.9)	0.005584 a
There are some tourism jobs which should be for men only (-)	(4.9)	(6.2)	(6.1)	(6.2)	(6.1)	0.852774
There are currently some men-only-jobs, which women can do	4.6	7.1	3.9	6.0	5.7	0.013471 a
Mean (\bar{x})	(4.7)	(6.0)	(4.6)	(5.6)		
Level of occupational empowerment	6.8	5.7	6.1	6.1		

* AL = Airline companies and airports

+ TA / Travel agencies and tourism operators

a Significance at higher than 0.05 probability level

** HO / Hospitality (hotels and restaurants)

± GV / Governmental tourism entities

(-) Negative question

On the contrary, women working in HO and TA feel social pressure (Q.9. $\bar{x} = 5.7$ and 4.9) higher than the other two tourism sectors ($\bar{x} = 4.4$ and 3.9 for AL and GV). It may be worth mentioning here that – despite the absence of verified studies – a common contentedness exists that there is a negative social attitude toward working in hospitality in particular. However, it should also be stated that this trend has been declining rapidly during the last few years. The effect of social pressure could also be noticed in question no. 10, where a significant percentage of the female workers in HO and TA believe deeply that their jobs are more suitable for men than for females ($\bar{x} = 5.3$ and 5.0 compared to only 2.3 and 4.0 for AL and GV). Women working in HO and TA are surely having higher indications of occupational segregation ($\bar{x} = 6.0$ and 5.6), while GV jobs logically show the lowest level of notifying such attitude ($\bar{x} = 4.6$) (see: figure 2).

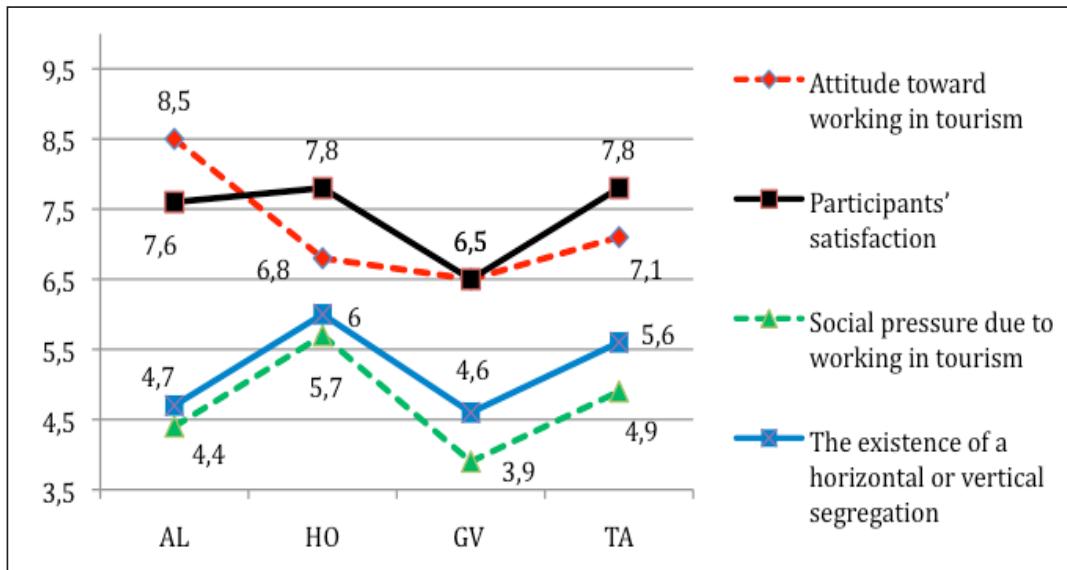


Figure 2: Participants' responses (Means) according to their tourism employment sector

Finally, with a total average of only 5.7 (see figure 3), it could be claimed that women working in the hospitality sector seem to be the segment with the severest need for support. However, women in GV and TA are not too far less in need for support. Oppositely, women working in AL surely have higher feeling of empowerment.

Analysing the respondents' opinions according to their length of experience reveals several major results. First, women with longer experience (i.e. ten years and above) record the highest average regarding believing that they are in the best profession

(Q. 2 $\bar{x} = 8.2$) and job (Q. 6 $\bar{x} = 8.9$) for their capabilities, and feeling the minimum social pressure (Q. 9 $\bar{x} = 4.1$).

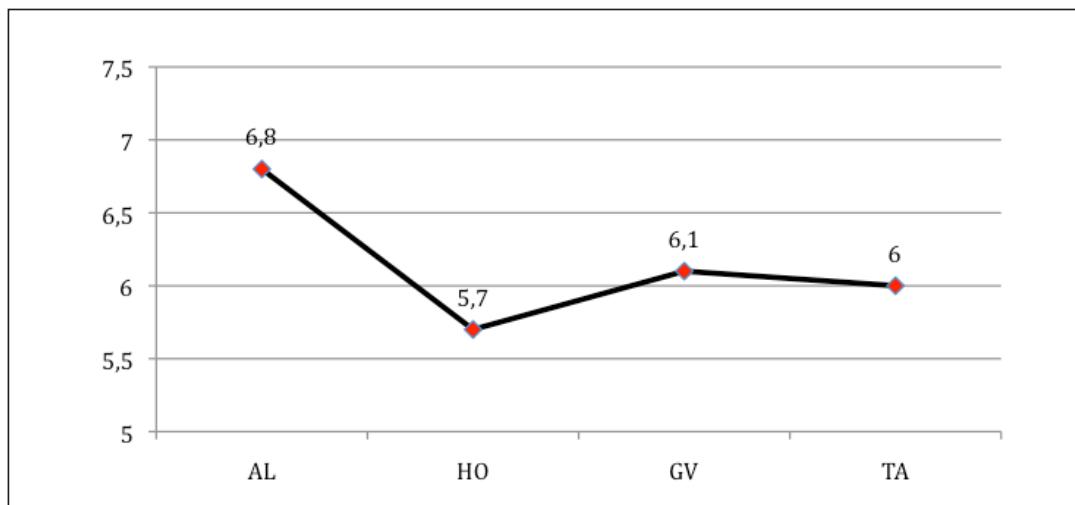


Figure 3: Participants' responses (Overall) according to their tourism employment sector

In this regard, several interviewees state that there has usually been a considerable social misunderstanding of the nature of tourism work at the beginning of their career. The longer they work, the more awareness is to be transferred to their local surroundings concerning tourism and tourism profession and therefore the more their community accepts their jobs. This is critically important as it straightforwardly indicates that the Omani community cannot be described as an opponent of women's work in tourism, but it is actually a matter of deficiency of tourism awareness, and that more efforts in this regard will definitely secure more social acceptance for tourism as a suitable profession for Omani women.

On the contrary and surprisingly, despite feeling less social pressure and believing that they are in the best profession and job for their capabilities, female workers with the longer experience have the highest desire to switch from tourism to other professions (Q. 4 $\bar{x} = 6.9$). Questions 3, 5, 7, 8 and 10 may justify this odd situation. In this regard, women with more than ten years experience record the lowest level of satisfaction with their salaries (Q.7. $\bar{x} = 3.1$), being optimistic regarding their professional future (Q.3. $\bar{x} = 7.9$), feeling happy in work (Q.5. $\bar{x} = 8.2$) and considering themselves successful (Q.8. $\bar{x} = 8.2$). Finally, they assume that their jobs might be more suitable for men rather than for women (Q.10 $\bar{x} = 6.3$).

Table 4: Participants' view according to their length of experience

	-2	2-5	6-10	10+	Mean (\bar{x})	(P-value)
Participants' attitude toward working in tourism						
I willingly work in tourism	7.8	8.6	8.9	7.9	8.4	0.2246418
Tourism is the best profession for my capabilities	7.5	7.8	7.6	8.2	7.6	0.777165
I believe I have a promising future in tourism	8.0	9.0	8.5	7.9	8.3	0.14245
If I can, I will switch from tourism to another profession (-)	(5.6)	(6.8)	(5.9)	(6.9)	(6.3)	0.294855
Mean (\bar{x})	7.2	8.1	7.7	7.7	8.7	
Participants' satisfaction						
I am happy for working in tourism	8.8	8.7	8.9	8.2	8.0	0.749909
I am in a job suitable for my capabilities	7.0	8.6	8.4	8.9	4.1	0.012691 a
Salary in tourism is better than other professions	3.8	3.8	5.1	3.1	9.0	0.094593
I consider myself successful	8.8	9.3	9.1	8.2		0.192472
Mean (\bar{x})	7.1	7.6	7.9	7.1		
Extent of social pressure due to working in tourism						
Working in tourism causes social pressure on women (-)	(5.1)	(4.7)	(4.9)	(4.1)	(4.9)	0.77516
The existence of either a horizontal or vertical segregation						
I believe my job is more suitable for men (-)	(4.8)	(4.6)	(3.9)	(6.3)	(4.6)	0.194552
Men have better opportunities for promotion in tourism (-)	(6.0)	(6.6)	(5.1)	(4.5)	(5.9)	0.077194
There are some tourism jobs which should be for men only (-)	(5.3)	(5.7)	(7.2)	(6.2)	(6.1)	0.138597
There are currently some men-only-jobs, which women can do	5.8	4.8	5.5	7.7	5.7	0.08508
Mean (\bar{x})	(5.5)	(5.4)	(5.4)	(6.2)		
Level of occupational empowerment	5.9	6.4	6.3	6.1		

a Significance at higher than 0.05 probability level

Discussing this trend for quitting work in tourism despite the absence of social pressure (which was commonly believed to be the main reason) revealed that in addition to the early mentioned unsatisfactory salary, the high stress associated with most of the tourism professions was indicated as one of the fundamental reasons why women may quit working in tourism. *“It is unbelievable pressure I repeatedly have nightmares about passengers losing their flight connections and yelling at me”* (interview no. 7). *“It is part of the tourism work. For me the problem is not the pressure itself, but having to smile, whatever the pressure is, once I face a guest”* (interview no. 12). Other reasons include looking for more long-term, secured jobs (e.g. governmental jobs), and less working hours. Some interviewees with longer experiences interpreted this as a reflection of feeling underestimated comparing to their long experience.

The previous two paragraphs could lead to two major conclusions. First, with averages such as 7.9 (Q3), 8.2 (Q. 5 and 8), it is invalid to claim that women with long experience are unhappy or unsatisfied; nevertheless they are the less satisfied and happy segment. Second, social pressure is surely not the main reason for quitting work in tourism and that other factors including unsatisfactory salaries, work pressure and looking for stability could be the actual reasons.

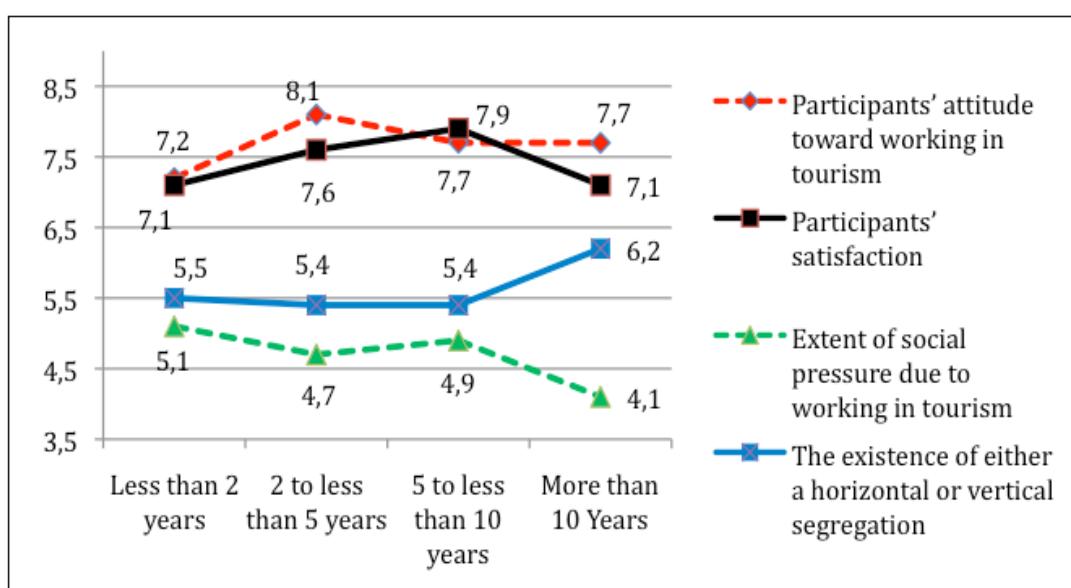


Figure 4: Participants' responses according to their work experience

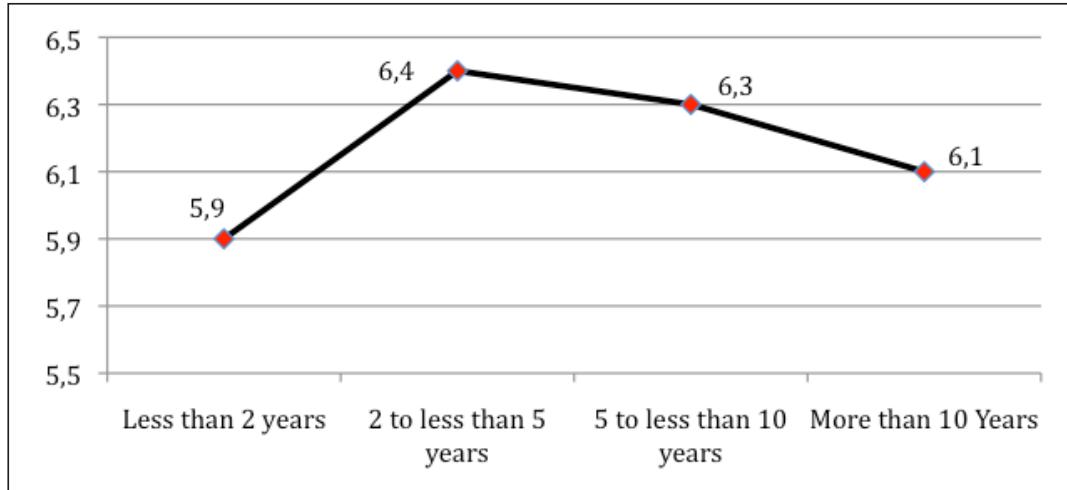


Figure 5: Participants' responses (overall average) according to their work experience

Figure 6 summarizes precisely the responses of women working in tourism according to their level of education, where significant differences exist between the four different segments (i.e. pre-secondary, secondary, higher education and post-graduation segments).

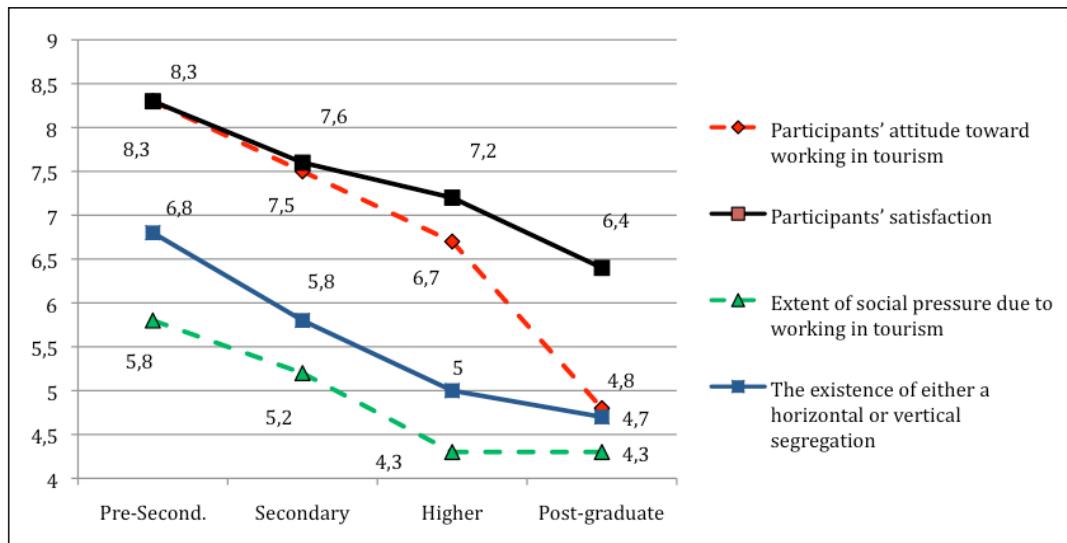


Figure 6: Participants' responses (Overall) according to their education

In other words, analysing Table 5 shows the existence of a converse relationship between women's attitude toward working in tourism and their level of education, where the higher the level of women's education the less their desire to continue working

Table 5: Participants' view according to their level of education

	Pre-Second.	Secondary	Higher	Post-Graduate	Mean (\bar{x})	(P-value)
Participants' attitude toward working in tourism						
I willingly work in tourism	8.8	8.5	8.4	6.3	8.4	0.225174
Tourism is the best profession for my capabilities	9.4	7.7	7.4	5.8	7.6	0.025253 a
I believe I have a promising future in tourism	8.8	8.2	8.4	7.4	8.3	0.703955
If I can, I will switch from tourism to another profession (-)	(3.9)	(4.4)	(7.4)	(9.2)	6.3	1.07E-08
Mean (\bar{x})	8.3	7.5	6.7	4.8		
Participants' satisfaction						
I am happy for working in tourism	9.4	8.7	8.7	7.6	8.7	0.344759
I am in a job suitable for my capabilities	9.4	7.9	8.0	7.4	8.0	0.358525
Salary in tourism is better than other professions	4.8	4.7	3.3	2.0	4.1	0.015799 a
I consider myself successful	9.4	9.0	8.9	8.4	9.0	0.683539
Mean (\bar{x})	8.3	7.6	7.2	6.4		
Extent of social pressure due to working in tourism						
Working in tourism causes social pressure on women (-)	(5.8)	(5.2)	(4.3)	(4.3)	(4.9)	0.267434
The existence of either a horizontal or vertical segregation						
I believe my job is more suitable for men (-)	(7.6)	(4.6)	(3.9)	(4.7)	4.6	0.02189
Men have better opportunities for promotion in tourism (-)	(6.4)	(6.6)	(5.1)	(3.6)	5.9	0.016653 a
There are some tourism jobs which should be for men only (-)	(6.0)	(6.2)	(5.8)	(6.6)	6.1	0.932074
There are currently some men-only-jobs, which women can do	7.0	5.8	5.3	3.7	5.7	0.292719
Mean (\bar{x})	(6.8)	(5.8)	(5.0)	(4.7)		
Level of occupational empowerment	6.0	6.0	6.2	5.6		

a Significance at higher than 0.05 probability level

in tourism (see Q. 1, 2, 3 and 4), and the less their satisfaction with their work (see Q. 5, 6, 7 and 8). Commenting on this relationship, interviewee no. 26 stated that "*This is strange; I did not notice that; but maybe they believe they deserve more than what they get, due to their [educational] degrees*". Interviewee no. 28 claims that "*Salary and position are the reasons. Of course, if I have a higher certificate.... I would be unhappy with the salary I am receiving now....no, it is rare to have an increase [in salary] due to getting a higher certificate [a postgraduate degree] especially in the private sector. We usually receive more money for having more experience*". On the other hand, women with higher educational level feel less social pressure (see Q. 9), which is generally expected assuming that women's higher educational level is frequently associated with more social recognition. Finally, the same segment complains less about occupational segregation.

Understanding women's attitude toward work in regard with their marital status is a common approach where several researchers (e.g. Al-Sharief, 2005) assume that marital status and family responsibilities are amongst the most crucial factors affecting women work.

In addition to the early mentioned results which have been concluded from the analysis of the previous tables, analysing the respondents' replies in Table 6 reveals three more results. First, with minimal differences in responses, marital status seems to be not affecting the female workers' attitude towards working in tourism ($\bar{x} = 7.5, 7.6$ and 7.8) as well as their work satisfaction ($\bar{x} = 7.6, 7.1$ and 7.5). On the contrary, social pressure understandably seems higher on single females than on married women as single females are commonly more exposed to social pressure than the other two categories (see Q. 9). Finally, it may be worth mentioning that besides unsatisfactory salary, "looking for a job near their houses" has been numerously mentioned as a reason for changing jobs in association with women married with children particularly. "[They are leaving] for different reasons mostly salary, to work nearer to their houses ... not because they are against tourism" (interview no. 16).

Table 6: Participants' view according to their marital status

	Married with children	Married	Single	Mean (\bar{x})	(P-value)
Participants' attitude toward working in tourism					
I willingly work in tourism	8.5	8.2	8.4	8.4	0.949514
Tourism is the best profession for my capabilities	7.4	8.3	7.6	7.6	0.424475
I believe I have a promising future in tourism	8.3	8.0	8.4	8.3	0.870545
If I can, I will switch from tourism to another profession (-)	(5.8)	(5.7)	(6.7)	6.3	0.304198
Mean (\bar{x})	7.5	7.6	7.8		
Participants' satisfaction					
I am happy for working in tourism	8.7	8.1	8.9	8.7	0.296363
I am in a job suitable for my capabilities	8.4	8.8	7.6	8.0	0.104515
Salary in tourism is better than other professions	4.0	3.1	4.5	4.1	0.20258
I consider myself successful	9.1	8.2	9.1	9.0	0.090173
Mean (\bar{x})	7.6	7.1	7.5		
Extent of social pressure due to working in tourism					
Working in tourism causes social pressure on women (-)	(4.9)	(3.2)	(5.4)	(4.9)	0.017342 a
The existence of either a horizontal or vertical segregation					
I believe my job is more suitable for men (-)	(3.6)	(4.3)	(5.3)	(4.6)	0.027413 a
Men have better opportunities for promotion in tourism (-)	(4.8)	(6.5)	(6.5)	(5.9)	0.011203 a
There are some tourism jobs which should be for men only (-)	(5.8)	(5.4)	(6.4)	(6.1)	0.476799
There are currently some men-only-jobs, which women can do	4.7	7.3	5.8	5.7	0.021747 a
Mean (\bar{x})	(4.7)	(5.9)	(6.0)		
Level of occupational empowerment	6.4	6.4	6.0		

a Significance at higher than 0.05 probability level

FORCE FIELD ANALYSIS

Besides relying on interviews for clarifying the respondents' choices in the survey, interviews were valuable as well for shedding light on the major forces acting for and against women's empowerment in the tourism industry in Oman. In this context, interviewees were asked to explain, the main driving elements (the pros) which are helping Omani women to flourish in the tourism profession as well as to identify the major restraining forces (the cons), which may hinder them from achieving greater success. Data analysis shows the existence of three driving and two restraining forces.

DRIVING FORCES

Omani women working in tourism believe that three factors are pushing forward the Omani women's empowerment in the tourism profession. These factors comprise a compensation of social, economic, legal as well as cultural forces.

Social changes and society awareness of women's issues

A major driving force for the Omani women's empowerment is the combination of social changes and awareness of women's issues which have recently been taking place especially during the last decade. The majority of the interviewees assume that this progress has occurred due to the continuous development of education and media services in particular, which are helping amend the society trends toward women's economic, political and social participation in the ongoing development. The society is moving gradually towards more recognition of women's work in both governmental and private establishments, where traditional negative ideas and concepts about women's work are gradually diminishing. In this context, some women's activities which were totally rejected forty years ago (e.g. women education, political participation) are gaining more acknowledgement today. This overall escalating awareness and social changes have been reflec-

ted in tourism as well. The Omani community is going day after day, more and more in supporting working women. The society was firmly against women working in tourism ... this has been changing over the last years.

Support of the Omani government and organizations

Oman has formed several regulations to enhance women's rights including education, work, as well as social, political and economic participation. HM Sultan Qaboos has a lot of efforts to guarantee women rights. This is clear in the decrees, laws and plans for reinforcing women's situations in Oman. Almost all the interviewees notified that they are feeling secured and satisfied with the current work regulations. According to these regulations, women are supported against both horizontal and vertical segregation. Women are also guaranteed to have maternity leave, breast-feeding hours, as well as relatively long childcare leaves, and mourning periods (i.e. 40 days in case of husband's death). On a parallel path, several governmental and non-governmental organizations and entities have been established over the last years to provide different sorts of support for Omani women, especially in areas such as education, training, health awareness and SMEs funding. A key player in this field is the Omani's Women Association, a governmental organization which has 38 branches all over the country (MoSD, 2013).

Family and paid-labour supports

Dependence on family and/or paid-labour assistance is a common behaviour amongst Omani working women, where many of them depend on their non-working family members (e.g. mothers, sisters, and in-laws) to babysit their children and assist in households while they are at work. On the other hand, those who cannot get family support may depend on paid-labour support (e.g. nurseries, babysitters, and housekeepers). *"I have four kids; two of them are still under the school age ... my family support is an important factor for me to continue working"* (interview no. 17). The majority of

the survey participants are married (54.1%), 71.7% of them have children. Accordingly, relying on family and paid labour support, many Omani working women are managing between work obligations and familial responsibilities. ‘*I understand the risks [of relying on paid-labour]; but most of those who can, will hire a housemaid even if they are not working*’ (*interview no. 3*). On the other hand, a shyly drift in the Omani society is the tendency of some husbands to assist their wives in childcare and household activities to enable them balancing between work obligations and familial responsibilities and, then, to maintain their career. ‘*Yes, of course, more men are ready now to help*’ (*interview no. 14*). However, establishing child-care facilities at some workplaces (e.g. hotels) could be a further support for women’s career.

RESTRAINING FORCES

On the other hand, interviewees identified two major forces which may restrain women’s empowerment in the Omani tourism sector.

Anti-traditions work conditions

Tourism is definitely having its own work conditions, which could be described as “anti-social work conditions” (Al-Sherif, 2005). Several researchers assume that those conditions are definitely putting an exceptional pressure on tourism workers regardless of their gender. These conditions include obligating workers to delay at work after regular working hours, work overnight, and travel frequently and maybe for long time. These work obligations conflict with the Omani – as well as most of the Arabic countries – traditions, which may confine lot of women from working in some areas of tourism; and if working, from accomplishing some of their duties. However, women are majorly not seeing that as a sign of segregation, alternatively they assure that some jobs (e.g. guides, transfer staff) should be for men only mostly due to its conditions (e.g. travelling for long time, night shifts) which they believe are not suitable for them (see Q. 12. $\bar{x} = 6.1$).

Work/family conflict

One of the severest problems of female workers is the work/family conflict, where female workers are usually stressed between family, work and social responsibilities. To some researchers (Al-Sharief, 2005), women who can successfully manage those burdens are "*superwomen*". In this context, some women prefer to quit work after marriage or after having their first baby. Another portion gives up after a short time and end up leaving their jobs for the sake of the family. Interviewees assume that women tend to quit work mainly to take care of their children. Accordingly, the availability of childcare facilities at a reasonable cost might be a valid solution. However, work/family conflict could be associated as well with different forms of career interruption as women are physiologically compelled to several career interruptions like maternity leave and breast-feeding hours; and they may also need relatively long childcare leaves. These interruptions either delay or even terminate women's careers (Al-Sherif, 2005).

CONCLUSION

Despite the fact that there is a plethora of studies which have investigated most of the women related issues such as women empowerment, women in the workplace, role of women in development, research regarding the female workforce in tourism is still far behind the other areas. Those relatively few tourism-related studies which have been mainly focusing on women in Europe, America and some Asian countries, claim that despite all the work equality regulations, tourism can hardly be described as a sector where gender equality is actually applied; alternatively both horizontal and vertical segregation could easily be observed in the tourism profession. In this context, researchers generally assume that women's participation in the tourism profession is relatively bizarre. While tourism appears as a suitable career for women looking for a seasonal or a part-time work and for those working in traditional food production and handcrafting, tourism emerges, on the contrary, as a harsh profession putting se-

vere pressure on women mainly due to the special conditions and work requirements of the tourism business. Additionally, women seem to be typically constrained to work in specific jobs and areas of tourism and not proportionately represented in senior management positions.

On the other hand, Oman is a country, which could be described as “innovative” regarding women rights and empowerment. Over the last four decades, Omani women have been progressively obtaining equal opportunities for education, training and work, which helped them to firmly move from their previous household confinement to the public sphere. These determining actions put Oman as one of the leading Gulf countries in terms of gender equality and female participation.

In regard to this research, 11 major assumptions could be concluded. First Omani women are getting more enthusiastic to work in tourism, which is currently witnessing the involvement of younger generations. Second, finding women with a long experience is relatively hard, as tourism was not considered amongst the most suitable professions for women during the last decades. However, this is rapidly changing now. Third, tourism is particularly attractive for Omani women with higher degrees (i.e. college and post-graduate degrees), which comparatively does not match the global model, where tourism usually attracts more women with lower educational degrees (i.e. secondary school degrees). This could be justified by the escalating percentage of women receiving higher education in Oman. Fourth, Omani women working in tourism can hardly be described as unsatisfied with the tourism profession, nevertheless some segments could be described as less satisfied than the others. Fifth, female workers in airlines seem to be highly satisfied with their tourism career and less ready to quit their jobs comparing to their counterparts in hospitality and travel agencies, who are clearly feeling higher social pressure due to working in tourism. Sixth, shortage in tourism awareness exists as a major reason for misunderstanding the contexts of women’s work in tourism, where women with longer involvement in tou-

rism are believing that their communities are getting more understanding, appreciation and support of their work. However, women with longer experience may quit their jobs for reasons related to work pressure and insufficient salaries. Seventh, nevertheless, tourism is more appealing for Omani women with higher degrees; the higher the female workers' level of education, the more they are unsatisfied with working in tourism. Eighth, marital status has a minimal effect on the female workers' attitude towards working in tourism. Ninth, and most importantly, social pressure is no longer the main reason for quitting tourism work in Oman. Reasons such as looking for better salaries, long-term secured jobs, and avoiding work pressure are amongst the major reasons for such decision.

In this context and aiming to enhance women empowerment in the tourism profession, more stimulation should be given to women working in hospitality as their relatively higher salaries are definitely not sufficient for enhancing their willingness to work in tourism. In this regard, more social awareness should be considered as social pressure (unlike the case with all the other segments) seems to be the major negative factor influencing their career. On the other hand, unsatisfactory salaries are surely the major problem facing women working in tourism governmental entities. Besides salaries, women with higher education as well as women with longer experience have more concerns regarding their future development and have a greater need for occupational recognition.

Finally, revising the women's level of occupational empowerment (at the bottom of tables 3, 4, 5 and 6) reveals that a married (or married with children) female working in the airlines sector, with a higher education level, and two to five years of experiences will feel the highest possible level of occupational empowerment in tourism. On the contrary, a single female working in the hospitality sector, with a post-graduate education level, and less than two years of experiences will feel the lowest possible level of occupational empowerment in tourism.

REFERENCES

- Al-Balushi, A. (2010). *Towards a National Strategy for Human Resources Development in the Tourism Sector, in the Sultanate of Oman*. Retrieved from <http://www.rtd4.om/rtd/RTD4/2nd/Theme1/AminaAbdullahAlBalushi.pdf>.
- Al-Riyami, A. & Afifi, M. (2003). Women Empowerment and Marital Fertility in Oman. *The Journal of the Egyptian Public Health Association*, 12(23), 144-154.
- Al-Sharief, N. (2005). *Women in the Egyptian travel sector*. (Unpublished PhD), University of Wales, Cardiff, UK.
- Blanchard, K., Carlos, J., & Randolph, A. (2001). *Empowerment Takes More Than a Minute*. 2nd edition, London: Berrett-Koehler Publishers.
- Boyne, S. (1999). *The social impact of tourism employment in rural Scotland*. Scottish Agricultural collage: Ayr.
- Business Monitor International. (2011). *Oman Tourism Report Q2 2011*. Retrieved from <http://www.marketresearch.com/Business-Monitor-International-v304/Oman-Tourism-Q2-6205512/>.
- Cave, P. & Kilic, S. (2010). The Role of Women in Tourism Employment. *Journal of Hospitality Marketing & Management*, 19(3), 280-292.
- Chatty, D. (2000). Women Working in Oman: Individual Choice and Cultural Constraints. *International Journal of Middle East Studies*, 32(2), 241-54.
- Ciulla, J. (1998). Leadership and the problem of Bogus empowerment. In J. B. Ciulla (ed.), *Ethics: the heart of leadership* (pp. 59-82). Westport, CT: Greenwood Publishing Group.
- Creswell, J. (2007). *Qualitative enquiry and research design*. London: Sage Publications.
- Crompton, R (1997). *Women and Work*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Euro-Monitor International. (2011). *Travel and tourism in Oman*. Official report: Euro-Monitor International.
- European Union. (1997). *Human Resource Development Strategy for the Tourism Industry*. Madrid: Consultiberica S.A.
- Gentry, K. (2007). Belizean women and tourism work: opportunity or impediment? *Annals of Tourism Research*, 34(2), 477-496.
- Ghodsee, K. (2003). State support in the market: women and tourism employment in post-socialist Bulgaria. *International Journal of Politics, Culture and Society*, 16(3), 465-482.
- Hemmati, M. (1999). *Gender & Tourism: Women's Employment and Participation in Tourism*, UNED-UK's. Retrieved from <http://>

www.earthsummit2002.org/toolkits/women/current/gender-tourismrep.html.

ILO. (2001). *Human resources development, employment and globalization in the hotel, catering and tourism sector*. Geneva: International Labour Organization.

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

Jurajda, S. (2003). Gender wage gap and segregation in enterprises and the public sector in late transition countries. *Journal of Comparative Economics*, 31(2), 199–222.

Juyaux, C. (undated). *Quels emplois dans le tourisme?* Brussels: European Tourism Committee.

Katzman, K. (2011). Oman: Reform, Security, and U.S. Policy. Rep. no. RS21534. Vol. 7-5700. Washington D.C.: Congressional Research Service.

Leung, D. (2006). The male/female earnings gap and female self-employment. *The Journal of Socio-Economics*, 35(5), 759–779.

Marshall, J. (2001). Women and strangers: issues of marginalization in seasonal tourism. *Tourism Geographies*, 3(2), 165–186.

McGehee, N., Kim, K., & Jennings, G. (2007). Gender and motivation for agritourism entrepreneurship. *Tourism Management*, 28(1), 280–289.

Merco Press. (2010). *Tourism industry generates 9% of global GDP and 8% of world employment*. Retrieved from <http://en.mercopress.com/2010/11/20/tourism-industry-generates-9-of-global-gdp-and-8-of-world-employment>

Mills, A. (2002). Studying the gendering culture over time: Concerns, issues and strategies. *Gender Work and Organization*, 9(3), 286–307.

Mitra, A. (2003). Establishment size, employment, and the gender wage gap. *The Journal of Socio-Economics*, 32(3), 317–330.

MoSD (Ministry of Social Development). (2013). *Women Associations in Oman*. Retrieved from http://www.mosd.gov.om/women_4.asp

NCSI (National Centre for Statistics and Information). (2013). *Population Statistics Bulletin*. Retrieved from <http://www.ncsi.gov.om/PublicationAttachment/population%20statistics%20bulletin2-2013.pdf>

Neelufer, A. & Goveas, S. (2011). A Role and Contributions of Women in the Sultanate of Oman. *International Journal of Business and Management*, 6(3), 232-39.

- Ng, C., & Pine, R. (2003). Women and men in hotel management in Hong Kong: Perceptions of gender and career development issues. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 22(1), 85–102.
- Nussbaum, M. (1995). Introduction. In Martha C. Nussbaum and Jonathan Glover (eds). *Women, Culture, and Development: A Study of Human Capabilities* (pp. 1–15). Oxford: Clarendon Press.
- Page, N. & Czuba, C. (1999). Empowerment: what is it? *E-Journal of Extension*, 37(5), Retrieved from <http://www.joe.org/joe/1999october/comm1.php>
- Salha, Y. (2010). Preparing for the Women of the Future: Literacy and Development in the Sultanate of Oman. *Hawwa*, 8(2), 120-153.
- Saunders, D., Thornhill, P. & Lewis, D. (2003). *Research methods for business students*. London: Prentice Hall.
- Skalpe, O. (2007). The CEO gender pay gap in the tourism industry-evidence from Norway. *Tourism Management*, 28(3), 845–853.
- Soeder, J. (1998) *Vital signs: Who are these people?* Restaurant& Hospitality, April, 1998.
- Thrane, C. (2008). Earnings differentiation in the tourism industry: Gender, human capital and socio demographic effects. *Tourism Management*, 29(3), 514–524.
- U.N. General Assembly, 55th Session. (2000). *United Nations Millennium Declaration, (A/55/L.2)*. Retrieved from: www.un.org/millennium/declaration/ares552e.pdf
- UNICEF. (2007). *Equality in Employment, in The State of the World's Children*. New York: United Nations Children's Fund.
- UNIFEM and the UN Global Compact. (2010). *Women's Empowerment Principles: Equality Means Business*. Retrieved from: http://www.unifem.org/attachments/products/WomensEmpowermentPrinciples_en.pdf.
- UNWTO. (2010). *UNWTO Tourism Highlights*. 2010 Edition, Madrid: UN World Tourism Organization.
- UNWTO. (2012). *Presentation of the Human Resources Development Strategy for Oman*. Retrieved from <http://cooperation.unwto.org/ar/node/36547>
- UNWTO & UN Women. (2011). *Global Report on Women in Tourism 2010*. Retrieved from <http://www.e-unwto.org/content/j133q0/>
- Weiermair, K. (1996). *Human resources in the Alpine tourism industry, workers and entrepreneurs paper presented*. the International Congress of the Alpine Tourism, Innsbruk, 2-5 May 1996.

Wilson, E. M. (2001). Organisational culture. In E. M. Wilson (Ed.), *Organisational behaviour reassessed: The impact of gender* (pp. 168–187). London: Sage Publications.

Witz, A., & Savage, M. (1992). The gender of organisations. In M. Savage & A. Witz (Eds.), *Gender and bureaucracy*. Oxford: Blackwell.

WSRWD (World Survey on the Role of Women In Development). (2009). Women's Control over Economic Resources and Access to Financial Resources, including Microfinance. New York: United Nations.

WTTC (2011). *Travel and Tourism Economic Impact 2011: Oman*. London, UK: World Travel and Tourism Council.

Submitted: 20th September, 2013

Final version: 10th December, 2013

Accepted: 17th December, 2013

Refereed anonymously