

An analysis of skills expectations of learners versus employers: The case of Culture, Arts, Tourism, Hospitality and Sport SETA

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DECLARATION WITH REGARD TO INDEPENDENT WORK

I, Faith Nomakhosazana Zwane, identity number 8202100394083 and student number 23239786, do hereby declare that this research submitted to the North West University, for the MCom study: An analysis of skills expectations of learners versus employers: The case of Culture, Arts, Tourism, Hospitality and Sport SETA, is my own independent work; and complies with the Code of Academic Integrity, as well as other relevant policies, procedures, rules and regulations of the North West University; and has not been submitted before to any institution by myself or any other person in fulfilment (or partial fulfilment) of the requirements for the attainment of any qualification.

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ABSTRACT

The economic growth in the tourism industry is changing the structure of labour markets, increasing the level of competitiveness and thereby creating a need for improved labour productivity and a more flexible workforce. Education and the creation of employment are among the key priorities of the South African government. This process can be successful only if companies raise performance and productivity standards through the enhancement and development of skills. To succeed in the rebuilding process, it is imperative that the various stakeholders interact to establish the composition of the relevant skills and qualifications required. Consequently, the growth of job opportunities in the tourism sector has uncovered various challenges, including gaps in the areas of education, training and development. These gaps have resulted in low levels of productivity and are currently creating unsatisfied expectations for students and job providers. Hence, it is a priority of government to develop quality Learnerships and Internships in South Africa to improve skills and the qualifications of the tourism workforce. Employers are increasingly conscious of the value for money from their investments in training and are demanding that training be more deliberately aligned with the strategic needs of their organisations. However, the tourism industry is still complaining that learners are not adequately prepared for the workplace and the learners believe that they have sufficient knowledge to meet the needs of the industry.

The purpose of this research was to analyse the skills expectations of learners versus employers: the case of the Culture, Arts, Tourism, Hospitality and Sport SETA (CATHSSETA). To achieve this aim, the following objectives were set: to analyse literature concerning human resource management with the main focus falling on training, to contextualise the current tourism education environment in South Africa, to compare the differences in skills expectations between learners and employers in the tourism industry and, lastly, to draw conclusions and make recommendations regarding the skills expectations in tourism education. This was achieved by conducting quantitative research by means of a structured questionnaire that was distributed to 202 employers and 1023 learners on the CATHSSETA database. The questionnaires were linked and captured on an online program named SurveyMonkey. The application of SPSS, descriptive statistics, Factor Analysis, Confirmatory Factor Analysis, ANOVA and t-tests resulted in indicating various significant differences between skills expected by employers and skills presented by learners.

These statistical analysis methods were used to demonstrate the gaps between the skills expectation of the role players. It was surprising to find that significant differences existed for most skills with the biggest gaps on self-reliance and people skills. The employers' survey reflected that a priority for employers is customer orientation and learners' willingness to learn. In all instances, employers expected learners to be better skilled than was the actual case. The results suggest that the learners are unable to adhere to the current demands of the industry. It was also found that learners rated their own skills much higher than the perception of employers.

The results of this study can be used to assist CATHSSETA in improving their current training programmes to ensure they meet the needs of the broader tourism industry. It can also be used as a guideline for any training institution for improving the current tourism training programmes. This will contribute to the overall quality and sustainability of the tourism industry.

Keywords: Tourism industry, study programme, qualification, learners, training programme, skills, CATHSSETA, learnership and internships.

OPSOMMING

Die ekonomiese groei in die toerismebedryf verander steeds die struktuur van arbeidsmarkte, wat die vlak van mededingendheid verhoog om sodoende 'n behoefte aan verbeterde arbeidsproduktiwiteit en 'n meer buigsame arbeidsmag te skep. Opleiding en werkskepping is onder die sleutelprioriteite van die Suid-Afrikaanse regering. Hierdie proses kan slegs suksesvol wees indien maatskappye werkverrigting- en produktiwiteitstandaarde verhoog deur middel van die ontwikkeling en verbetering van vaardighede. Ten einde in hierdie heropbouingsproses te slaag, is dit noodsaaklik dat daar wisselwerking is tussen die verskillende belanghebbendes is om die samestelling van die toepaslike vaardighede en kwalifikasies wat benodig word, vas te stel. Gevolglik het die toename in werksgeleenthede in die toerismebedryf verskeie uitdagings ontbloot, onder andere leemtes in die gebiede van onderrig, opleiding en ontwikkeling. Hierdie gapings het gelei tot lae vlakke van produktiwiteit en skep tans verwagtinge vir student en werkverskaffers wat nie tevrede gestel word nie. Dit is dus 'n prioriteit van die regering dat kwaliteitsleerlingskappe en -internskappe in Suid-Afrika ontwikkel word ten einde die vaardighede en kwalifikasies van die toerisme-werksmag te verbeter. Werkgewers is al hoe meer bewus van die waarde vir geld uit hulle belegging in opleiding en dring daarop aan dat opleiding meer doelgerig aan die strategiese behoeftes van hulle organisasies voldoen. Die toerismebedryf kla egter nog steeds dat leerders nie genoegsaam vir die werksplek voorberei word nie en die leerders glo vas dat hulle oor voldoende kennis beskik om aan die behoeftes van die bedryf te voorsien.

Die doel van hierdie navorsing was om die vaardigheidsverwagtinge van leerders teenoor dié van werkgewers te analiseer: die gebied van Kultuur, Kuns, Toerisme, Gasvryheid en Sport SETA (CATHSSETA). Om hierdie doel te bereik, is die volgende doelwitte vasgestel: om literatuur rakende menslike hulpbronnebestuur met die hoof fokus op opleiding te analiseer, om die huidige toerisme-onderrigsumgewing in Suid-Afrika in verband te bring, om die verskille in vaardigheidsverwagtinge tussen leerders en werkgewers in die toerismebedryf te vergelyk, en ten laaste, om gevolgtrekkings te maak en om aanbevelings te doen ten opsigte van die vaardigheidsverwagtinge in toerisme-onderrig. Dit is bereik deur die uitvoer van kwantitatiewe navorsing deur

middel van 'n gestruktureerde vraelys wat aan 202 aktiewe werkgewers en 1 023 aktiewe leerders op die CATHSSETA-databasis versprei is. Die vraelyste is gekoppel en vasgelê op 'n aanlynprogram met die naam SurveyMonkey. Die toepassing van SPSS, beskrywende statistiek, faktorontleding, ANOVA, en t-toetse het daartoe gelei dat verskeie beduidende verskille aangedui is tussen vaardighede wat deur werkgewers verwag word en wat deur leerders gebied word.

Hierdie statistiese analise metodes is gebruik om die gapings tussen die vaardigheidsverwagting van die rolspelers te demonstreer. Dit was verbasend om te vind dat daar beduidende verskille bestaan vir die meeste vaardighede, met die grootste gapings op selfstandigheid en mensevaardighede. Die werkgewers se opname het daarop gedui dat kliënte-oriëntasie asook leerders se bereidwilligheid om te leer 'n prioriteit vir werkgewers is. In alle gevalle het werkgewers egter verwag dat leerlinge meer bekwaam sou wees as wat die werklike geval was. Die resultate dui daarop dat die leerlinge nie in staat is om aan die huidige vereistes van die bedryf te voldoen nie. Daar is ook gevind dat leerlinge hul eie vaardighede baie hoër gradeer as wat hulle werkgewers hulle beoordeel het.

Die resultate van hierdie studie kan gebruik word om CATHSSETA te help om hulle huidige opleidingsprogramme te verbeter en te verseker dat hulle voldoen aan die behoeftes van die bedryf. Dit kan ook gebruik word as 'n riglyn vir enige opleidingsinstansie vir die verbetering van hulle toerisme huidige programme. Dat sal aanleiding gee tot die verbetering van die algehele gehalte en volhoubaarheid van die toerismebedryf.

Sleutelwoorde: *Toerismebedryf, studieprogram, kwalifikasie, leerlinge, opleidingsprogram, vaardighede, CATHSSETA, leerlingskap en internskappe.*

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ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS

| | |
|------------------|---|
| BMI | -Business and Marketing Intelligence |
| CATHSSETA | -Culture, Arts, Tourism, Hospitality & Sports Sector Education & Training Authority |
| CEO | -Chief Executive Officer |
| FET | -Further Education and Training |
| GDP | -Gross Domestic Product |
| GET | -General Education Training |
| HE | -Higher Education |
| HRD | -Human Resource Development |
| HRIS | -Human Resource Information systems |
| HRM | -Human Resource Management |
| ILO | -International Labour Organisation |
| KMO | -Kaiser-Meier-Olkin |
| NATED | -National Technical Education Diploma |

| | |
|--------------|--|
| NCV | -National Certificate Vocational |
| NSA | -National Skills Authority |
| NSDS | -National Skills Development Strategy |
| NSF | -National Skills Fund |
| NQF | -National Qualifications Framework |
| NYDA | -National Youth Development Agency |
| ROI | -Return on Investment |
| SANBI | -South African National Biodiversity Institute |
| SAQA | -South African Qualifications Authority |
| SETA | -Sector Education and Training Authority |
| SMME | -Small Medium Micro Enterprises |
| SMS | -Short Message Service |
| WTTC | -World Travel and Tourism Council Report |

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION AND PROBLEM STATEMENT

1.1 INTRODUCTION

The world economy finds itself on a path of rapid globalisation (Nel, Van Dyk, Haasbroek, Schultz, Sono & Werner, 2004:394). The new world economic environment is changing the constitution of labour markets, increasing the intensity of competitiveness and thereby creating a need for improved labour output and a more flexible workforce. Education and training of human resources have become the driving force for meeting the demand for highly skilled employees. Consequently, technical staff needs to manage the new social and economic challenges of the industry (Nel, *et al.*, 2004:394).

The tourism industry in South Africa has grown since the country's first democratic elections in 1994 (Grobler, Warnich, Carrell, Elbert & Hatfield, 2006:82; Department of Tourism, 2011b:14). The total contribution of tourism to the country's Gross Domestic Product (GDP) and the wider economic impacts is forecast to rise by 4.8% p.a. from ZAR328.2bn (11.4% of GDP) in 2011 to ZAR522.4bn (11.5%) by 2021. The total input to employment, including trades indirectly supported by the industry, is forecast to rise by 2.5% p.a. from 1 334 000 jobs (10.1% of total employment) in 2011 to 1 709 000 (10.7%) by 2021 (World Travel and Tourism Council Report (WTTC), 2011:3). The report further added that the tourism sector demonstrates the potential to drive the global economic upturn and create employment, helping to ensure sustainable development and alleviation of poverty by spreading the benefits more equitably across populations (WTTC Report, 2011:1). According to Baum (1995:2) and the International Labour Organisation (2010:7), career opportunities are claimed to be more accessible in tourism than in many other sectors of the economy due to the diverse and fragmented nature of business in the broader tourism industry.

Education and the creation of employment are among the key priorities of the South African government mentioned in their electoral mandate for the period 2009-2014 (Department of Tourism, 2011a:4). The process can be successful only if companies

raise performance and productivity standards by means of the enhancement and development of skills. To succeed in the rebuilding process, it is essential that the various stakeholders — the employers, the government, and the providers of South African education — interact to establish the development of the relevant skills and qualifications required (Grobler *et al.*, 2006:328).

Consequently, the rapid growth of job opportunities in the tourism sector has uncovered various challenges, including the gaps in the areas of education, training and development. These gaps have resulted in low levels of productivity and are currently creating unsatisfied expectations for learners and job providers as well as the industry stakeholders (Department of Tourism, 2011a:4).

1.2 BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY

Tourism has developed from within the more long-established disciplines such as geography, sociology and linguistics, which have often provided optional specialisation in tourism (Cooper, Shepard & Westlake, 1994:46). Saayman (2005:285) points out that, in South Africa, travel courses were introduced in the 1980s and tourism courses were mainly developed around the 1990s. Due to the relatively short period for which these courses have been on offer, many obstacles have been met and questions answered, as identified by Saayman when re-evaluating tourism studies with regards to the issue of quality. As tourism education has grown, the general nature of the provision of tourism courses has remained strongly vocational and business oriented, as noted by Airey (2005:22) in the UK, while the depth and breadth of the knowledge base, together with the vocational relevance, continues to make contributions to both the knowledge and the future employees of the tourism sector.

The South African government is focused on ensuring that tourism education and training is more within reach and affordable to all, as the future of a successful South African tourism industry is strongly related to the advancement of the industry's human resources capacity (Saayman, 2005:258). It is reasonable to argue that human resource management, service quality and a competitive advantage are inextricably linked and, therefore, the tourism industry should appreciate the central role played by human resource management in the sector (Lee-Ross & Pryce, 2010:2). Tourism learning is closely related to employment and professions in the industry, from both an

individual perspective in terms of the learners' personal professional development and opportunities, as well as an organisational perspective in terms of the providing employment available for the industry (Ladkin, 2005:437). Baum (1995:184) avers that education, teaching and advancement of workforce of all levels is a vital component in maintaining the industry's competitiveness in the international tourism arena, while these also play a major role in the preparatory process of the learners.

With the latter in mind, Earle-Mallesson (2009:304) commented that the South African tourism education and learning environment is organised with a number of responsible role players, Acts and legislation. The role players include a large number of generally small firms and enterprises, government departments at all three levels, statutory bodies, and other agencies (see Table 1.1).

Table 1.1: Role players in the South African education and training environment

| NATIONAL ROLE PLAYERS |
|--|
| ➤ Department of Basic Education |
| ➤ Department of Higher Education and Training |
| ➤ Department of Trade and Industry |
| ➤ National Department of Tourism |
| ➤ South African Qualifications Authority |
| ➤ Culture Arts, Tourism, Hospitality , and Sport Sector Education Training Authority |
| ➤ Council of Higher Education |

Source: Earle-Mallesson (2009:304)

Grobler *et al.* (2006:300) indicated that, because of the vital role played by education and training in South Africa's undertaking to become a competitive nation, the government passed various Acts and other documents in this regard. These documents support and serve as guidelines to the above mentioned role players, all of which have far successful implications to the education and training efforts in South Africa (see Table 1.2).

Table 1.2: Tourism education Acts and other documents

| ACTS AND OTHER DOCUMENTS |
|--|
| ➤ Human Resource Development Strategy 2010 |
| ➤ Human Resource Development Strategy for Tourism 2008 |
| ➤ Higher Education Act, No .101 of 1997 |

| |
|---|
| ➤ South African Qualification Authority Act, No .58 of 1995 |
| ➤ Skills Development Act, No. 94 of 1998 |
| ➤ Skills Development Levies Act, No.9 of 1999 |
| ➤ National Skills Development Strategy |
| ➤ National Qualification Framework Act No.67 of 2008 |

Source: Grobler et al. (2006:300)

To ensure an efficient, coordinated flow and proper implementation of education and training, formal education in South Africa is categorised according to three sections (see Figure 1.1). These sections are incorporated with the National Qualifications Framework (NQF) provided by the South African Qualifications Authority (SAQA) introduced in 1995. The Department of Basic Education oversees Grade R to Grade 12 and adult literacy programmes, while the Department of Higher Education and Training focuses on the Further Education and Training (FET) and the Higher Education (HE) levels (see Figure 1.1). The scope of the Department of Higher Education covers all public and private higher education institutions and skills development sectors, which include the Sector Education and Training Authorities (SETAs), the National Skills Authority (NSA) and the National Skills Fund (NSF). The SETAs are concerned with regulating and implementing learnerships, internships and unit standard based programmes which are normally funded by the SETAs and the NSF (Department of Labour, 2008; Burger, 2010:130).

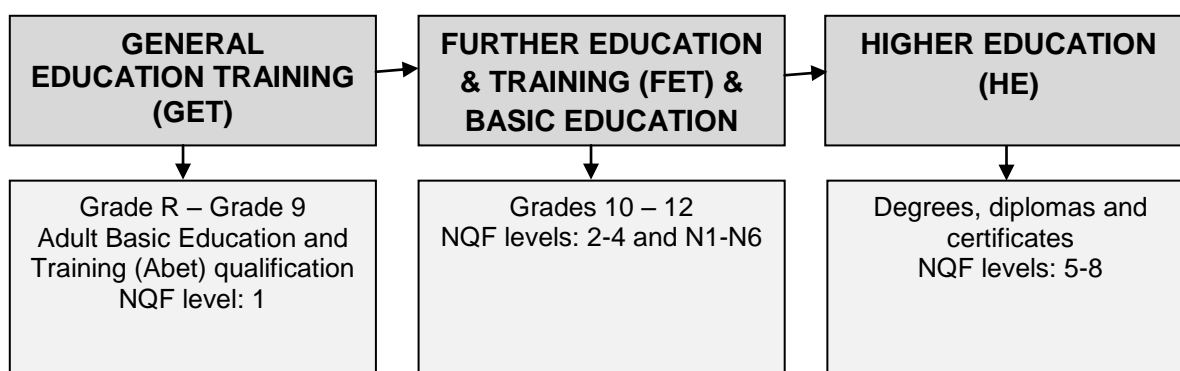


Figure 1.1: Levels in the South African Education system

Source: Slabbert and Du Plessis (2011:7)

Within the NQF, provision is made for 21 SETAs. These are employers, trade unions and government bodies charged with the responsibility of promoting skills development in their respective sectors. These authorities are required to prepare Sector Skills Plans on an annual basis. These plans identify industry skills needs, priorities for productivity,

and employment growth. SETAs are required to attend to all skills needs for employers as well as provide an opportunity to diffuse the work of research agencies into industry (CATHSSETA, 2011c:4). The tourism sector falls under The Culture Arts, Tourism, Hospitality, Sports Education and Training Authority (CATHSSETA). CATHSSETA's activities include overseeing qualification quality assurance, accrediting training providers, monitoring training provision, and the registration of assessors.

CATHSSETA offers two experiential activities, learnership and internship. These learning programmes are targeted at both the employed and the unemployed who wish to develop their professions in the tourism industry. According to Stone (2004:361) and the CATHSSETA (2010:4), a *learnership* refers to a situation in which a learner learns from observing others with greater experience performing their work and notes the actions of others as well as the consequences thereof. Subsequently, the possible new employee emulates the observed behaviour. CATHSSETA further explains that a learnership is a programme consisting of a structured learning component which includes practical work experience that will lead to an occupation qualification registered by SAQA. For the purpose of this study, those who are engaged in a learnership programme are referred to as learners.

An *Internship* refers to a situation where a student has completed certain studies and takes up in-service training in an organisation that serves to provide work experience, which is needed to find employment (SANBI, 2010:2). For the purpose of this study, those who are engaged in an internship programme will be referred to as learners; however, where learnership and internship pupils/trainees are discussed simultaneously, both will be referred to as learners.

Considering both experiential learning paths, Busby, Brunt and Baber (1997:105) expressed the idea that links between Higher Education and the industry occur by means of supervised work experience, Stuart-Hoyle (2003:53) commented that the most common rationale of tourism undergraduate experiential programmes is to prepare the learners for work in the tourism sector. However, Daniels (2007:3) observed that the skills development analysis turns to the question of workforce demand, specifically, not only the issue of identifying the nature of skills shortages, including scarce and critical skills, but also some of the initiatives such as learnerships and internships that have become crucial to the effectiveness of the skills development administration.

These are not properly administered at present. Since observing the two programmes, according to Durand-Drouhin and Sweet (2000:27), the provision of subsidies for the programmes can be viewed as a strategy to combat youth unemployment by means of education in the tourism industry.

There are, however, some problems and issues facing educators involved in the planning of curricula for tourism education in developing countries. Cooper *et al.* (1994:138) call for a responsive approach in all areas of tourism education to reflect the individual situation, whilst maximising the benefits of tourism to all concerned, especially the employers. According to Cooper *et al.* (1994:52), globally, tourism education growth has been witnessed at both macro and micro levels. At the macro level, the employment market is not large enough to absorb huge numbers of prospective entrants, whilst at the micro level there are significant opportunities for a student level of entry into the industry and an ensuing career path. A study conducted by Saayman (2005:266) further elaborated that quality training constitutes the foundation of a quality product and remains a complexity that more training is not necessarily better and that there is also a growing number of underqualified or inappropriate educators entering the tourism industry. According to a baseline study conducted by Griesel and Parker (2009:3) on South African graduates, employers voiced the opinion that the knowledge, skills, competencies and values of new graduates are not always synchronised with the needs and expectations of employers (see Figure 1.2 on the following page).

Schuurman (2004:145) commented that employers are not offered an opportunity to express their training needs for the tourism labour market and that involving them will address the major shortcomings of the current training in the tourism industry. South African tourism employers still hold a negative thought of training and perceive it as a resource drainer rather than resource development. They have yet to be convinced of the importance of training and the positive impact effective training will exert on medium and long term profits (BMI, 1997:113). Furthermore, learners receive little training or little appropriate training in the workplace. Organisations lack experienced or properly trained mentors with interns or mentors with adequate time to mentor learners. Induction may be poor or even absent. In addition, interns have expectations to be employed upon completion of their internship (SANBI, 2010:3).

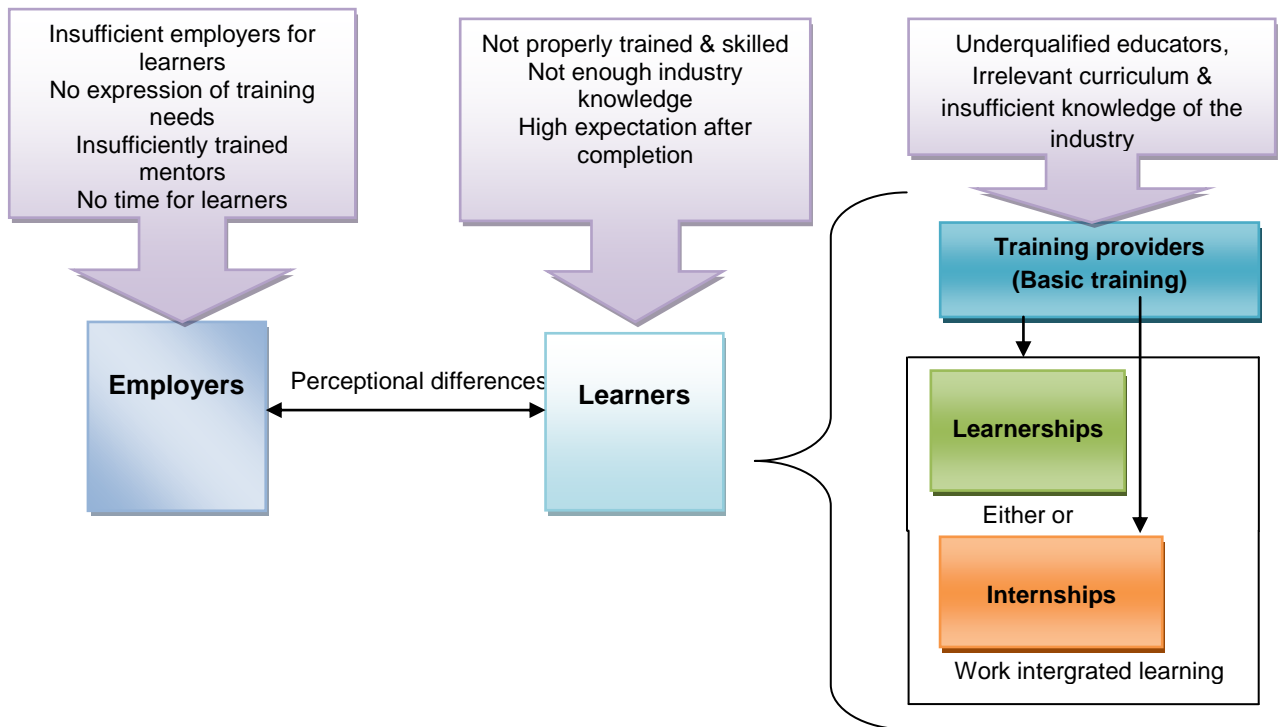


Figure 1.2: Framework of the role players in the skills expectation gap

Source: Own compilation based on available literature

After consideration of the above, it is clear that responsibilities relating to the transition from school to work must be shared with the labour market stakeholders, particularly employers. This area requires strong commitment to partnerships with the employers (Durand-Drouhin, 2000:10). However, no formal provision for this need currently exists due to lack of partnership amongst the major role players in the provision of education, training and development (Baum, 1995:205). Clear awareness of the expectations of both employers and learners will lead to increased performance of the overall tourism industry. The latter, however, is not possible if a solid partnership is not forged between employers and training institutions.

It is clear from the overall discussions that training, education and development in tourism is of high importance to the effective operations of most organisations. Table 1.3 reports on research conducted within the spheres of human resources and the tourism subsector.

Table 1.3: Framework of research summaries

| Researcher | Topic of research | Conclusion on results |
|--|---|---|
| Costen and Salzar (2011) | Impact of training and development on employee job satisfaction, loyalty, and intent to stay in the lodging industry | Results revealed that the prospect to develop new skills and progression are important determinants of employee's work contentment, loyalty and their meaning to stay longer in the company. Training opportunities provide employees with the essential skills, information and abilities needed to execute their jobs to the company standard, which subsequently improves the employees' confidence in their job performance. Managers in organisations should collaborate with human resources to identify job enlargements opportunities for employees who display a desire and ability to perform additional responsibilities |
| Smith and Smith (2007) | The role of training in the development of Human Resource Management in Australia | The research has shown that the implementation of nationally recognised training in Australian tourism businesses has an impact on the development of human resource management systems and leads to more integrated strategic approach to human resources management. Training plays a major role in the bundling of human resource management practices than realised and has a fundamental role in Human resource management strategies of many Australian organisations. |
| Giauque, Resenterra, and Siggen (2010) | The relationship between human resource management practices and organisational commitment of knowledge workers. Facts obtained from Swiss SMEs | The researchers found that human resources practices have an impact on the organisational commitment of employees. Firms that deploy a human resources management system are characterised by high performance work practices. Human resources is often underdeveloped in SMEs, because there is no dedicated human resource management department. The researchers couldn't confirm that human resource management practices confine to organisational commitment, especially in SMEs, but rather other aspects such as reputation of the organisation, salary and the length of relationship between employee and employer. |
| Valachis, Christou, Sigala, and Maroudas | Developing human resources skills and knowledge in the tourism and hospitality industry | Any training programmes that adopt the dimensions of interactivity, consistency, homogeneity, applicability, responsibility, touchability, and environment have superior |

| | | |
|---------------------|---|---|
| (2009) | through the determination of quality of training programmes | training quality transfer in the operational environment. Low score individuality in a dimension must be used as an index for better efforts to achieve the advantageous results. |
| Berman (2009) | Analysis: The UK travel industry job market in 2009 | According to the article, despite recession, there has been an increase of more than 50% in the number of people seeking employment in the sector in 2008. It further shows that the industry is dominated by women as 70% of travel agents and agency managers are female. It is projected that total employment will rise by 10% by 2017, with increasing demand for graduates. There will be 69 000 more managerial jobs across the sector by 2017. About 170 000 employees are working towards hospitality, leisure, and travel and tourism qualifications in the UK alone. Staff turnover remains a serious problem in the industry, increasing from 20% to 31% in 2008. Training has become important since the recession. About 37 % of employers said they would seek support from the government's Training to Gain scheme or try an apprenticeship programme. Government funded 4 000 places on the customer service qualification. |
| Liu and Wall (2006) | Planning tourism employment: a developing country perspective | The research shows that it is important to promote investment in cultivating tourism human capital. This encourages future tourism plans to give greater prominence to the development of human resources for tourism so that local residents can have better positions to partake and benefit from the development of tourism in their vicinity. It further advises developing countries' tourism policies and plans to go beyond the dissemination of simple growth thinking to rather associate facilities to addressing issues of HR needs and opportunities. |

Table 1.3 above shows that training is central to the human resource function of most organisations and investment in training is important. Training further causes employees to be committed, provides increased job satisfaction and assists in them staying longer in the company. The teaching of nationally recognised training and training programmes that adopt certain dimensions (interactivity, consistency, homogeneity, and applicability) leads to a more integrated strategic approach to the

human resource function and a greater quality of transfer of knowledge in the working environment.

1.3 PROBLEM STATEMENT

Many tourism employers have voiced concern over the quality, performance and deliverables that learners hold when they enter the experiential learning employment programmes in their workplaces (SANBI, 2010:3). According to Baum (1995:204), the industry depends upon the external education and training systems as the main source for its new recruits, yet it contributes very little to the education and training process and is not consulted by education and training providers in terms of the curriculum and teaching methods, for example. However it is interesting to note that, according to Smith and Smith (2007:268), employers are increasingly cognisant of the value for money from their investments in training and are demanding that training be much more purposely aligned with the strategic needs of the organisations.

It is worrying, according to Saayman (2005:266), that about 75% of teachers have formal qualifications in more structured sectors relating to tourism, few teachers and lecturers have recent or any experience of industry. Consequently, as noted by the SANBI (2010:3), leading to some organisations struggling with the quality and/or relevance of interns prior to training, which could be 'too generic' or 'far removed' from the workplace realities, yet the Acts and other documents relating to tourism education regard the training and student outputs as running smoothly and being in equilibrium with the needs of the tourism industry. Durand- Drouhin and Sweet (2000:174) commented that the placement of those with qualifications in formal or self-employment will remain a challenge, while finding employment in the tourism industry is severely difficult without practical work experience. ***The question therefore remains: what are the differences in skills expectations between CATHSSETA role players involved in tourism training programmes?***

1.4 GOAL AND OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

1.4.1 Goal

The goal of this study is to determine the differences in skills expectations between CATHSSETA role players involved in tourism training programmes

1.4.2 Objectives

The achievement of the goal relies on the following objectives

Objective 1

To analyse literature concerning human resources management with the main focus falling on training.

Objective 2

To contextualise the current tourism education environment in South Africa.

Objective 3

To determine both the skills expectations of learners and employers in the tourism industry.

Objective 4

To draw conclusions and make recommendations regarding the differences in skills expectations in tourism education.

1.5 METHOD OF RESEARCH

The methods employed in this research were twofold: a desktop study and a survey by means of questionnaires.

1.5.1 Desktop study

The desktop study was based on specific keywords: *study programme, qualification, learners, skills, learners, training institution, learnership, internship, and study units*. The theoretical framework of the training outcomes and training providers was investigated. This was carried out by means of an analysis of journal articles, theses, dissertations, newspaper articles, acts, legislation, policies, books and other tourism-related literature. Information searches were conducted mainly through library catalogues and indexes, as well as the Internet. Scientific databases such as ScienceDirect and Ebscohost played a vital role in searching for the most recent,

relevant publications and information. Since intensive desktop studies as well as an empirical survey (by means of questionnaires) were employed, this study incorporates both primary and secondary sources.

1.5.2 Empirical survey

1.5.2.1 Research design and method of collecting data.

Quantitative research was conducted by means of structured questionnaires. Two sets of questionnaires were designed: one was directed to the employers (Group A) to complete, and the other to the learners (Group B).

1.5.2.2 Sampling framework and method

- **Population**

Group A: This group includes 217 tourism businesses that have participated in either learnership or internship programmes linked with the CATHSSETA training programmes.

Group B: This group includes 3 650 learners who have participated in a learnership programme and the 1 983 learners who have participated in an internship programme linked with the CATHSSETA training programmes.

- **Sampling method**

Krejcie and Morgan (1970:607) observe that when general research activities are conducted with a population (N) of 9 000, the recommended sample size (S) is 368. However, these authors also indicated that, as a rule of thumb, the law of diminishing returns will apply when the sample size is greater than 300. Thus 300 questionnaires are deemed representative in both cases.

Group A: Employers

CATHSSETA's database includes employers (N=217) that participated in the learnership and internship programmes. The complete database was contacted and it was found that 15 of the businesses were no longer in operation. Therefore, a total of 202 questionnaires were distributed. The web-based system called SurveyMonkey was used as a link to the questionnaire and, in cases where the participants did not have

access to internet, a questionnaire was faxed to them. The questionnaires were automatically stored by the SurveyMonkey electronic survey programme. Those that were e-mailed or faxed were manually captured on the Microsoft Excel data sheet. The distribution of the survey was done during the period June to August 2012. After three months 141 questionnaires were received (see Table 4.1). Follow-up emails were sent to employers reminding them to complete the survey.

Group B: Learners

The CATHSSETA database includes learners (N=5 633) who have participated in the internship programme and the learnership programme in 2008-2012. Questionnaires were emailed and/or faxed to the entire database of learners.

The following challenges were experienced with the learners database:

- ④ CATHSSETA database in some instances, did not have the learners personal contact details but those of their host employer as their main contact. Thus no direct contact was possible with the learner. In other cases, some of these learners had already completed the programme and their contact details were not available or updated.
- ④ Landline numbers posed problems as most of them were no longer in operation and/or they have moved dwelling.
- ④ The CATHSSETA database did not have the email addresses of all learners, just cellphone numbers. Thus learners were contacted through text messaging (sms) requesting their email addresses to be texted back.
- ④ Some of the emails on the CATHSSETA database were no longer in operation.
- ④ Some learners have deceased.
- ④ Some learners are located in the deep rural areas and have limited access to email/fax.
- ④ Some learners do not have any email/fax numbers.

Keeping these challenges in mind, the questionnaire reached 1 023 (N=1 023) learners that had participated in the CATHSSETA programmes. As in the case of the employers, the web-based system called SurveyMonkey was used as a link to the questionnaire and in cases where the participants did not have access to internet, a questionnaire was faxed to them. The questionnaires were automatically stored by the SurveyMonkey electronic survey programme. Those that were e-mailed or faxed were

manually captured on the Microsoft Excel data sheet. The distribution of the survey was also done during the period June to August 2012. After three months, 380 questionnaires were received (see Table 4.2 below). Follow-up emails and text messages were sent to all learners requesting them to complete the survey.

1.5.2.3 Development of the questionnaire

Based on a thorough literature review, certain skills and training gaps were identified. The questionnaire was based primarily on the studies by Riley, Ladkin and Szivas, 2002: (2002:25), Latagan *et al.* (2010:5141), Hjalager (2003:34), Saayman and Geldenhuys (2003:89-93), Peacock and Ladkin (2002:308), Earle-Mallesson (2009:315), Busby and Gibson (2010:1) as well as O'Neil *et al.* (1997:13) which represent other researchers' statements on skills and training gaps identified in the literature review.

1.5.2.4 Data analysis

Survey Monkey and Microsoft Excel were used for the capturing of data and basic data analysis. The Statistical Services at the North-West University, Potchefstroom Campus, assisted with the final processing of the data. The SPSS software (SPSS Inc., 2009) was used to process the information. Using the SPSS, descriptive statistics, factor analysis, one way ANOVA and *t*-test analyses were carried out. These were used to determine factors that cause the differences in skills among the CATHSSETA role players. A brief description of each analysis is outlined below:

According to Babbie and Mouton (2001:641), descriptive statistics consist of statistical calculation describing either the quality of a sample or the connection among variables in a sample. Descriptive statistics merely summarise a set of sample observations.

Factor analysis is a complex algebraic method for determining the general dimensions or factors that exist within a set of concrete observations (Babbie & Mouton, 2001:643). Pallant (2010:181) further notes that a factor analysis takes a large set of variables and looks for a way the data may be 'reduced' or summarised using a smaller set of factors or components. For the purpose of this research, a *confirmatory factor analysis* was used to test (confirm) specific hypotheses or theories concerning the structure underlying a set of variables (Pallant, 2010:181). Harrington (2009:5) further added that

confirmatory factor analysis can be used to examine construct validation and whether a measure is invariant or unchanging across groups, populations, or time.

The Independent-sample t-test is used when wanting to compare the mean score of two different groups of people or conditions (Pallant, 2010:239). A t-test assesses whether the means of two groups are statistically different from each other. This analysis is appropriate whenever one wishes to compare the means of two groups, and is especially appropriate for the analysis of the post-test-only two-group randomised experiential design (Trochim, 2006).

1.6 DEFINITIONS OF KEY CONCEPTS

The following concepts were employed during the study; therefore they are defined to provide clarity and to further indicate their relevance to this particular study.

1.6.1 CATHSSETA

CATHSSETA is the Culture, Art, Tourism, Hospitality and Sport Education and Training Authority, which is the Sector Education and Training Authority (SETA) established under the Skills Development Act (No 97 of 1998) [the Skills Act] for the Tourism, Hospitality and Sport Economic Sector (CATHSSETA, 2011a).

1.6.2 Perception

Perception refers to a manner and ability of understanding or interpreting something (Soanes, Hawker, & Elliot 2006:553; Mish, 1997:546). Hudson (2008:44) stated that perception is an overall mind-picture of the world, shaped by information that people filter and then receive. Perception is thus inextricably bound to the concepts of bias and distortion.

1.6.3 Training Programme

A training programme is a schedule designed to teach specific skills within a given time (InfoScience Dictionary, 2011) and, according to Wessels (2005:14), it is an agreed

programme of work which specifies skills, knowledge and capacities that the learner should develop whilst in the organisation.

1.6.4 Tourism industry

The tourism industry refers to the interrelated incorporation of businesses and agencies, which entirely or partially provide the means of transport, goods, services, accommodation, and other facilities, programmes and resources for travel out of the home society for any purpose not related to local day-to-day activity (Chadwick, 1994:72; Pizam, 2011:4). According to Baum (1995:19), the conventional approach is to consider tourism in its component sector and thus define the industry in terms of the facilities, businesses and other organisations with which the visitor comes into contact during her or his stay. The term tourist industry is used to describe the economic sectors (transport, lodging, etc.) supplying it and which are the consumer of the products of the said industry (McIntosh, Goeldner & Ritchie, 1995:15).

1.6.5 Skills

According to Soanes *et al.* (2006:708) skill is the ability to do something well. Business Dictionary.com (2011) and Mish (1997:683) further defines it as an capability and aptitude acquired through purposeful, orderly, and sustained effort to smoothly and adaptively carry out complex activities or job functions involving ideas (cognitive skills), things (technical skills), and /or people (interpersonal skills).

1.7 CHAPTER CLASSIFICATION

This study will comprise of five chapters. The following section includes a brief outline of what can be expected from each of the chapters.

Chapter 1 includes the introduction, problem statement, goal and objectives of the study, and the method of research while it will also define the key concepts.

Chapter 2 will analyse literature concerning human resources and its components (Human Resource Management and Human Resource Development). The chapter

further focuses organisational development linked to key HR aspects namely; compensation, employment relations, skills attributes, recruitment and selection, and training and development.

Chapter 3 analyses the current tourism education environment in South Africa and the skills required by the industry.

Chapter 4 reports on the research conducted and analyses the empirical results of differences in perceptions between the CATHSSETA role players involved in the tourism training programmes.

Chapter 5 will furnish the findings of the research, draw conclusions and make recommendations regarding the skills gaps in the tourism education and environment in South Africa.

The following chapter will be focus on analysing the literature concerning the human resources and its components.

CHAPTER TWO

ANALYSING HUMAN RESOURCE MANAGEMENT

2.1 INTRODUCTION

Macro changes such as globalisation and technological advancements have affected organisations hierarchical levels and the employment fraternity (Dulebohn & Werling, 2007:198). Human resources (HR) is a key management component of any business and the success of an organisation often depends on how this is developed, managed and sustained. Organisations that promote optimal HR practices often have greater market value per employee and a cost effective organisational performance (Walsh, Enz & Siguaw, 2003:787; Giauque, Resenterra & Siggen, 2010:190). HR also serves as a contributor to the quality, competitiveness and sustainability of most industries, and brings positive attributes, behaviour and other competencies for personnel (Baum & Kokkranikal, 2003:811).

According to Jerris (1999:76); Ivancevich (2010:8); Smith and Smith (2007:263); Walsh *et al.* (2003:787); Marlow (2006:469), Mehrabad and Brojeny (2007:306); as well as Brewster (2004:365), HR is inextricably linked to organisations and their strategies hence modern HR is often integrated with the overall organisation's strategy, goals and objectives. Jerris (1999:92); Lucas (2004:63); and Giauque *et al.* (2010:190) note that the successful integration is achieved through processes of strategic HR planning involving (a) formulation of organisational or operational mission, (b) establishment of corporate strategic goals and objectives, (c) assessing current human resource skills, abilities, and knowledge to meet immediate corporate goals and objectives, (d) determining jobs that need to be done and by whom, (e) matching of skills abilities, and knowledge to required jobs. The overall integration often results in the ability to match organisations' future demands for manpower with the supply of present and future employees.

HR is able to successfully achieve its role within the overall organisational strategy through the implementation of two major HR components, Human Resource Development (HRD) and Human Resource Management (HRM) (Swanson & Holton III, 2009:12; Lucas,

2004:63). While these components are both managed under the human resource title, their relative focus tends to be fairly discrete and keyed to the terms 'development' versus 'management'. As an umbrella term, human resources is normally confused with HRM goals and activities such as recruitment, compensation and other attributes. As observed by Lucas (2004:63) and Andrews (2009:26) often, HRM precedes HRD, although both have different approaches in managing HR principles and practices.

The proceeding discussions in this chapter depict HR and various components that make it successful, that is; compensation, employment relations, skills attributes, recruitment and selection and training (Tsaur & Lin, 2004:477; Shih, Huang & Shyrur, 2005:1548; Taylor, 2006:479; Mehrabad & Brojeny, 2007:308). In summary; **compensation** is the reward for services provided to the employee by the organisation; **employment relations** is a relationship between the organisation, employees and, intermittently, the union; **Skill attributes** are a range of qualities applied by employees to effectively carry out their work, **recruitment and selection** is the organisation's need to employ a candidate for a particular position and the selection of a suitable candidate for that particular position; and, lastly, **training and development** is the acquisition of knowledge, skill and competencies through teaching. The chapter further aims to provide an understanding and display interrelationships between each component and their objectives (see Figure 2.1). These discussions are of essence to the study as training and development has a direct relationship with all these components.

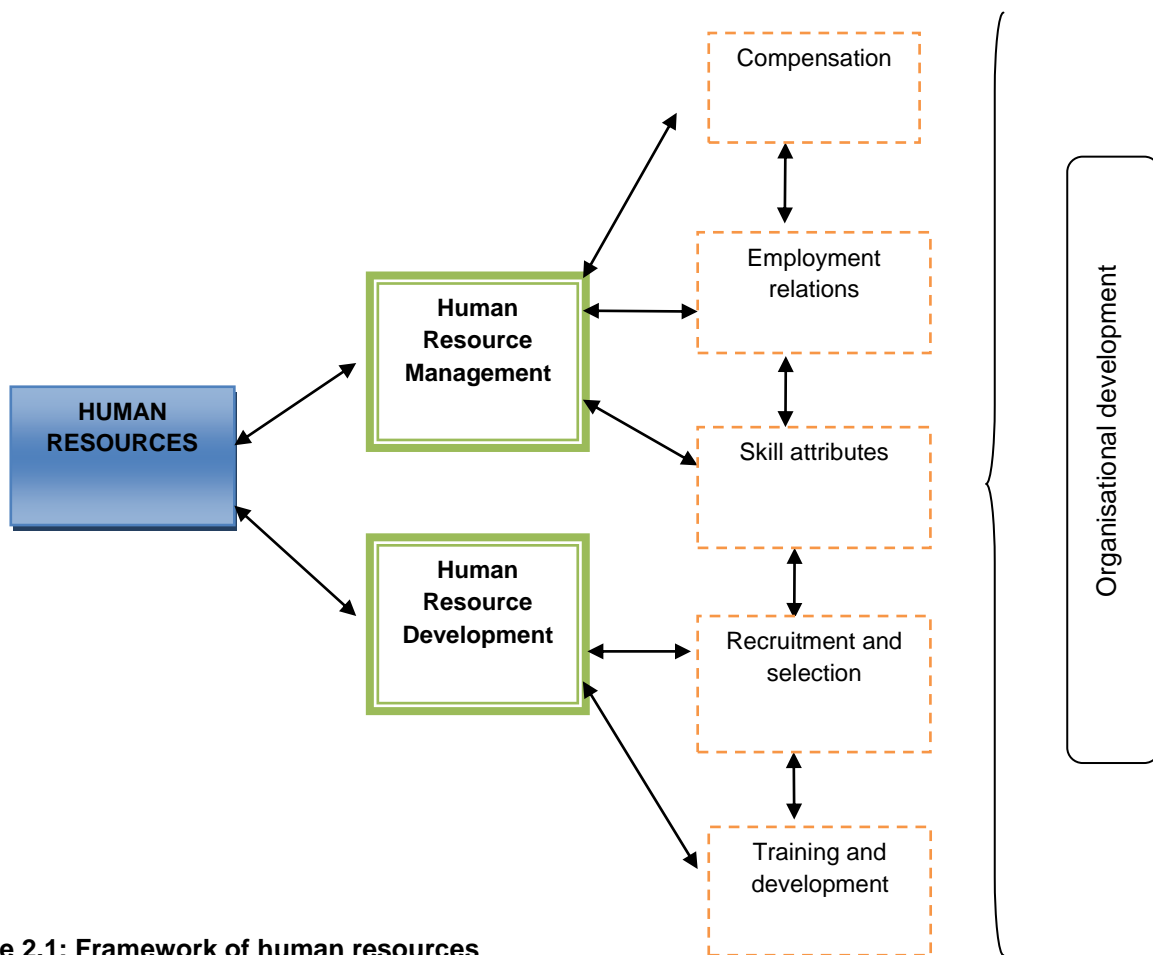


Figure 2.1: Framework of human resources

Source: Own compilation based on available literature

2.2 UNDERSTANDING HUMAN RESOURCE COMPONENTS

To understand HR, it is imperative to thoroughly peruse the main components that make it whole, that is; Human Resource Management and Human Resource Development.

2.2.1 Human Resource Management (HRM)

The term Human Resource Management (HRM) originated from the United States of America and emerged from the traditional personnel management in the 1980s. The influence use of the term 'human resource management' (HRM) replacing 'personnel management' (PM) came after an increasing emphasis on effective employee relations which highlights the importance of continuous involvement and commitment of employees to the organisation. Modern HRM engages strategic management techniques for the use of human resources and goes much further in embracing the execution of change, occupation design, socialisation, achieving organisational goals, maintaining costs and performance

appraisal as the key levers to achieve organisational success (Smith & Smith, 2007:263; Haven-Tang & Jones, 2006:90; Lucas, 2004:62; Mehrabad & Brojeny, 2007:306). According to Dulebohn and Werling (2007:191) and Brewster (2004:365) HRM is a branch of organisation science that deals with the employment relations policies, decisions and practices. Dessler (2011:16) as well as Grugulis (2007:10) further added that HRM is a study of individuals (employees), the entirety of the organisation and various other national systems in an organisation confined in the HR department.

Human Resource Management (HRM) has the following descriptions (Ivancevich, 2010:5):

- ④ HRM is action orientated: Effective HRM focuses on action rather than on record keeping, written routine or policies. Certainly, HRM apply policies, records and files but stresses action. It emphasises the resolution of employment problems to help achieve organisational objectives and facilitates employees' development and satisfaction.
- ④ HRM is people-orientated: Whenever possible, HRM treats each member of staff as an individual and provides services and programmes to meet the individual needs.
- ④ HRM is universally orientated: HRM is a universal function or activity, which advocates that many organisations around the world treat employees' reasonably, with respect, and with sensitivity.
- ④ HRM is future orientated: Effective HRM is focused on helping an organisation to accomplish objectives in the future by providing for knowledgeable, well-motivated employees, thus it needs to be integrated into an organisation's long term strategic plans.

According to Marlow (2006:473), Noe, Hollenbeck, Gerhart and Wright (2009:2) as well as Tsaur and Lin (2004:471) organisations need to manage all important aspects/bundles of HRM practices as this will guarantee maximum performance for the organisations. Companies that have effective HRM practices are distinguished by employees and customers that tend to be more satisfied and the companies themselves tend to be more innovative, have higher levels of productivity and develop a more favourable reputation in their community at large.

With the latter in mind, Andrews (2009:27) explains in Figure 2.2 that human resource management is flexible in nature and adapts easily to its surroundings and is highly

influenced by external and internal environments around the operations of the organisation. It is the meticulous balancing of these environments that make HRM successful.

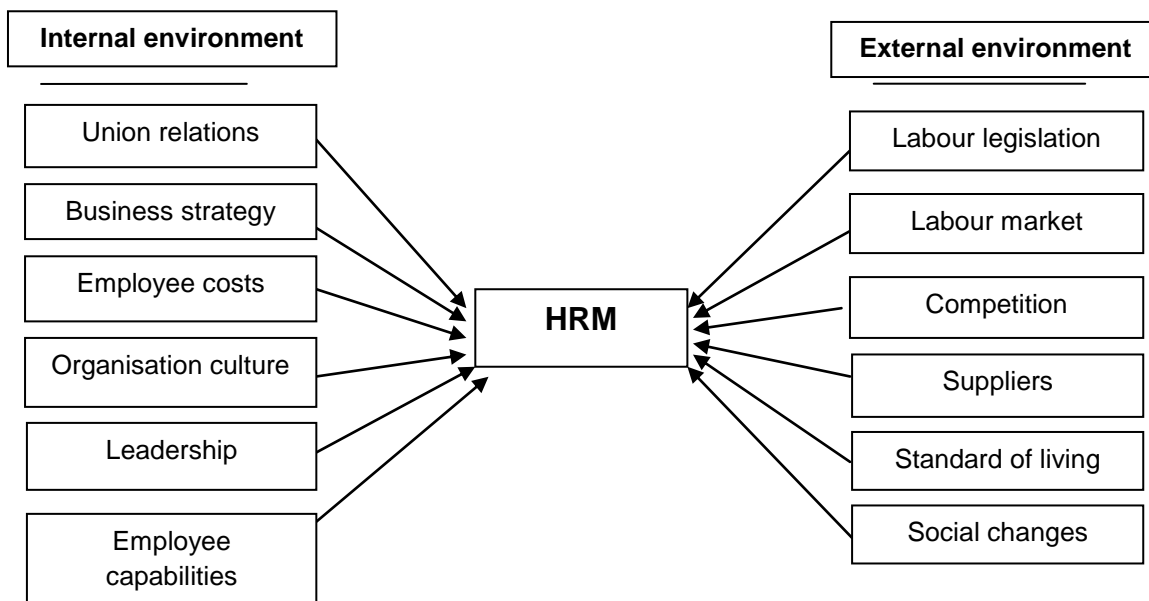


Figure 2.2: Business environment

Source: Andrews (2009:27)

Thus HRM provides a strategic and comprehensive approach to managing of the employees, ensuring that they contribute effectively to the overall organisational direction and the accomplishment of its vision.

2.2.2 Human Resource Development (HRD)

Origins of HRD are connected to the history of humanity and tracked back through the evolution of the human race. Through the women’s emancipation in the ’60s with women stepping out of their traditional roles as home-makers into all aspects of industry and commerce, it was around the 1980s that women were recognised as a significant part of the workforce leading ‘manpower development’ to be re-titled ‘Human Resource Development’. HRD is a fairly new term with *training and development* being the major component of HRD. The study of HRD is a relatively young scholarly discipline but an old and a well-established field in practice (Swanson & Holton III, 2009:4,9; Andrews, 2009:4).

According to Andrews (2009:37) the objectives of a modern HRD department are:

- Ⓢ To create proactive HRD policies that will foster high performance and release human potential
- Ⓢ To introduce best HRD practices in responding to the policies and business strategy
- Ⓢ To procure the best talent for organisations supported by innovative compensation schemes
- Ⓢ To develop an individual to realise his/her potential to the highest extent and to develop individual potential to perform his/her present job better
- Ⓢ To develop capabilities to cope with future responsibility
- Ⓢ To develop and sustain high morale and motivation of the workforce
- Ⓢ To strengthen relationships between superiors and subordinates
- Ⓢ To promote inter-team collaboration
- Ⓢ To develop a positive organisational climate and promote health.

HRD is a process and mainly focuses on key aspects of economic life. According to Swanson and Holton III (2009:5,9), Grugulis (2007:ix) and Andrews (2009:33), HRD introduced several new concepts such as scientific recruitment and selection, orientation and socialisation, performance management, career planning, succession planning, innovative compensation practices and training and development to harness and reward the human potential.

According to Swanson and Holton III (2009:4,24), Hamlin and Stewart (2010:212) as well as Andrews (2009:33), HRD has two main additional banners – Training and Development (T&D) and Organisation Development (OD). These researchers explain that OD focuses at the organisation level and connects with an employee, while T&D focuses on an employee and connects with the organisations. According to Swanson and Holton III (2009:5), both banners share the commonality of employees as assets with potential for development in an organisation. HRD therefore demonstrates that:

- Ⓢ Every person has potential arising from his/her strength
- Ⓢ Potentials are of different types in different people suiting different roles and situations
- Ⓢ In the same role, people may have more or less potential
- Ⓢ At any given time, whatever the level of achievement, a person's potential is underutilised
- Ⓢ Potential can temporarily be wasted due to obsolescence or misuse.

Table 2.1: Human Resource Development

| |
|---|
| In summary, HRD is about: HUMAN |
| HRD recognises the employee as human with rational thoughts and feelings. Earlier, organisations related to the employee at the rational and logical level only and ignored the employee's feelings. Organisations therefore focused on productivity at all costs and mostly at the expense of employees' morale. However, organisations soon learnt that feelings were equally important in creating motivation for better productivity. To do this, managers had to first recognise their own feelings (and biases) through innovative programmes, such as sensitivity training and T-Group sessions, before they could be sensitive to others. Feelings needed to be addressed also to bring out the best human potential (which is the capacity to be developed further). |
| RESOURCE |
| Organisations also recognised that the employee was an important resource (for example: an asset that can be used to achieve a goal). Many organisations perceived the workforce as the greatest asset. They recognise that employee performance and productivity created the competitive edge through their talents and attributes to the organisation. |
| DEVELOPMENT |
| Organisations take the responsibility of developing human potential and making it worthwhile for the individual as well as for the organisation. All sub-systems of HRD serve as development opportunities for the individual. For example, new hires were chosen for their potential to grow and their possible future contribution. Similarly, performance management was an opportunity to identify weakness to be overcome, and strengths to be further developed for both the individual and the organisation's benefit through training and development. Career plans and succession plans were devised to allow people to grow in both the short and the long term. |

Source: Andrews (2009:5)

Thus human resource development as summarised in Table 2.1 assists employees to develop their skills, knowledge, and abilities to ensure that the overall organisation's vision is achieved through a capable workforce.

Considering the above discussions, it is evident that both aspects are not a standalone but rather have a human intervention ensuring their success. The following discussion will look into role players involved throughout the HR initiative.

2.2.3 Role players within human resources

Depending on an organisation, the human resources department is usually created when an organisation has an estimated 200-500 employees. A strong human resources department is important for implementation of company strategy and serves as a facilitator to the line management in managing their employees effectively (Ivancevich, 2010:14; Dessler, 2011:19; Riley *et al.*, 2002:168). Most organisations are too large to permit close contact between top management and employees, and often line managers simply cannot simultaneously perform HR functions and keep their units profitable. Therefore HR specialists provide a link between management and personnel (Walsh *et al.*, 2003:787; Riley *et al.*, 2002:168; Lucas, 2004:73; Jerris, 1999:8).

Various positions make up a human resources department and personnel in these departments are said to spend a considerable amount of time on human resources aspects (refer to Figure 2.3). Managers in organisations seek the support of the HR department to strategically drive and guide human resource initiatives to maintain an effective workforce. Small companies may not have an exclusive HR department and often leave this function to the owner/CEO to execute (Andrews, 2009:33; Jerris, 1999:97; Cardon & Stevens, 2004:302). According to Taylor (2006:486) and Marlow (2006:468) small organisations often overlook HR and prioritise ensuring survival of the company.

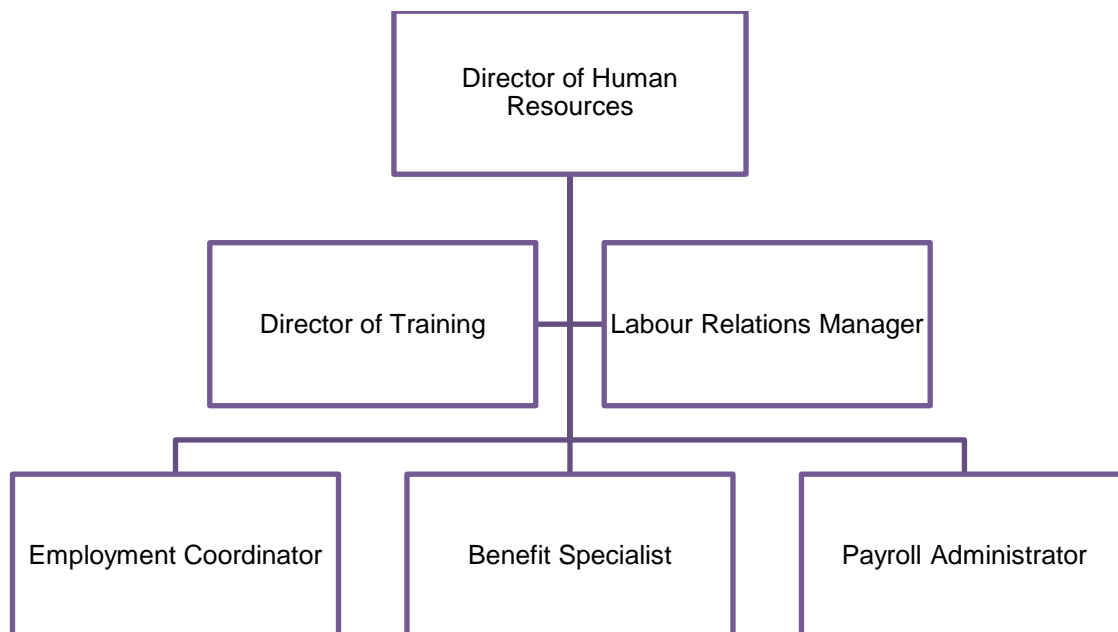


Figure 2.3: A typical HR department in a medium to large sized operation

Source: Jerris (1999:12)

A well-structured HR department is able to bring out the best in the organisation's employees and thus contribute to the overall success of the organisation. The aforementioned discussions depict that, within the midst of HR, is training and development, a component that has the capability to produce a proficient workforce. This therefore leads to the following discussion which aims to indicate the roles and functions of training and development.

2.3 UNDERSTANDING THE ROLE OF TRAINING AND DEVELOPMENT IN HUMAN RESOURCES

To understand training and development, it is vital to understand its role, functions and other related characteristics linked to HR that enables overall success. The following discussion will provide detailed analyses of training and development as part of human resources.

2.3.1 Overview of training and development and links to Human Resources

According to Haven-Tang and Jones (2006:90) human resources acknowledge that employees are an important asset in any organisation. Noe *et al.* (2009:247); Baum and

Kokkranikal (2003:808), Valachis *et al.* (2009:64); as well as Swanson and Holton III (2009:125) added that most organisations endeavour to provide quality service and remain competitive in their industry through their employees. This is primarily dependent on the professionalism and relevant skills achieved through the link to training and development. It is clear from the researchers Haven-Tang and Jones (2006:91); Noe *et al.* (2009:247); Baum and Kokkranikal (2003:808); Valachis *et al.* (2009:64); Swanson and Holton III (2009:125) that training and development has a major impact on the employer as well as the employees' work performance.

With this in mind, training and development, like many other human resource topics, is an applied science (Chen & Klimoski, 2007:181). Noe *et al.* (2009:247); Grugulis (2007:2,81) and Jerris (1999:318) noted that various definitions of training and development indicate that both functions share common focal points and are future oriented. Training focuses on assisting employees develop performance in their current jobs, and development is not necessarily related to the employees' current job but rather it prepares employees for other occupations in the organisation and enhances their capability to move into jobs that may not yet exist with the aim of assisting the employee to continue making positive contributions in the form of good performance.

Baum and Kokkranikal (2003:812); Ivancevich (2010:391) as well as Martell and Dougherty (1978:154) aver that both aspects remain core to most staff developmental programmes and the attainment of finite skills. They further focus on providing flexibility and transferable capabilities over the full length of a person's working career to enable them to respond to changing work demands and opportunities for new responsibilities. Ivancevich (2010:394) added that training and development are important factors for new or present employees. Their systematic process characteristics seek to alter the behaviour of employees in a direction that will achieve organisational goals.

According to Riley (1996:152) the objectives of training and development are:

- Ⓢ To improve performance
- Ⓢ To make more training more efficient in a shorter period
- Ⓢ To obtain better employee retention
- Ⓢ To facilitate change

In addition to the above, Noe *et al.* (2009:247); Smith and Smith (2007:266); Swanson & Holton III (2009:226) and Jerris (1999:318) noted that there are strong links between training and development and business strategy, therefore organisations have prioritised linking training programs to their business goals which then smoothly connect with the aims of both functions that endeavour to provide employees with information, skills and an understanding of the organisation and its goals. Hence Smith and Smith (2007:268) aver that employers are increasingly cognisant of the value for money from their investments in training and are demanding that training be much more deliberately aligned with the strategic needs of the organisations, thus increasing the strength of the link between the three traditional elements of human resource development – individual career development, organisational development and training.

The above discussion shows that training and development is a HR component that has the ability to contribute positively both to the organisation and to its employees with an impact that can be realised almost immediately as well as in the future.

2.3.2 Purpose and benefits of training and development

According to Grugulis (2007:1), Jerris (1999:318) as well as Smith and Smith (2007:275) government, employers, trade unions, and professional associations agree with reasonable consensus that the provision of nationally recognised training and development facilitates ‘win-win’ outcomes for all participants. Noe *et al.* (2009:181) and Chen and Klimoski (2007:180) added that the nature of the modern business environment and the challenges in the 21st century makes training and development more important today than it has ever been. Rapid changes, especially in the area of technology, requires workforce to constantly learn new skills and have the ability to solve problems in teams.

Janes (2003:310) and Noe *et al.* (2009:180) added that the purpose of training and development is to educate employees with new behaviours, abilities, and skills to increase their job performance and knowledge contributing to the future of the organisation. Chang, Gong and Shum (2011:812) further noted that training and development serves the purpose of motivating the employees and can increase their commitment towards the organisation and contributes to employees being innovative. Chang *et al.* (2011:816); Haven-Tang and Jones (2006:100) as well as Jerris (1999:318) added that when employees receive positive

feedback regarding their competent job performance, their psychological thoughts are influenced to indirectly reduce aspects such as absenteeism, turnover, tardiness and general dissatisfaction and boredom. In return, according to Balkin and Richebe (2007:54) employers often tend to be more willing to provide higher compensation to employees due to their contribution to the company and being the cause to an increase of profits.

According to Andrews (2009:174) and Jerris (1999:349) organisations provide training for the following reasons:

- Ⓢ To convert competencies into currencies - increased profits
- Ⓢ To get a competitive advantage - through increasing the provision of quality and productivity for organisations
- Ⓢ Fear of obsolescence and reduced waste
- Ⓢ Changes to new technologies
- Ⓢ Globalisation
- Ⓢ To improve productivity – better performance
- Ⓢ To maximise the use of resources and human capital
- Ⓢ To retain customers – fewer complaints
- Ⓢ To avoid lawsuits.

Individuals are also welcoming the aspects of training and development. They recognise the importance of training in helping them improve their worth. According to Andrews (2009:174) individuals train for the following reasons:

- Ⓢ Job security
- Ⓢ Growth and contributions to the workplace
- Ⓢ Improvement and knowledge power
- Ⓢ Challenges
- Ⓢ Sense of discovery and recognition
- Ⓢ Improve self-esteem
- Ⓢ Fear of obsolescence and loss of status

Grugulis (2007:15,16) notes that the benefits of training, skill and knowledge acquired by individuals through qualifications, experience, and expertise assist employers to recruit internally or advertise for new employees who have the requisite expertise and the relevant level of skill.

With this in mind, according to Balkin and Richebe (2007:53), the expenditure of training include direct expenses (cost of providing the training) and indirect expenses (cost of foregone productivity and remuneration expense when taking an employee away from the workplace to receive training). Therefore, according to the researchers, Balkin and Richebe (2007:53), training should occur when its monetary benefits outweigh its expense and that the gains from training should accumulate over a satisfactory duration. Subsequently the total gains from training must exceed the total expenses of training. Balkin and Richebe (2007:57) note that most employers use training contracts to ensure a guaranteed return on the training investments and the employee is expected to pay 'in kind' and/or in service for the training. The researchers Balkin and Richebe (2007:53) further added that most monopolistic employers know that the likelihood of employees leaving the organisation is minimal, hence they pay for training because they know that the employees are probable to remain long enough for them to earn a positive return on training costs.

With this in mind, according to Grugulis (2007:3) and Balkin and Richebe (2007:52), employees who partake in employer-sponsored training are more likely to say they have better profession prospects and intend to stay with their employers than those who do not. Chen and Klimoski (2007:184) note that an employee on training often reacts positively and commits to training when the decision to embark on training is made by themselves rather than their organisations. Therefore Balkin and Richebe (2007:57); Martell and Dougherty (1978:154) as well as Andrews (2009:181) advise that it is of essence for employers to conduct a needs analysis and promote continuous consultation with employees to identify their long term goal, as this will enable them to reveal what is desired and what exists, the organisation's role and the job-centred career aspirations for employees. Chen and Klimoski (2007:185) further added that, when conducting the training needs analysis, it is important to create a horizontal (individual-level) and a vertical (cross-level) alignment of skills required because individuals are motivated to study what that they know to be valued by their organisation and supervisor.

The above discussions illustrate that the world of work in the 21st Century recognises and appreciates the importance of training and development. To ensure their competitiveness, organisations are willing to invest time and resources in uplifting the knowledge of their employees and the employees are also welcoming this aspect of training and development.

The following discussions will provide an insight into ways organisations mobilise the provision of training and development and the participation of employees.

2.3.3 Provision and success of training

Grugulis (2007:29) notes that when the key differential in organisational competitiveness is human capability, and people are resources rather than costs then skills and training are the pivotal elements of practice. When conducting training, Balkin and Richebe (2007:59) warn that organisations' training should promote general training not organisation-specific training because organisation-specific training is limited to the focal employer whilst general training can be used everywhere and will assist the employee to be more marketable. According to Noe *et al.* (2009:247); Tsaur and Lin (2004:473) as well as Jerris (1999:318), an effective training programme educates what it is designed to teach, based on the content outputs, and it reaches skills and behaviours that will enrich both parties.

Riley *et al.* (2002:166) and Swanson and Holton III (2009:125) commented that training programmes may cover informal and/or one-on-one mentoring; and that they may take place on the job, for example at the workplace, and/or at remote locations, for example at a training institution. Jerris (1999:349) indicated that training on the job increases individuals' skills levels and employees tend to be more proficient because they gain knowledge of the organisation they work in through the practical view of the way systems operate, the way problems are solved and they learn how their colleagues approach particular requests.

According to Dessler (2011:176) a human resource department can easily measure the training effect by following the guidelines below: (see Figure 2.4 below)

- Ⓢ *Reaction.* First evaluate the employee reaction to the programme - did they like the programme?
- Ⓢ *Learning.* Examine the employee to establish whether they learned the principles, skills, and facts they were supposed to learn.
- Ⓢ *Behaviour.* Ask the training facilitators whether the trainees' behaviour on the job changes from his/her subordinates because of the training programme.
- Ⓢ *Results.* Access the results achieved in terms of the training objectives previously set.

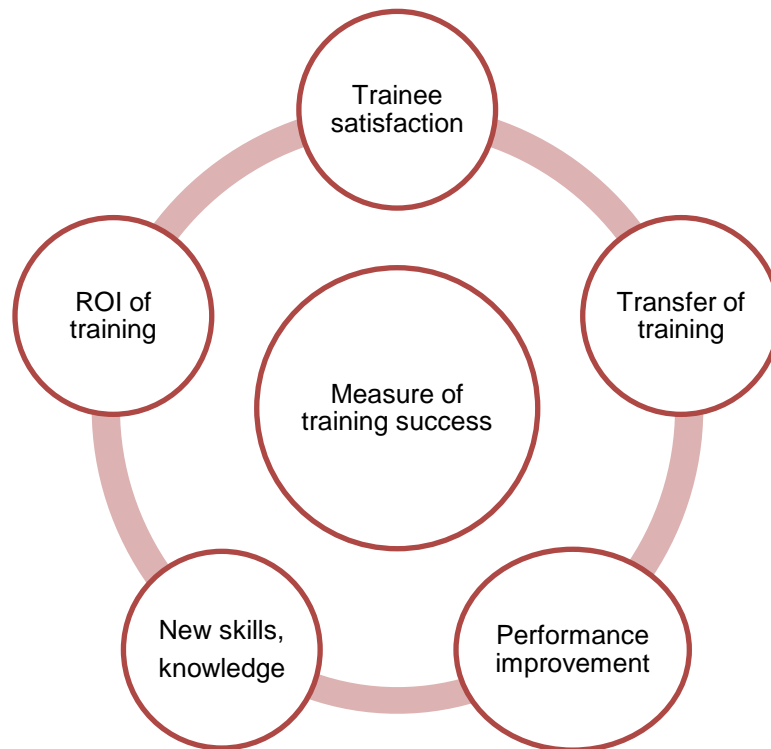


Figure 2.4: Measuring of training success

Source: Noe et al. (2009:200)

After a training programme ends, or at intervals during an ongoing training programme, organisations should ensure that the training is meeting its objectives. Trainers can observe whether an employee demonstrates the desired skills and behaviours at work (Noe *et al.*, 2009:199).

2.3.4 Discouragement, challenges and obstacles to the provision of training and development

Employees are welcoming the important aspects of training and development. However, it is important to take cognisance of the fact that most organisations are not willing to spend development budgets on employees because of the fear of losing staff to the competition (Andrews, 2009:174). Cardon and Stevens (2004:297,309) further add that this is especially prevalent in small organisations because of their challenges of financial constraints and small number of staff members.

Most organisations, noted Riley (1996:151), have voiced the concern that it is often difficult to quantify the investment of the total spend on training and the results thereof. According

to Grugulis (2007:10) and Jerris (1999:318), organisations are of the opinion that they are not guaranteed that work will be done simply because they have taken an employee to training. Even in cases where an employee has the adequate skills, ability or capacity to perform a job, they may decide not to do so and no management system nor processes for controlling work can attempt to secure employees' commitment to ensure that they are motivated to act and compel them to follow procedure and restrain from undesirable activity. Further to the above, Latagan, Dinu and Stoica (2010:5143) aver that access to information and education is still an obstacle to young persons and adults in rural areas and has an effect in this regard (Bennet, Dunne & Carre, 2000:48). The tourism industry depends upon external education and training systems as the main source for its new recruits, yet it contributes very little to the education and training process and is not consulted by education and training providers in terms of the curriculum and teaching methods, for example (Baum, 1995:204).

2.4 SKILLS ATTRIBUTES REQUIRED BY INDUSTRIES

These overarching aspects in training and development discussions have a direct focus on the streamlining of sustainable employment with the underlying components being the acquisition of necessary and relevant skills. The following discussions provide an insight into the employers' skills expectations that need to be demonstrated by their prospective and current employees.

2.4.1 Overview of employers' skill requirements

Skills reviews analysis emanated around the 1980s when employers persuaded government to challenge the autonomy of the training sector, and thereby review and evaluate the traditional curricula because of the perceptions that these are out of sync with their needs (Bennet, Dunne & Carre, 2000:1 & Hoddinott, 2004:90). The pressure was further increased by taxpayers and parents wanting to see their children being prepared for successful lives, with the aim of building communities of responsible and productive citizens (Oliver, Russell, Gilli, Hughes, Schuder, Brown & Towers, 1997:47). Around the 1990s, the focus changed due to scientific, technological and economic issues requesting training and education provision to have a broader focus (Bennet *et al.*, 2000:4). According to Bailey

(1997:27), these concerns have driven the education and training reform for the past decade and a half.

With this in mind, and considering the playing fields of all stakeholders involved, for half a century, training institutions evolved around the economy which provided large numbers of good jobs for semiskilled employees (Bailey, 1997:33), with an increase in the provision of learners that demonstrated basic personal transferable skills and generic competencies mostly not required by today's employers (Bennet *et al.*, 2000:1). According to Nash and Korte (1997:79) and Bailey (1997:33), this resulted in employees lacking the full range of skills necessary to operate in high performance jobs and somehow contributed to skills challenges in most industries. Hence Bailey (1997:37), suggests that the content of training and education at school level be constantly in line with the type of activities found within the work environment and calls for a detachment from the traditional education.

2.4.2 Employees performance qualities

According to Oliver *et al.* (1997:65) “a world where the rate of change only accelerates, learning and higher order thinking must be continuous”. Bennet *et al.* (2000:7) further add that today's world of work is highly knowledge intensive and requires employees with core transferable skills. According to Bailey (1997:40) this can be achieved through the provision of education and training that integrates academic and vocational studies embraced within the parameters of school and work, Bennet *et al.* (2000:4) added that this structure of training calls for the promotion of the power in mind whilst meeting the needs of the economy and that of the individual.

Bennet *et al.* (2000:5,14) note that employers want employees that are flexible, adaptive, adaptable and transformable in these changing worlds of work with an ability to learn quickly. It is important, according to Oliver *et al.* (1997:47) and Bennet *et al.* (2000:4) for employees to demonstrate initiative, have the ability to work well with others, solve problems routinely, and effectively make use of technology. Bailey (1997:37); Bennet *et al.* (2000:14) and Sinclair (1997:108) agree that employees need to have the ability to work independently with minimum supervision and have creative thinking skills. They also stated that it is of the essence for employees to have a broader knowledge with conceptual

understanding of what they are doing and to easily fit into the workplace culture. It is necessary for them to be able to acquire, organise and interpret information.

2.4.3 Employee skill qualities required

From this it is clear that, to translate these requirements into reality, employees need to acquire relevant skills which can be achieved through quality training and development. These skills not only have an influence on job performance, but they also have the ability to influence hiring decisions and other employment decisions such as promotion, assignment or reassignment, and firing (Hoddinott, 2004:89). Skills, according to Oliver *et al.* (1997:65) form bridges between individuals, society and the environment as they allow for individuals to be able to have resources and interact with other people, institutions and the natural environment.

With this in mind, it is interesting to note that O'Neil, Allred & Baker (1997:5) indicated that there are five competencies that employees need to efficiently use in a workplace. These are (a) resources, (b) interpersonal skills (c) information (d) systems (e) technology and all these require a three-part foundation of skills (a) basic skills (b) thinking skills (c) personal qualities. Added to the above, employers require a higher order of tacit and generic skill such as decision-making skills, ability to solve problems, communication skills, teamwork skills, understanding of work, and motivation qualities such as the motivation to succeed and setting high individual principles and the capacity to cope with change (O'Neil *et al.*, 1997:13,19; Sinclair, 1997:108,111,118; Nash & Korte, 1997:79; Bennet *et al.*, 2000:97 & Evans, Kersh & Sakamoto, 2004:222). It is interesting to note that tacit skills such as time management, organising and multi-tasking are often facilitated by certain forms of learning, such as group working (Fuller, Munro & Rainbird, 2004:15). There is also a continued growth for the demand of skilled employees with cognitive skills which include features such as attention, clarity of thought and memory skills (Bailey, 1997:32 & Bennet *et al.*, 2000:3). According to Oliver *et al.* (1997:65) interpersonal skills are also important; and Sinclair (1997:118) notes that leadership skills are also important as employees progress to a position of greater authority.

Considering the above, Oliver *et al.* (1997:65) caution that, without learning and thinking skills, nothing is possible. Bennet *et al.* (2000:14) added that it is important to note that

without self-reliance skills, other skills can be wasted. Overall, according to Bennet *et al.* (2000:15) the barrier to a clearer understanding of skills is that of language.

2.4.4 Employees and learners perceptions towards skills attainment

According to Bennet *et al.* (2000:20) learners regard getting employment and a qualification for employment together with the opportunity to develop new and existing skills as the most important reasons of completing their studies. Although Eraut (2004:220) avers that within that sphere of acquirement, some learners experience learning difficulties which often results in them blaming themselves for being inadequate and rejecting the theoretical knowledge as irrelevant. Consequently, according to Bennet *et al.* (2000:18,162) learners enter the workplace with the inability to identify the skills acquired during their theoretical training and those to be applied at the workplace thereby leading to learners generally lacking the skills to deal with some of the aspects of employment.

Nonetheless, it is important to note that a good support structure is important in shaping the learners and employees to the right direction. According to Sinclair (1997:115) and Evans *et al.* (2004:238) learners and employees do not only get motivation from the employers but they can also get it from their homes as they are perceived as having an influence on the development of motivation to succeed and the enhancement of ethical values; whilst the training providers have an influence in installing the capability to work independently.

2.4.5 Development of the skills required

From this, it is clear that at the centre is the emphasis on transfer and application of knowledge as a learning process, which requires both understanding and positive commitment from individual learners, formal education, employers and local workplace managers (Fuller *et al.* 2004:13). It is undisputed that both the overarching discussions - training, development, knowledge and skills can be acquired through work experience and achieved either through direct placement in the workplace and/or through some kind of work simulation (Bennet *et al.*, 2000:29). These workplaces are prominent with the teaching of work skills and the basic reading, writing, and maths skills being taught in school (Nash & Korte, 1997:77).

With this in mind, Fuller *et al.* (2004:13) advise the professional preparation of programmes to integrate and incorporate accountability for both the learners and new staff whilst facilitating continual learning in the workplace by knowledgeable staff. The researcher further warns that without such developments, the impact of education on the workplace will persist to be lower than expected and the superiority of work will suffer from the limited use of relevant knowledge.

According to Eraut (2004:207) the workplace is able to provide the skills, knowledge and expertise within these areas:

- Ⓢ Codified knowledge of notion, theories and methodology which includes work-specific technical knowledge and knowledge of systems and procedures.
- Ⓢ Skills needed for competence in a wide range of activities and for performing several work-related roles, including management and working collaboratively within a team. These can be clustered under four titles - technical, interpersonal, thinking and learning - and are obtained through practice with feedback. A succession is related with increasing fluency, responsibility and complexity.
- Ⓢ Learning from other people, these include work colleagues, network of customers, suppliers and competitors and other personal contacts developed over time.
- Ⓢ Decision making and judgement abilities.

The above experiential platforms, according to Bennet *et al.* (2000:133) somehow create severe competition for learners and, in most cases, employers select the academically able learners with personal characteristics and experiences to become future top managers.

2.5 RECRUITMENT AND SELECTION

It is evident from these discussions that training, development and skill attributes are directly linked, thus having an influence on the recruitment and selection of suitable candidates mainly because new and current employees need to have a common understanding of job outputs and the any gaps therein can be closed through training.

Organisational growth involves an increase in the number of employees, which is directly linked to recruitment and selection (Taylor, 2006:478). Recruitment and selection remains a top priority in human resource development of most organisations (Shih *et al.*, 2005:1556; Chang *et al.*, 2011:814). According to Taylor (2006:485) organisations handle recruitment and selection in different ways, especially small organisations. Cardon and Stevens (2004:303) aver that recruitment and selection is very important in small ventures and this duty is often performed by the owner or manager because the HR department is often almost non-existent. The researchers Cardon and Stevens (2004:299) further added that recruitment is usually problematic for these organisations because of limited financial and material resources which leads to them struggling to find suitable candidates.

According to Shih *et al.* (2005:1557) recruiting the right person for the right post is important and this, therefore, means that it is imperative for an organisation to use appropriate selection methods found within the HR fraternity. Chang *et al.* (2011:814) note that organisations are finding it costly to provide training, hence their recruitment is often focused on hiring skilful applicants with relevant knowledge for the job. This therefore requires a thorough recruitment guidelines and procedure which is likely to enhance the organisation's innovations.

2.5.1 Ways to ensure successful recruitment

The following are some of the mechanisms used today by most organisations:

- ② Use of recruitment and selection systems, for example the Human Resource Information system (HRIS). The purpose of these systems is to provide support to human resource services and assist with decision making to organisations from the strategic level down to the tactical and operational levels (Shih *et al.*, 2005:1544).
- ② Adaption of the job, departmental and organisational characteristics to the applicant's characteristics (Mehrabad & Brojeny, 2007:307).
- ② Employer website - they are able to attract large numbers of applicants at relatively low cost (Breagha, 2008:113).
- ② Advertising, it can be in the form of audio or visual mass media (Taylor, 2006:478; Breagha, 2008:113).
- ② Employment agencies and school placement offices (Breagha, 2008:109).

- ② Referrals, 'walk-ins/unsolicited applicants' direct applications and rehiring of former employees'. This process is often used by small companies. This group is often less likely to voluntarily quit the job than those referred by agencies and job advertisements because they are more knowledgeable of what the position entails (Breugh, 2008:108,109; Cardon & Stevens, 2004:303).

With this in mind, should the employer conduct a poor recruitment process, this may not bring suitable candidates for the job and the possible candidates can withdraw before the presentation of the job offer (Breugh, 2008:104).

The disadvantages of some of these processes are (Breugh, 2008:113):

- ② Geographical spread may limit the reach of suitable candidates - such as newspaper which may not reach applicants that are not actively looking for employment.
- ② Advertisements with less information of the job specifications result in a job opening been seen as less attractive.
- ② Not displaying how difficult the job may be often increases employee turnover
- ② Advertising is often perceived as complex and time consuming (Taylor, 2006:478).
- ② Websites often generate unqualified applicants (Breugh, 2008:114).

2.5.2 Selection processes

The selection of suitable candidates is done in discussion with the supervisor and/or the work unit employees of the job being filled, mostly based on the attributes of the applicants, the outcomes of the interview, the training and education requirements of the job, and reference and background checks of the applicant (Cardon & Stevens, 2004:303; Tsaur & Lin, 2004:478). The selection methods are often based on the job nature, cost time, precision, culture and satisfactoriness. The selection criteria are viewed from organisations, functional/departmental and individual job criteria (Mehrabad & Brojeny, 2007:307). Some employers provide site visits because these are deemed to provide simulations of work being done to ensure understanding of the job to the applicants (Breugh, 2008:115).

Additionally, to ensure effective selection, most employers make use of intelligent and logical methods in HRM which have a high effect in organisations' evolution. They are as follows (Mehrabad & Brojeny, 2007:307):

- ② Use of application forms.
- ② Self-assessment.
- ② Telephone screening.
- ② Testing (such as aptitude, intelligence, training ability, personality, and interest).
- ② Interviewing.
- ② Group methods.
- ② Work sampling.

Considering this, according to Chang *et al.* (2011:813) it is imperative to use selective hiring as this ensures (1) that those selected have work relevant knowledge, skills and talents that are required for creative innovative performance (2) person - organisation fit in terms of principles, goals and personalities. If the selection is done properly, it has the potential to enhance organisational innovation which can attract employees with the ability to generate new ideas, influence creative problem solving and the acquisition of new knowledge. Breugh (2008:111) added these are qualities that are often acquired by graduates as they have realistic job expectations and willingness to learn, additional to those are the seniors because they have better skills, work ethics and are less likely to quit.

According to Breugh (2008:105), during the selection process, most applicants are deemed to (a) have an incomplete and/or inaccurate understanding of what a position opening involves, (b) are not sure what they desire from a position (c) do not have self-insight with regard to their understanding, skills, and abilities, (d) cannot precisely predict how they will act in response to the demands of new position.

2.6 COMPENSATION

The core discussions that often lead to an understanding and agreement between employer and employee during an interview is compensation. The study of compensation is found generally in management courses, and the aspects thereof are further discussed in organisational behaviour, organisation theory, international management, industrial /organisational psychology, sociology, economics, labour economics, law, and strategy

among others (Werner & Ward, 2004:201). An overview of compensation is discussed below.

According to Dulebohn and Werling (2007:191) as well as Cardon and Stevens (2004:304) compensation is central to the relationship between employers and employees. Compensation is one of the important components of human resources and entrepreneurship. Dulebohn and Werling (2007:191); Werner and Ward (2004:215) note that organisations associate compensation to their cost of the business and the implications thereof determine the company viability and competitiveness. Today most people are employed and remain in employment relations because of their dependency on salaries or wages.

Cardon and Stevens (2004:307) note that compensation structures differ between small and large employers. Small firms often have a flat organisational structure with few levels of management. Dulebohn and Werling (2007:195) further added that organisations have various compensation structures characterised by hierarchies made up of job grade, job evaluation point and pay policy lines normally referred to as pay structures. According to Jerris (1999:149); Lucas (2004:225) as well as Haven-Tang and Jones (2006:93) compensation is often linked to professionalism and the levels of pay are often dependent upon the market demand for particular skills. Duleboh and Werling (2007:191,200) noted that compensations are often determined by internal, external, individual and organisational environmental factors which must be balanced, such as labour markets, market pricing, external competitiveness, and compensation practice. Werner and Ward (2004:212) aver that compensation is determined by the employee's past performance of varying durations, expected performance and political behaviours. Dulebohn and Werling (2007:199) further added that most organisations are now compensating their employees based on the employees competency, skill and productivity rather than the job specifications.

Compensation often is made up of a package which includes a proportion of salary, benefits and incentives (Cardon & Stevens, 2004:306; Dulebohn & Werling, 2007:194). Benefits and incentives are recognised as motivators to employees and are perceived as an important communication tool used by employers to emphasise entrepreneurial conduct and indicate legitimacy to external stakeholders (Cardon & Stevens, 2004:304, Werner & Ward, 2004:201).

Cardon and Stevens (2004:306,307) noted that compensation and benefits often differ, long term pay incentives may include some equity ownerships such as stock options or incentives based on venture stock performance. According to Cardon and Stevens (2004:307) as well as Tsaur and Lin (2004:477) compensation increases differ over an organisation life cycle, some organisations offer an automatic increase on an annual basis and, normally, small organisations cannot provide fixed annual raises. The ability of organisations to offer compensation changes is attached to the evolution of the organisational strategy, risk and uncertainty concerning the firm.

Cardon and Stevens (2004:304) observed that a challenge faced by small firms is that they often struggle to recruit or retain critical skills and knowledge as they are unable to compensate their applicants sufficiently. This is a significant challenge in the tourism industry. Taylor (2006:482) is of a view that, despite this challenge, employees in small organisations may be less well paid than their colleagues in large companies, but they accept this in exchange of their relative independence and greater participation and variety of work. Compensations are also affected by various factors like gender, age, and race. Factors that have been found as able to mediate the effects of gender and wage are external labour market strategies, family importance, education, affirmative action, productivity, promotions, access to power, marriage, children, training, mentoring and negotiation skills. Factors that have been found to mediate between race and wages include professional choice, output, education, labour force attachment, employer monitoring, English fluency, job tenure and experience (Werner & Ward, 2004:209).

With this in mind, compensation has a psychological effect which can be either positive or negative to the employee's behaviour, attitudes and reciprocity towards the organisations' compensation (Dulebohn & Werling, 2007:191,197; Werner & Ward, 2004:211). According to Cardon and Stevens (2004:307) for example, in small organisations, compensation practices are often uncoordinated and ad hoc in nature and this often impacts on employees' behaviour which can affect their organisational performance.

2.7 EMPLOYEE RELATIONS / LABOUR RELATIONS

Compensation is always a core issue in the discussion of labour relations and the following discussion will outline the link and cause thereof. Laws, unionisation and legislation have a direct impact on the management of human resources (Jerris, 1999:70; Brewster, 2004:375; Cardon & Stevens, 2004:315). Europe is one of the countries with a high proportion of employees as members of Trade Unions (Brewster, 2004:370). Unionisation operates differently per country, for instance, compared to the USA; legislation in most European countries requires a certain size of membership in order to recognise unions for consultative purpose. This is also the case in South Africa.

Unionisation and legislation are perceived and misunderstood by organisations as aiming to change the nature of the industries, act as barriers to change and yet they are focused on increasing the scope of jobs in line with the sustainability of quality for all parties. They are also focused on increasing the partnership between employers and employees to foster a more consensual and cooperative relationship (Cardon & Stevens, 2004:314; Riley *et al.*, 2002:169; Lucas, 2004:11). According to Jerris (1999:70) laws are most directed to create legal responsibility for HR managers to treat employee firmly, fairly and consistently.

Their scope further includes controlling the price of labour and improving conditions of employment hence unionisation shares processes with Bureaucratisation (Riley *et al.*, 2002:169; Brewster, 2004:370; Lucas, 2004:11). Most industries are found to be characterised by lower minimum wages for young employees, disproportionate pay, and cheap labour. These characteristics, in combination with the fact that most employees are not trade union members for reasons of non-permanence of most employees, which therefore represent what might be termed vulnerable employment. Hence it is not astonishing to find regulations of the employment relationship are of global concern in areas such as minimum wage, equal pay and operational time (Lucas, 2004:225). The researchers Cardon and Stevens (2004:314) noted that the presence of unionisation is stronger in larger organisations as compared to small organisations.

2.8 CONCLUSION

The aim of this chapter was to analyse literature concerning human resources with the focus falling on training. This was achieved by firstly understanding the various components and role of human resources in organisations. Human resources' objective and the link to the overall organisation's strategy were further analysed. Secondly, the role of training and development in human resources was discussed in depth. Thirdly, skills and attributes as required by industry were analysed with a specific view of current employee's qualities and those required by employers. Lastly, an in-depth view of each human resource component (recruitment and selection, compensation, and employee relations) was discussed.

With this in mind, it was found that human resources comprises human resource management and human resource development that form part of the overall organisational strategy of most organisations. Human resource development and human resource management successfully achieve their core function through proper coordination with recruitment and selection, compensation, employee relations and training and development. Training and development is central to human resources components as it directly influences the overall performance of organisations job outputs. A proper formation of the human resource function structure with well-defined roles and responsibilities is key to achieving the purpose of human resources. Although challenges such as time, budget and employee turnover discourage training, over the years employers are beginning to embrace the importance of training and development as a means of their organisation remaining competitive.

Globalisation and today's knowledgeable customers have changed the skills required by employers in most industries. An increased number of employers are seeking employees with the ability to learn quickly, solve problems routinely, adapt to changing environments and make use of technology. Training and development have been identified as the enablers for meeting these demanding needs of industries for years to come. Chapter three will analyse the current tourism education environment in South Africa and the skills required by the industry.

CHAPTER THREE

CONTEXTUALISING THE CURRENT TOURISM EDUCATION ENVIRONMENT IN SOUTH AFRICA

3.1 INTRODUCTION

Tourism education and training has grown over the past decade and it continues to grow rapidly today due to its diverse nature that enables the creation of employment in various countries. As discussed in chapter 1, the education and training of human resources have become the driving force for meeting the demand of highly skilled employees (Nel *et al.*, 2004:394). This chapter aims to provide an understanding regarding the status quo of the experiential learning programmes of tourism in South Africa. It presents insight into tourism human resources, education, training and the governance thereof. An in-depth discussion will focus on the experiential learning programmes and their role players (learner, employer and training providers) with cognisance of the major role played by training and development. The approach on how this is implemented will ultimately improve the current status of the tourism industry and lead to an increase in visitor satisfaction and numbers.

3.2 OVERVIEW OF TRAINING IN HUMAN RESOURCE OF TOURISM

Training in the tourism industry was historically not a priority because of high staff turnover and organisations fearing that trained employees will be poached by competitors (Baum, 1995:203; Kusluvan, 2003:15; Zagonari, 2009:4; Lee-Ross & Pryce, 2010:116). However the focus has since changed with training becoming more important to the majority of individuals and tourism organisations because it is able to attract and retain employees by improving their dedication as well as a high levels of productivity and the provision of quality to guests, employees and the organisation (Baum, 1995:202; Jerris, 1999:31; Riley *et al.*, 2002:171; Kusluvan, 2003:15). Employees are also investing their precious earnings in the interest of their own continuing education and development because they recognise the importance of keeping abreast with the latest knowledge and skills.

However, high seasonal business demands, insufficient time, high employee turnover, money turnover - especially in small businesses - the inability to calculate the benefit of training and expertise to provide training have been identified as hindering and discouraging the provision of ongoing employee training in tourism (D'annunzio-Green, Maxwell & Watson, 2004:19; Baum, Amouh & Spivack, 1997:223; Jerris, 1999:31). Nonetheless, according to Haven-Tang and Jones (2006:91) as well as Lucas (2004:33) some of these constraints in the tourism industry are generally accepted as inevitable and natural processes. Janes (2003:336) avers that the key to providing effective training lies first in reducing and eliminating these training barriers for organisations, and promoting an organisational culture that is committed to training as well as expertise in training design and delivery.

Additional to these barriers is the fact that the tourism industry is dominated by small businesses (Lucas, 2004:34; Baum, 1999:4; Peacock & Ladkin, 2002:396) and some owner-manager positions in these small businesses are filled by expatriates, the majority having a deficiency in tourism knowledge and management skills and who have never undergone formal tourism training (D'annunzio-Green, Maxwell, & Watson, 2004:19; Haven-Tang & Jones, 2006:93; Baum *et al.*, 1997:223; Baum, 1995:209). With this in mind, globally, the industry faces skills shortages in key operational, technical and managerial areas, the context varying between developed and developing countries. In developed countries, demographic trends, better education, low industry image and status attract fewer young people to enter the industry. Educational, technical, cultural and language barriers in developing countries make tourism employment less accessible (Kusluvan, 2003:6; Baum & Kokkranikal, 2003:806; Haven-Tang & Jones, 2006:92; Lui & Wall, 2006:163; D'annunzio-Green *et al.*, 2004:19; Baum *et al.*, 1997:223).

In addition to the above, it is important to take note of the characteristics of employment in the industry. According to Airey (2005:22), Lucas (2004:31), Baum and Kokkranikal (2003:806) as well as Andrews (2009:187) employment in the industry is twofold, skilled and unskilled. Skilled employees normally have a relevant qualification, experiential learning / on-job experience, and have obtained training entailing a period of several years. Unskilled employees mostly are working without the relevant qualification and experience, usually entailing work performed naturally, in a routine manner and standard in nature. As observed by Haven-Tang and Jones (2006:92) and Diplari and Dimou (2010:119) often the

aspect of unskilled work in the industry is instilled by employers especially when faced with high labour turnover and skills shortages. Employers often remedy the situation through the recruitment of unskilled staff, thereby adapting their product and job outputs to the lower skill level. This has a negative influence to the industry skills requirements and impacts on highly skilled staff not to be required in the long-term, thereby decreasing the demand for particular skills and the incentive for their acquisition. Ultimately, visitors' experiences, destination competitiveness and professionalism in the industry get affected negatively, mostly through rendering of bad service. The brunt was witnessed in developed countries; according to Haven-Tang and Jones (2006:93) lack of professionalism in the UK tourism industry exacerbates the trends towards unskilled labour resulting from skills shortages.

These discussions demonstrate that the status of tourism's education, training, and development is continuously improving. Table 3.1 shows how this can be efficiently developed and sustained through the practice of a more sustainable HR partnership and coordination within the industry (Baum, 1995:13). Baum and Kokkranikal (2003:829) and Giauque, Resenterra, and Siggen (2010:188) aver that this is made possible by the employers and the tourism Human Resource Development (HRD) policies and programmes aimed at increasing the role of attracting better talent to the industry and developing skills through relevant training. According to Riley *et al.* (2002:173) and Liu and Wall (2006:167) HRD documents issued by tourism government departments have an indirect positive effect on HR department operations in tourism organisations. Liu and Wall (2006:161) and Costen and Salazar (2011:282) advise that these documents should not be biased to focus on the job numbers the tourism industry is able to create and the subsequent economic growth but rather also to incorporate the aspects of quality in the jobs and qualifications the industry needs to uphold. Baum (1995:130) further added that it is important to create an integrated approach to human resource planning for tourism.

Table 3.1: Traditional and sustainable human resource practices

| Traditional and sustainable human resource practices | |
|---|--|
| Old Human Resources Practices | New sustainable Human Resource paradigms |
| Training and development not planned | Planned training and development policies and strategies |
| Gap between industry and education systems | Partnership between industry and education system |
| Education programmes with little industry relevance | Education programmes based on industry research / identified needs |

| | |
|--|---|
| Industry – developed skills not recognised by education | Industry-developed skills recognised and certified by education |
| Training compartmentalised with specialist department | Training recognised as the responsibility of all supervisors / management |
| No senior management commitment to training | Training recognised as the responsibility from CEO down |
| Training operates in isolation from other human resource practices | Training linked to opportunities for promotion etc. |
| Education and training programmes terminal and not integrated | Education and training provide for further development and progression |

Source: Baum (1995:13)

In essence it is clear that although the nature of the industry hinders the seamless process of training provision, organisations persist in embracing the drive to having a capable labour force that is quality trained and skilled.

3.3 ORIGINS OF TOURISM TRAINING AND EDUCATION

Tourism training and education worldwide developed from, and is an extension of, the more traditional disciplines such as geography, sociology, anthropology, economics and linguistics which have often provided optional specialisation in Tourism (Cooper *et al.*, 1994:46; Riley *et al.*, 2002:175; Baum & Kokkranikal, 2003:826). The evolution and professionalism of tourism is dependent on the continued use of the aforementioned speciality fields of study (Cooper *et al.*, 1994:46; Baum & Kokkranikal, 2003:826) (see Figure 3.1 on the following page). Growth in tourism has given rise to escalating interest in training and educational aspects and the expanding number of training providers in this area of study (Lee- Ross & Pryce, 2010:129) thereby leading to tourism training and education attaining formal recognition in several countries worldwide (Ayikoru, Tribe & Airey, 2009:191).

According to Saayman (2005:265) travel courses in South Africa were introduced in the 1980s and tourism management courses were mainly developed in the early 1990s. Due to the relatively short period in which these courses have been on offer, many challenges have had to be met and questions answered when reviewing tourism and hospitality studies. These included the discussions about the placement of tourism as an area of study, contents of tourism education and training programmes and, finally, the reviews of whether tourism belongs to business studies or social sciences.



Figure 3.1: The unique evolution of tourism as a “business”

Source: Beech & Chadwick (2006:5)

As tourism education grew, the general nature of the tourism course provision remained strongly vocational and business oriented (Airey, 2005:22; Baum & Kokkranikal, 2003:826). Vocational education in tourism continues to play a role in enhancing the quality knowledge and skills levels, and is strongly reliant on public and private sector partnership (Riley *et al.*, 2002:184). Subsequently, various organisations are in support of promotions of tourism education and related research (Lee-Ross & Pryce, 2010:129). Peacock and Ladkin (2002:393) note that since education is a primary element of human resource development and labour markets, it reflects the importance of education providers being aware of the skills and competencies required by industry.

According to D’annunzio-Green *et al.* (2004:146) and Airey (2005:22), in developing countries like South Africa, vocational education that offers sector-specific skills for

operational / supervisory positions in sectors such as tourism are very limited, hence the employers are confronted with employees who are fundamentally unskilled and requiring considerable investment in training and development. According to Holden and Jameson (1999:48), this has called upon higher education to play an increasing role in providing knowledge and skills for new entrants to the labour market through various interventions such as learnerships, internships and bursaries.

The nature of tourism has evolved and has opened potential for rewarding careers in the tourism industry. The scope has extended to include niche areas of interest and study such as adventure tourism, eco-tourism, cultural tourism, heritage tourism, sustainable tourism and sports & leisure tourism (Lee-Ross & Pryce, 2010:129). It is also impressive to acknowledge that according to Saayman and Geldenhuys (2003:84) the last two decades have seen a substantial increase in the academic repertoire of tourism. Ayikoru *et al.*, (2009:192) further added that there are journals dedicated to tourism education research such as the Journal of Teaching in Travel and Tourism, the Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Education and the Journal of Hospitality, Leisure, Sport and Tourism Education.

It is clear from these discussions that tourism education is a young discipline of study which will continue to grow especially through the involvement of industry in education. The following section aims to provide an understanding of how tourism education is governed in South Africa

3.4 GOVERNANCE OF TOURISM EDUCATION

After South Africa's democratic elections in 1994 and the release of the White Paper on Tourism in June 1996, many changes took place in the tourism marketplace influenced by the projected tourism growth and the influence it has on the national economy (Pawson, 1999:1). Tourism skills development and education accessibility became a priority to government and across the whole industry, involving all communities - urban and rural (Akoojee, 2009:121; Pawson, 1999:1). Forthwith, Earle-Mallesson (2009:304) avers that the South African tourism education and learning environment is overseen and organised by Government departments at all three levels, Statutory bodies and other agencies (see chapter 1, Table 1). A number of Acts, legislation and documents (see Table 3.2) that have an impact on education and training efforts in South Africa were passed to provide support

and strategic direction to these role-players (Grobler *et al.*, 2006:300). These policies are mostly related to the labour and skill for the tourism industry including employment standard (for example, hours of work, minimum wage), tax incentives (for example, to encourage hiring or training programmes) education policies (for example, the availability of hospitality and tourism programmes, the length of the school year) and employment support (D’Annunzio-Green *et al.*, 2004:22).

Table 3.2: Tourism Education Acts and other documents

| ACTS AND OTHER DOCUMENT |
|--|
| <p>South African Qualification Authority Act, No 58 of 1995 - The quality of learning opportunities across the country is low for the majority of South Africans. To address this problem, the Ministers of education and labour joined forces to introduce a national Qualification Framework through the South African Qualification Authority (SAQA act) in 1995. The act’s main objectives are to:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ⊗ Create an integrated national framework for learning achievement ⊗ facilitate access to, and mobility and progress within education; training and career path ⊗ enhance the quality of education and training ⊗ transform past unfair discrimination, training and employment opportunities ⊗ contribute to full personal development of each learner and the social and economic development of the nation at large (South African Qualification Authority, Act 58/1995). |
| <p>Basic conditions of employment Act No.75 of 1997 - This Act aims to give effect to the right to fair labour practices by making provision for the regulation of basic conditions of employment and thereby complying with the obligations of the Republic as a member state of the International Labour Organisation (Basic Conditions of Employment Act 75/1997)</p> |
| <p>Higher Education Act, No. 101 of 1997 - All learning programmes leading to a qualification higher than grade 12 fall under this Act. The Act seeks to improve the access of previously disadvantaged groups to higher education, on the one hand, and to improve the responsiveness of learning to the needs of the society. This Act, and the FET Act as well, envisage that learning institutions should prepare three-year rolling plans, composed of a new focus on learning programmes (Higher Education Act 101/1997).</p> |
| <p>Skills Development Act, No. 94 of 1998 - The Act seeks to improve the quantity and quality of learning for those already in work (self-employed or formal-sector activity) and those seeking to enter the labour market. The Skills Development Act establishes the National Skills Authority – NSA - that advises the Minister on a National skills development strategy</p> |

and means for its implementation (Skills Development Act 94/1998).

Skills Development Levies Act, No.9 of 1999 - is designed to put in place user charge type incentives and thereby to complement the Skills Development Act. It introduces a 1% private sector payroll. All firms will pay the levy, but will be able to claim grants for training done through their respective SETAs, provided the submission meets basic quality criteria. The training will increasingly need to align with the National Qualification Framework to ensure quality. Enterprise-wide training plans will leverage block grants back to firms - but these plans and their implementation will also be quality assured. SETAs are expected to grow into a major resource for firms. SETAs may use a prescribed percentage of their levy revenue to assist with the development of the Sector skills plan, design of learnerships and internships, provide assistance to firms to develop enterprise skills plan and quality assurance of training. The standard on the National Qualification Framework will be used for all training plans (Skills Development Levies Act 9/1999).

National Qualification Framework Act No. 67 of 2008 - This act was conceived by the South African Qualification Act of 1995. The act provides a framework within which the South African Qualifications system is constructed, representing a national effort at integrating education and training. It is made of eight national levels and a range of learning progression routes. Agreement on standards to be registered is recommended by 12 National Standard bodies made up of employers, trade unionists, government officials, professional bodies and education and training providers. Strategic outcomes of this act include closing of skills gaps, improving equity and promoting greater labour market efficiency as well as increasing levels of productivity. Its main purpose is to promote free and equitable access to education, enhance mobility (vertically and horizontally) between various qualifications through a process of credit accumulation and transfer (National Qualification Framework Act 67/2008). (see Table 3.3)

Human Resource Development Strategy for Tourism 2008 - The purpose of this document is to present an HRD strategy for the tourism sector. This HRD strategy is essentially a master plan for human capital formation in the sector. In this regard, the strategy is intended to outline a structure of strategic interventions which could assist in rectifying the skills shortage dilemma currently experienced; but, more so, the strategy is intended to put in place an organisational infrastructure and a set of associated projects which will lead to the sustained supply of high quality human resources to the Sector (HRDST, 2008).

Human Resource Development Strategy 2010 - The HRD Strategy mission is to create a nation at work and maximise the potential of the people of South Africa through the acquisition of knowledge and skills, to work productively and competitively so as to achieve a rising quality of life for all, and set in place an operational plan, together with the Higher

Education (HE) Strategic Framework; institutional arrangements, to achieve this (HRDS for SA, 2010:7).

National Skill Development Strategy (NSDS) - The key driving force of this strategy is improving the effectiveness and efficiency of the skills development system. This strategy represents an explicit commitment to encouraging the linking of skills development to career paths, career development and promoting sustainable employment and in-work progression. South Africa is currently on the NSDS III which seeks to encourage and actively support the integration of workplace training with theoretical learning, and to facilitate the journey individuals make from school, college or university, or even from periods of unemployment, to sustained employment and in-work progression. Emphasis is placed on training to enable trainees to enter the formal workforce or create a livelihood for themselves. The emphasis is particularly on those who do not have relevant technical skills or adequate reading, writing and numeracy skills to enable them to access employment (Department of Higher Education and Training).

Source: Grobler et al. (2006:300)

To ensure an efficient, coordinated flow and proper implementation of education and training, formal education in South Africa is categorised according to three bands (see Table 3.3). These levels are integrated in the National Qualifications Framework (NQF) provided by the South African Qualifications Authority (SAQA) introduced in 1995. The Department of Basic Education focuses Grade R to Grade 12 and adult literacy programmes, while the Department of Higher Education and Training focuses on the Further Education and Training (FET) NQF level 2 - 4 and the Higher Education (HE) NQF level 5 - 8 (Education.co.za, 2011). In the year 2000 the national department undertook a radical revision of the curriculum replacing the traditional NATED (National Training Education Certificate and OBE system) with a new National Certificate Vocational (NCV). NVC was introduced at the start of 2007 and offered in 11 economics sectors, engineering, five business-allied and various other programmes in information and communication technology agriculture, tourism and hospitality (Akoojee, 2009:132; Pawson, 1999:2). The scope of the Department of Higher Education covers all public and private higher education institutions and skills development sectors, which include the Sector Education and Training Authorities (SETAs), the National Skills Authority (NSA) and the National Skills Fund (NSF). The SETAs are concerned with regulating and implementing learnerships, internships and unit standard based programmes which are normally funded by the SETAs and the NSF (Department of Labour, 2008; Burger, 2010:130; Pawson, 1999; CTM, 2000:125).

Table 3.3: NQF ” Ready Reckoner”

| A do-it-yourself guide to understanding Qualifications Levels | | | | | | |
|---|---------------|---------------|--|---|---|---|
| | | | QUALIFICATION TYPES | | DELIVERY SITES | |
| BAND | OLD NQF LEVEL | NEW NQF LEVEL | General Academic | Occupational Professional | General academic | Occupational academic |
| HIGHER | 8 | 10 | Doctorates e.g. PhD | Doctorates e.g. DTech | Universities | Institutes Academies, Private Universities, University of Technology |
| | | 9 | Masters e.g. MA | Masters, e.g. March | | |
| | 7 | 8 | Honours | (4yrs) 480+Cr Bachelors, BTech | Universities | PHEI's, Academies, Institutes, Prof. institutes & Schools |
| | 6 | 7 | Bachelors | Bachelors, Diplomas ,Certificates | Universities | |
| | 5 | 6 | Access Certificate, Bridging Certificates | Occupational, Certificates, Diplomas | Schools Secondary Technical Colleges, FE Colleges (Private) colleges | Technical schools, Professional Institutions & schools Technical schools/colleges |
| | | 5 | | | | |
| FET | 4 | 4 | SC, NC VOC, NSC: Adult | Occupational FETC's | | Workplace Private College/schools, Technikons & Technical Schools/Colleges |
| | 3 | 3 | NCI VOC,L3 | Occupational Certificate Sector Based GETC | | |
| | 2 | 2 | | | | |
| GET | 1 | 1 | GETC ABET,GEC ,ABET CREDITS | Occupational Certificate Sector Based GETC | ABET Canterers, Public and Private Schools | NGO's Special needs schools DoL providers |

Source: SAQA (2012)

Within the National Qualifications Framework, provision is made for 21 SETAs (Sector Education and Training Authorities). These are employer-trade unions, government bodies, charged with the responsibility of promoting skills development in their respective sectors. They are required to prepare Sector Skills Plans on an annual basis, and these plans identify skills targets, priorities for productivity and employment growth. SETAs are required to attend to all skills needs for all employers and provide an opportunity to diffuse the work of research agencies into industry (SA, 2008:1). The Tourism sector falls under The Culture Arts, Tourism, Hospitality, Sports Education and Training Authority (CATHSSETA) (CATHSSETA, 2011c:22). CATHSSETA's activities include promoting and ensuring the provision of quality in tourism training, accrediting training providers, implementing the goals of the NSDS, monitoring training provision and registration of assessors (CATHSSETA, 2011c:4).

The Department of Labour, Department of Education, South African Revenue Services and the National Treasury amended the Skills Development Levies Act to provide funding for various training programmes and included were experiential learning programmes like the learnership (Groenewald & Schurink, 2003:101). The amendment of the act came about after realisation of the skills shortages and high level resource requirements by many companies which often resulted in stiff competition for the best talent (D'Annunzio-Green *et al.*, 2004:3).

With this in mind, tourism education has exploded with a variety of courses ranging from certificates, diplomas, and degrees to masters and doctorates. The courses can be approached on a full-time, part-time and flexible delivery and may include the component of work experience (Lee–Ross & Pryce, 2010:129). According to Earle-Mallesson (2009:309) higher education institutions across South Africa offers tourism related courses at NQF 5 - 8.

It is thus clear that government is working hard to ensure quality provision of education and training in South Africa. This is clear with all the Acts, documents and classification of levels of education and training into a more structured responsibility for all parties involved. In the following section, the focus will be on the purpose and functions of experiential learning with discussions on learnership programmes, internship programmes and their current status of operation in South Africa.

3.5 EXPERIENTIAL LEARNING

From these discussions, it is clear that there is an emphasis on the provision of quality learners into the industry which calls for a harmonised tripartite relationship between government, training institutions and industry to exist. The next discussions look in-depth at experiential learning, a programme that requires the participation of government, higher education, training institution and industry at large.

3.5.1 The necessity of work experience programmes for the undergraduates

In many countries, increasing youth unemployment has led governments to seek the involvement of employers in policies facilitating the transition process through education (Durand-Drouhin & Sweet, 2000:32). Experiential learning serves as one of the core activities found within the field of higher education. In South Africa, this became evident in the late 1960s through the change in the educational paradigm which resulted in a dynamic programme of vocational curriculum and an interactive relationship between Higher Education Institutions and the community they serve (Groenewald & Schurink, 2003:95; Akoojee & McGrath, 2007:209). South Africa's government engaged the employers through various documents; more specifically the National Skills Development Strategy, the New Growth Path and the National Skills Accord aimed at addressing unemployment issues (NSDS) (Department of Higher Education and Training, 2011:5; Department of Economic Development, 2011:1, New growth path, 2010:1; Akoojee, 2009:118). In ensuring that the goals set out in these documents are achieved, skills analysis aimed at identifying labour demands, skills shortages, scarce and critical skills were conducted. Initiatives such as bursaries, learnerships and internships have since become crucial in addressing the gaps identified (Daniels, 2007:3). In support of this, Durand-Drouhin and Sweet (2000:22) commented that the provision of subsidies for youth employment, improving information about available courses and individual qualifications as well as reforming the certification system represents typical components of youth unemployment strategies.

Therefore, CATHSSETA as a Tourism SETA implements various interventions with the aim of addressing these realities through the implementation of the NSDS, New growth path,

and other related documents. CATHSSETA embarks on two experiential learning programmes that target both the employed and the unemployed wanting to grow their careers in the tourism industry. These are learnerships and internships programmes (CATHSSETA, 2011b:16). Experiential learning presents a structured educational strategy that progressively integrates academic study with learning through productive work experiences as a means to grow the talents of South African people. Not only does experiential learning provide familiarity with professional practice, it raises graduate labour market value and enhances the individuals' maturity before completing studies (Groenewald & Schurink, 2003:94; Wessels, 2005:5,38,42; CTM, 2000:1,4; Noe, Hollenbeck, Gerhart & Wright, 2009:195; Johnson, 1998:216; Stone, 2004:361; Busby & Gibson, 2010:11).

The two learning programmes are viewed as active learning programmes according to Johnson (1998:236) because the trainee learns more quickly and effectively when they are actively involved in the learning process. This output comes from observations of job skills, continued practice and implementation of those skills. The simplest expression of this idea is 'we learn by doing'. According to Wessels (2005:42); CTM (2000:1,49); CATHSSETA (2010); CATHSSETA (2011b:2); Busby and Gibson (2010:6) as well as Stuart-Hoyle (2003:53) the key to experiential learning is increased cooperation and understanding between all three parties involved in the tripartite agreement, which is normally strengthened by contract amongst all parties involved (employer, learner, and training provider - In a case of SETA involvement the agreement will be either with the employer or training institution).

Experiential learning normally takes place in the centres below (CTM, 2000:85):

- Ⓢ Company "on-site" centres are usually part of the organisation. The organisation often uses the centre to offer specialised courses on new equipment or technology. Organisations that participate in experiential learning place learners in these training centres as part of experiential training and engage learners in orientation or specialised short courses offered from time to time, such as rotation in various travel agency departments.
- Ⓢ Training provider centre: This is a special unit within the institution that has the equipment and infrastructure to offer experiential learning for certain instructional programmes, such as Global Distribution Systems used to book travel arrangements.

- Centralised training centre: The institutions offer experiential learning opportunities for certain instructional programmes such as tourist guiding.

3.5.2 Overview of both experiential learning programmes

Since experiential learning programmes are considered to be important, it is necessary to analyse how they are made effective and to consider their components. The following discussion covers these programmes in detail.

3.5.2.1 Purpose and overview of experiential learning

The growth in the number of students studying tourism related courses has indirectly increased the use of experiential learning. Courses offered by training institutions are standardised under authority of the National Minister of Education and include compulsory workplace - training models (Pawson, 1999:2). Experiential learning serves a purpose of promoting self-awareness, enhance students learning and career development through integration of theoretical classroom instructions with supervised practical on the job experiential learning within the learners' major area of study. Experiential learning is an instrument for creating a talent pool and providing exposure to career choice (Johnson, 1998:217; Wessels, 2005:6; Groenewald & Schurink, 2003:95; Baum, 1995:190). The learners build on their acquired knowledge and skills through practice (Diplari & Dimou, 2010:117). From a commercial perspective, employers view experiential learning as a means of providing learners with an opportunity to be employable and as a mechanism for identifying learners with the potential to enter the industry through their company's graduate entry scheme (Busby *et al.*, 1997:107).

Presently, placements of learners vary from one or two weeks "work experience" to a whole year (Busby *et al.*, 1997:105; Potgieter, 1999:3; Wessels, 2005:25; ; Pawson, 1999:1). During the process, learners are introduced to the company's policies, procedures and corporate culture. As the programme progresses, the learners' performance is evaluated and assessed to determine the extent to which the predetermined objectives are realised and achieved. Experiential learning provides the learner with the relevance to the industry as they practise the theory taught, although there may be barriers to proper implementation due to the pressures of work such as emergency booking requirements (see below Table 3.4) (Wessels, 2005:46; CTM, 2000:63,65; Busby & Gibson, 2010:1; Jerris, 1999:10).

Table 3.4: Characteristics of experiential learning

| CHARACTERISTICS OF EXPERIENTIAL LEARNING PROGRAMMES | |
|---|---|
| ADVANTAGES | DISADVANTAGES |
| It provides experience and high realism | Employees may be taught bad habits by the trainer |
| Learners understand the relevance of what they are learning | Training may be 'narrow' if the trainer has not had formal training and has learned the skills by completing everybody's tasks |
| Training is relevant to the industry | It can be time-consuming for the trainer and disrupt their own output |
| The manager can actually monitor the trainee doing the job and assess their competence themselves | Training may be cut short by office emergencies or workloads |
| It permits the supervisor and the employee a sound working relationship | Concentration may be difficult with the possibility of background noise and interruptions |
| The training involves actually doing the job, not merely theorising about it | There is a possibility of personality clashes if the trainer does not have the necessary communication and interpersonal skills |
| It is competency based as they are assessed actually doing the job | Insufficient study time |
| Training is related to customers / clients not teachers and the peer group | |
| The employee is productive while learning | |
| Training is related to industry practices, not colleges' procedures | |
| Training can be undertaken when it is required, not according to class schedules | |

Source: Johnson (1998:293)

3.5.2.2 Learnership

Learnership is primarily a workplace learning programme supported by a structured learning phase which results in a qualification and is facilitated by employers. It is made up of study units, which are in three types - Fundamental, Core and Elective Unit Standards. Fundamental Unit Standards include literacy, communications and basic mathematical skills. Core Units Standards are central to the qualification whilst Elective Unit Standards are selected from a range of units (CTM, 2000:126; Breytenbach, 2010:64; CATHSSETA, 2010; Skills Development Act, 1998:16). Learnerships are adapted to draw people with special needs, the unemployed and employed, women and new school leavers presently part of the disadvantaged communities with the specific aim of developing communities (Pawson, 1999:2).

According to a study conducted by Groenewald and Schurink (2003:100), the researchers found that 29 learners that have participated in learnerships felt that learnerships assisted learners in obtaining a tertiary qualification from accredited / reputable institutions. The learners further felt that the programme offers opportunity to simultaneously practise the theoretical knowledge through provision of relevant experience often required by the employers. Learners are able to identify their potential and talents because of the exposure to the core aspects of the industry, that include team building, workplace environment, time management, communication skills, responsibility and a drive to work hard. The learners concur with the characteristics displayed in Table 3.4 that the programme schedule makes provision only for lecturers and working experience but not for study time guidance and supervision in the workplace.

3.5.2.3 Internship

Internships, co-operative education, “Standing next to Nellie”, placement, sandwich placement and practicum are amongst the most frequently used terms for the period of Supervised Work Experience (Busby & Gibson, 2010:1, D’annunzio-Green *et al.*, 2004:106). An Internship is the practical component of the learner’s study often required for the completion of their qualification. The learner takes up in-service training in an organisation serving to provide the learner with relevant work experience needed to find employment. Student internships are a very effective recruiting strategy. Employers are able to observe and select the best potential talent for their companies through this programme. (Busby *et al.*, 1997:109; Dessler, 2011:193; Noe *et al.*, 2009:2; Lee-Ross & Pryce, 2010:125; SANBI, 2010:2). There are two types of internships:

- ☉ *Studentship:* These are students who have not completed their studies; the studentship is a period they need to spend in a workplace for experiential learning, as requirement of their qualification. Also known as work-integrated, co-operative or experiential learning (SANBI, 2010:2).
- ☉ *Internship:* These individuals have usually completed their studies and take up an internship in an organisation which serves to provide them with work experience after which they need to find employment. The learners are often paid a monthly amount for the duration of internship. Sometimes contract positions requiring one or more years of experience are advertised as internships (SANBI, 2010:2; Noe *et al.*, 2009:193; CTM, 2000:86).

3.5.3 Status quo of both experiential learning programmes in South Africa

Considering these discussions, it is clear that there are currently several shortcomings and restraining factors demonstrated in experiential learning programmes with regards to the practice from government, learners, training providers and employers' perspective. It is further interesting to note according to Akoojee (2009:120) that, in South Africa, the national development challenges are intractably linked to skills development, hence the government prioritises addressing the skills development needs of the country. According to Holden and Jameson (1999:49) changes have taken place within the experiential learning paradigm of the graduate labour market, the researchers note that it has become more fragmented, heterogeneous and complex in nature. Below is a summary of changes:

- Ⓢ There are greater number and more diverse range of graduates. New graduates are much more varied in terms of their background, age, methods of study, prior qualification and ethnicity.
- Ⓢ Fewer new graduates are securing traditional graduate jobs: jobs for life with a larger employer and a clear career path in a single function. Recent economic and structural changes have resulted in reduction in recruitment in these employers. SMMEs are now creating more jobs faster than larger firms.
- Ⓢ Method of recruitment is changing. Contacts with education, institution are still commonly used by the traditional large employers.
- Ⓢ Many undergraduates now benefit from strong integration of transferable skills within their degree programmes in preparation for subsequent employment.

With this in mind, Groenewald and Schurink (2003:98) and CTM (2000:55) aver that there is a perception that experiential learning does not add value because of deficiencies and the constraints experienced regarding its management; for example there are no proper linkages and formalised structures that enhance each phase of experiential learning programme for companies, learners and training providers. Failure of educational institutions and inflexibility of partnerships in the implementation continuously prevailed and further no proper management and preparation for monitoring the programme.

According to Baum (1995:186) and Riley *et al.* (2002:178) most experiential learning programmes focus primarily on preparing learners for the lower skills position in the industry (Junior Consultants) and put minimum focus on the higher levels of employment (Travel Manager). Akoojee (2009:133); Groenewald and Schurink (2003:98); Riley *et al.* (2002:178), Swanson and Holton III (2009:227) aver that the above mentioned gaps might be created by, an absence of clearly defined work experience components and difficulty in finding sufficient experiential learning programmes. This is further complicated by the fact that the curriculum is focused on simple skills and practical training which should be replaced by a broader based curriculum that focuses on business skills and theoretical underpinnings. This therefore means that the graduates are still likely to need additional training to be certified for the workplace. Groenewald and Schurink (2003:101) further noted that usually bureaucratic processes refute the core principle of experiential learning. These bureaucratic processes obstruct the core purposes of experiential learning especially in cases of integration with curriculum design.

3.5.3.1 Learners

These discussions illustrate that experiential learning provides a positive impact onto the learners' tourism knowledge and thereby contributing to their future in the industry. There are various aspects in experiential learning programmes that affect the learners, according to Groenewald and Schurink (2003:101) and Durand-Drouhin and Sweet (2000:182). Earle-Mallesson (2009:311) indicated that learners lack sufficient information about experiential learning especially those located in the rural areas and this has a long-term impact on their careers because to be employed in a post in the tourism industry, obtaining a qualification is extremely difficult especially where there's no practical work experience. According to the SANBI (2010:13) some employers are reluctant to participate in experiential learning as they are of opinion that learners have not had suitable work ethics when they enter workplace. Learners, on the other hand, feel that they receive little training or little appropriate training in the workplace. Rural areas learners have a problem with geographical spread of training providers and accessibility to these training providers.

According to CTM (2000:71); SANBI (2010:13) and Earle-Mallesson (2009:312) experiential learning learners usually begin placement with high expectations and it is a challenge to maintain these expectations and motivation. Learners have the expectation of being employed upon completion of experiential learning and others demand higher wages which

substantially alters the cost-benefit balance for employers. Hence Groenewald and Schurink (2003:101) advise that interventions such as stress management training and vocational guidance by the training institutions student counselling services must be included. With this in mind, Andrews (2009:187) avers that before a learner can benefit from any formal training; he/she must be trainable. This means that he/she must have the ability to learn and have the motivation to learn. This ability requires the learner to have the prerequisite knowledge and skills to assimilate and master what is being taught. The learner must have background knowledge of terms and processes before any further learning can take place. CTM (2000:50) further added that the most significant challenge for learners is to manage the ongoing relationship between work and learning. This will require learners to have a field of specialisation as well as a portfolio of enhanced personal skills such as those relating to negotiations; action planning and networking, added to these are the qualities such as self-awareness and confidence. Groenewald and Schurink (2003:101) aver that there should be an increase in good communication with participants, for example making the necessary arrangements that programme participants do not work nightshifts prior to test. Andrews (2009:187) added that there's also an issue of language as a barrier to communication, English as a medium of instruction is not spoken by all and provision must be made by trainers to use interpreters to explain the programme as it unfolds.

Table 3.5 reflects on the possible qualities of learners upon completion of their qualification. The diagram looks into the skills acquired by the learners through various training and education interventions as well as their position and psychological approach to the world of work.

Table 3.5: Graduate employment categories

| Four graduates employment categories | |
|---|---|
| Generalist | Generalist plus |
| <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Equipped with general skills of value to employment but not especially related to any employment field. • Process of seeking, obtaining and becoming competent in a job only begins upon graduation. | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Graduates also have certain specialist skills applicable to work. • Element of occupational training in this type of course and the prospect of a close tie-up between course content and job requirement. |

| | |
|---|---|
| | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Process of seeking, obtaining and becoming competent in a job begins at graduation. |
| Occupational generalist <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • First step towards a particular job with graduates choice of degree course. • Imprecise ideas relating to a general employment field rather than a precise, occupational role. • After graduation, continuing choices about further specialisation. • Graduate has demonstrated commitment to a broad field of employment and has knowledge and skills of specialist value to work. | Occupational specialist <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Graduates received partial job training and their qualification regulates entry into the job. • Choice of career occurs at entry point to higher education. • After graduation there are likely to be clearly defined steps to acquire full professional status and a job. |

Source: Holden and Jameson (1999:56)

3.5.3.2 Employers

Employers embrace a major role in the experiential learning process as they make the theories instilled by the training providers and the knowledge acquired by the learner to become of reality. According to CTM (2000:55) and Groenewald and Schurink (2003:101) some employers are of a view that experiential learning does not add value, this is mainly because of the deficiencies and constraints experienced in implementation of the programmes. Obstacles experienced act as a barrier to learning and limit the potential gains of experiential learning. According to Holden and Jameson (1999:51) graduates are perceived by many SMEs employers as:

- ⊗ Impractical
- ⊗ Reluctant to get their hands dirty
- ⊗ Slow to become productive
- ⊗ Holding a poor view of what employment in an SMME would be like.

Zagonari (2009:4) further notes that small firms cannot afford the costs of experiential learning. Griesel and Parker (2009:3); SANBI (2010:13); Holden and Jameson (1999:49;57); Earle-Mallesson (2009:311); Christou (1999:684); Diplari and Dimou (2010:116), Saayman (2005:266) as well as Swanson and Holton III (2009:227) further

added that employers have perspectives that the knowledge, skills, competencies and values of new graduates may be out of sync with the needs and expectations of employers. Organisations struggle to find quality and/or relevance of learner's prior training as "too generic" or "far removed" from the workplace realities. Further, there's a demand and supply gap where training institutions do not understand the requirements of the industry and there's an oversupply of tourism graduates.

CTM (2000:51) aver that to meet the changing requirements of companies, tertiary institutions must design programmes that go beyond content by encouraging independent learning strategies, while focusing on the ability to think systematically and redefine problems. According to Schuurman (2004:145) the problem is that employers are not offered a chance to express their real needs and that they must be engaged in all processes as they will provide the most relevant information on training needs for the tourism labour market and ultimately on address major short comings of the current training in the tourism industry. On the other hand, according to SANBI (2010:13) organisations lack experienced or properly trained mentors with adequate time and at times induction may be poor or absent. Groenewald and Schurink (2003:98) are of the opinion that the role and importance of a suitable mentor is of essence in the supervising work-based learning.

It is puzzling, according to Griesel and Parker (2009:7), that higher education and the workplace share a common misunderstanding about each other's role. Employers sometimes voice concern over the quality of graduates while higher education feels that employers are not fully appreciative of the qualities and skills these graduates possess. Holden and Jameson (1999:50) further added there are situations where, on the one hand, employers are complaining that graduates are lacking certain skills, whilst on the other there is growing evidence of graduate under-employment and under-utilisation. Graduates are deemed under-utilised if:

- Ⓢ They are employed in jobs for which training providers qualification have not usually been required.
- Ⓢ The jobs have not been substantially modified to take advantage of their skills and knowledge.
- Ⓢ No salary premium is offered compared with non graduates in the same jobs.

According to Potgieter (1999:5) it is of importance to build relationships for a better and closer working relationship between industry and education. It is not only students that need experiential learning but staff / employees as well. This researcher advises consideration in future development to introduce reverse experiential learning meaning getting those in industry back into the lecture hall for a short course updating knowledge, methods, and skills.

3.5.3.3 Training provision

Central to experiential learning are the training providers as they provide the theoretical knowledge of the programmes to the learners and this directly links to the skills needs of the industry (Peacock & Ladkin, 2002:393). According to Potgieter (1999:3) and Pawson (1999:1) within the base of the training fraternity are the gaps and imbalances between rural and urban area educational standards needing to be addressed. Cooper *et al.* (1994:138) note that the dilemma roots from the problems and issue being faced by educators involved in the planning of tourism education in developing countries, the researcher advises all areas of tourism education to reflect the individual situation whilst maximising the benefits of tourism to all concerned (including the rural areas community). Haven-Tang and Jones (2006:92) and Diplari and Dimou (2010:119) note that one factor likely to contribute to poor qualification attainment within the tourism industry is the willingness of employers to recruit people without the necessary qualification. Although this approach is often linked to the problem of labour shortages, it may dissuade relatively highly qualified students from considering tourism as a career option.

According to Potgieter (1999:5); Raybould and Walkins (2005:7); Saayman (2005:266) as well as Peacock and Ladkin (2002:394) the problem might further be caused by academics not keeping a close relationship with the industry to ensure that they are aware of developments and changes in the industry. Training providers need to work more closely with the industry and be more proactive in managing the quality of training provision, not the quantity entering the industry. Peacock and Ladkin (2002:396) note that the industry must also be involved in course design and development. These partnerships, according to Peacock and Ladkin (2002:395) will assist with (a) the recruitment of learners and enhancing employability (b) promoting continued training and development of the workforce and improving the existing skills base and (c) assisting in the development of products and

process development and technology transfer to boost economic development. According to Ayikoru *et al.*, (2009:192) and Peacock and Ladkin (2002:395) most employers do not perceive tourism qualifications as a necessary requirement for employment and not being a contributing factor to competitiveness and profitability of their organisation. Ayikoru *et al.*, (2009:192) notes that this is perhaps due to the confusion or ignorance about what the qualification has to offer hence the above mentioned partnerships are of essence.

Pawson (1999:2), Baum (1995:205) and Saayman (2005:266) observed that 75% of teachers have formal qualifications in more structured sectors relating to tourism, few teachers have recent or any experience of industry, case studies rarely form part of teaching, and most courses include industrial placements for students not teachers. Saayman (2005:266) further added that the quality of training is the foundation of a quality product and remains a challenge. Lack of service quality has always been and remains a major challenge. There is growing number of under-qualified or inappropriate trainers entering the tourism industry and what needs to be addressed is the level or standard of training methods. With this in mind, Riley *et al.* (2002:172) comment that tourism education carries the burden of having to balance three imperatives - the need to promote individual development, the need to advance knowledge and the need for practical and relevant to industry.

The main contributors to the unsuccessful interaction between the industry and training providers are the cultural, structural, and financial barriers. Cultural barriers - managers not having higher education tend not to value the educational background of employees and tourism careers are regarded as low-status. Structural barriers - many small organisations with few large employers. Financial barriers - financial pressure on small organisations leads to lack of money for training, research and technology transfer (Peacock & Ladkin, 2002:395). In the following section, skills as deemed by the industry are discussed in detail. Further discussions are on quality attributes expected by employers in the workplace.

3.6 SKILLS ATTRIBUTES AND QUALITY OF TOURISM EMPLOYEES

Considering the preceding discussions, it is of importance to analyse the quality and skills needed by future and current employees in the tourism industry as deemed by the

employers. In the process, it is important to reiterate the characteristics of the tourism industry which, according to Riley *et al.* (2002:25) offer a wide range of jobs with diverse human capital requirements. Ladkin (2005:438) further added that the industry's labour is characterised with occupational diversity, relatively low pay, a high percentage of young people in the occupations, high levels of mobility and low specificity of skills. Additional to this, tourism labour, according to Diplari and Dimou (2010:116) the levels of skill and knowledge offered in tertiary education is neither satisfactory nor responding to their needs. It is interesting, however, to note according to Riley (2002:179) that over the years, the tourism industry has become more commercial and is thereby changing to a more managerial orientated approach which has a direct effect on the traditional tourism education. Breytenbach (2010:61) notes that the change in education will offer the graduates a broad range of employment opportunities as it will positively develop the learners' skills, attributes and competencies required by different components of the industry. Therefore these last discussions show that the diversity of the industry requires various skills for each sub-sector, research done by various researchers such as Earle-Mallesen (2009), Peacock and Ladkin (2002), Riley *et al.* (2002), Saayman and Geldenhuys (2003) as well as Hjalager (2003) confirmed certain skills that are necessary within the tourism sector and are grouped as follows:

a) Self reliant skills

According to Noe *et al.* (2009:181) and Chen and Klimoski (2007:180) the nature of the modern business environment and the challenges in the 21st century makes training and development more important today than it has ever been. Rapid changes, especially in the area of technology, require employees to continually learn new skills and have the ability to solve problems in teams. Bennet *et al.* (2000:5,14) noted that employers want employees that are flexible, adaptive, adaptable, proactive and transformable in these changing worlds of work with an ability to learn quickly. CTM (2000:50) noted that the most significant challenge for learners is to manage the ongoing relationship between work and learning. This will require learners to have a field of specialisation as well as a portfolio of enhanced personal skills such as those relating to negotiations; action planning and networking. Added to these are qualities such as self-awareness and confidence. According to Fuller, Munro & Rainbird (2004:15) it is interesting to note that tacit skills such as time management, organising and multi-tasking are often facilitated by certain forms of learning, such as group working.

b) People skills

Tourism is about people and having solid people skills enables an employee to fit perfectly into the workplace.

Leadership and management positions in the industry demand skills that can only be provided through wider experience and training that focuses on cognitive and problem solving skills, in addition to sector specific skills (Earle-Malleson, 2009:315). If the aim is to prepare learners for managerial pressures and skills, then the traditional concepts of operational teaching need to be reviewed. This will further assist in developing the learners' strategic and financial skills (Riley *et al.*, 2002:178). A study conducted by Groenewald and Schurink (2003:100) revealed that learners are able to identify their potential and talents because of the exposure to the core aspects of the industry, that include team working, workplace environment, time management, communication skills, responsibility and a drive to work hard. According to Earle-Malleson (2009:315) the industry should consider the use of bridging and mentoring programmes as well as free learners' material that addresses issues of communication, etiquette, problem solving and general foundational skills as the tourism industry overlaps to other industries. Busby and Gibson (2010:1) further added that it is imperative for the development and inclusion of a range of transferable skills which includes teamwork, presentations and IT skills. Curriculum can assist in preparing graduates to have an option of selecting other careers outside tourism should they choose otherwise. Overall experiential learning assists learners to improve their management skills and abilities which include time management, group work skills, leadership and motivation abilities (Diplari & Dimou, 2010:117).

c) General employment skill

Labour markets that are characterised by rapid turnover and intensive changes in business operations like the tourism sector may benefit from a focus on more generalist qualifications that may be used in many enterprises both inside and outside the sector which includes personality traits such as flexibility, the ability to learn new things, responsibility innovation and social competencies (Hjalager, 2003:34). Latagan, Dinu and Stoica (2010:5141) caution that it must be understood that organisations do not ask for the educational systems to produce educated and skilled learners but rather individuals with basic knowledge, commitment, innovative and entrepreneurship minds, ability to be flexible in training and the

ability to establish and maintain social relationships. The current training programmes include business skills and strategy, entrepreneurial skills, and personal management skill and could be broadened by theoretical underpinning (Riley *et al.*, 2002:178).

d) Specialist skills

Zagonari (2009:4) notes that, due to the technological advancements and the mature nature of industry's consumers, employers will require specialisation and a well educated workforce with a focus on providing quality service. According to Peacock and Ladkin (2002:398) some tourism employers regard IT skills and work experience as second priority. Employers placed generally transferable people skills above tourism knowledge and it was regarded as not being that important. It is interesting, according to Hjalager (2003:34) that many tourism organisations are not keen on recruiting specialised candidates but rather employees with good personality traits more than specific tourism related qualifications that can be acquired via either vocational system or universities.

With this in mind, tourism industry recruitment is linked to the provision of graduates with appropriate skills for the workplace. There is a debate as to whether it is necessary to have tourism knowledge and/or to have more generic management skills to enable one to work in the tourism industry and which skills the industry requires (Peacock & Ladkin, 2002:396).

Overall Saayman and Geldenhuys (2003:89-93) note that Travel agents, tour operators and tourist guides view the following skills as important in their respective sectors (a) *Travel agents*: Computer skills, arithmetical skills, telephone skills, business writing, listening skills, language skills, negotiation skills, presentation skills, leaderships/social skills, organisational skills. (b) *Tour operators*: Computer skills, telephone skills, listening skills, interpersonal skills, leadership / social skills, organisational skills, use of nature resources skills, leisure appreciation skills. (c) *Tourist guides*: language skills, listening skills, negotiation skills, presentation skills, interpersonal skills, leadership / social skills, organisational skills, research skills, ethical / social responsibilities skills, societies & cultures of the world, cultural sensitivity skills, use of nature resources, leisure appreciation.

In summary, according to Earle-Malleson (2009:307) the most important skills needs of the tourism sector are identified as the following:

- Ⓢ Communication skills (including comprehensive, coherence and non verbal skills) as well as communication in English specifically.
- Ⓢ Shortage in key technical skills groups – such as chefs , travel consultants and game rangers
- Ⓢ Shortage of variable high level strategic managers for recruitment into the sector (both private and public spheres) and especially black managers.
- Ⓢ Management skills of existing managers.
- Ⓢ Entrepreneurial skills - especially amongst black entrepreneurs.

From this discussion, it is clear that the skills required by various subsectors found within the industry vary and this therefore suggests the need for a more open communication framework between the training institutions and each subsector to ensure that the training and education provision responds to the needs of the respective sectors.

3.7 CONCLUSION

After consideration of the above, it is widely recognised that responsibilities for school-to-work transition must be shared with labour market stakeholders, particularly employers. This area requires strong commitment of partnerships with the employers (Durand-Drouhin & Sweet, 2000:10). Employers are encouraged to reiterate the importance of social dialogue within the sector, enhance training programmes and skills development, promote sustainability and decent work, improve working conditions (including working times and wages) and improve measures in favour of SMMEs and youth development (ILO, 2010:46). Students must ensure that they remain dedicated to their studies and take their experiential learning programmes even more seriously as these have the capability of helping with finding employment Saayman (2005:265). Training institutions must also liaise amongst themselves and use the well-established industry links of other institutions to ensure covering a wide range of tourism related skills, provision of industry related basic skills training with a strong practical component.

Although Riley *et al.* (2002:173) argue that vocational curriculum comes down to two concepts – power and needs, the question remains as to who has the power to influence curriculums and what are the needs of employers and students.

CHAPTER FOUR

EMPIRICAL RESULTS

4.1 INTRODUCTION

The literature from previous chapters shows that there are gaps between the employers' skills expectations and the learners' skills presented at the workplace, it is thus important to determine through statistical research in the South African context whether or not they exist. The aim of this chapter is to analyse the empirical results of the survey to determine the skills expectations of learners versus employers that have participated in the CATHSSETA (Culture, Arts, Tourism, Hospitality, and Sports Sector Education and Training Authority) learnerships and internship programmes. This will enable the identification of possible gaps and strengths which will lead to guidelines and recommendations for improvement where necessary. The methods implemented to reach the aim of the chapter are discussed next.

4.2 RESEARCH METHOD

4.2.1 Research design and method of collecting data

Quantitative research was conducted by means of structured questionnaires. Two sets of questionnaires were administered: one directed to the employers (Group A) to determine the important skills required at the workplace and the skills presented by learners participating in learnerships and internships and the other to the learners (Group B) to determine the skills demonstrated at the workplace during participation in the training programme.

4.2.2 Development of the questionnaire

Based on a thorough literature review, certain skills and training gaps were identified. The questionnaire was based primarily on the studies by Riley *et al.* (2002:25), Latagan *et al.* (2010:5141), Hjalager (2003:34), Saayman and Geldenhuys (2003:89-93), Peacock and Ladkin (2002:308), Earle-Mallesen (2009:315), Busby and Gibson (2010:1) as well as

O'Neil *et al.* (1997:13) which represent other researchers' statements on skills and training gaps identified in the literature review.

The questionnaires consisted of the following sections and covered the following areas:

Group A: Employers

Section A: This section focuses on the socio-demographic aspects including the background of each employer. Closed-ended questions were mainly used in this section based on certain set categories.

Section B: This section aims to interpret the CATHSSETA programme, focusing of the overall participation and facilitation of the respective programme. In this section, both open-ended and closed-ended questions were used.

Section C: This section aims to depict skill factors required by tourism businesses based on employers' experiences and requirements. Closed-ended questions, by means of a Lickert-scale were used in this section.

Section D: This section reveals the skills factors demonstrated by the learners in the workplace after / during participation in the learnerships/internships. In this section, closed-ended questions were used, more specifically a Lickert-scale question.

Section E: This section provides space for general opinions and views about the programmes which can lead to their improvement. In this section, open-ended questions were used to give respondents freedom in their responses.

Group B: Learners

Section A: This section focuses on the socio-demographic characteristics of the learner which mainly include the background. In this section, closed-ended questions were used.

Section B: This section aims to interpret the CATHSSETA / THETA programme from the learners perspective, focusing on the overall participation in and facilitation of the respective programmes. In this section, closed-ended and open-ended questions were used.

Section C: This section aims to depict skill factors demonstrated by the learners in the workplace. In this section closed-ended questions were used.

Section D: This section provides an open space for general opinions and views of the learners about the programmes. In this section open-ended questions were used.

4.2.3 Population, sampling framework and method

4.2.3.1 Population

Group A: This group includes 217 tourism businesses that have participated in either learnership or internship programmes linked with the CATHSSETA training programmes.

Group B: This group includes 3 650 learners who have participated in a learnership programme and the 1 983 learners who have participated in an internship programme linked with the CATHSSETA training programmes.

4.2.3.2 Sampling framework and method

Krejcie and Morgan (1970:607) observe that when general research activities are conducted with a population (N) of 9 000, the recommended sample size (S) is 368. However, these authors also indicated that, as a rule of thumb, the law of diminishing returns will apply when the sample size is greater than 300. Thus 300 questionnaires are deemed representative in both cases.

Group A: Employers

CATHSSETA's database includes employers (N=217) that participated in the learnership and internship programmes. The complete database was contacted and it was found that 15 of the businesses were no longer in operation. Therefore, a total of 202 questionnaires were distributed. The web-based system called SurveyMonkey was used as a link to the questionnaire and, in cases where the participants did not have access to internet, a questionnaire was faxed to them. The questionnaires were automatically stored by the SurveyMonkey electronic survey programme. Those that were e-mailed or faxed were manually captured on the Microsoft Excel data sheet. The distribution of the survey was done during the period June to August 2012. After three months 141 questionnaires were received (see Table 4.1). Follow-up emails were sent to employers reminding them to complete the survey.

Table 4.1: Questionnaires distributed for employers

| CATHSESETA ROLE-PLAYERS | SAMPLE POPULATION (N) | SAMPLING SIZE (S) | DISTRIBUTION SAMPLE | TOTAL OF QUESTIONNAIRES RECEIVED |
|-------------------------|-----------------------|-------------------|---------------------|----------------------------------|
| Employers (Group A) | 217 | 217 | 202 | 141 (70%) |

Source: Own compilation

Group B: Learners

The CATHSSETA database includes learners (N=5 633) who have participated in the internship programme and the learnership programme in 2008-2012. Questionnaires were emailed and/or faxed to the entire database of learners.

The following challenges were experienced with the learners database:

- Ⓢ CATHSSETA database in some instances, did not have the learners personal contact details but those of their host employer as their main contact. Thus no direct contact was possible with the learner. In other cases, some of these learners had already completed the programme and their contact details were not available or updated.
- Ⓢ Landline numbers posed problems as most of them were no longer in operation and/or they have moved dwelling.
- Ⓢ The CATHSSETA database did not have the email addresses of all learners, just cellphone numbers. Thus learners were contacted through text messaging (sms) requesting their email addresses to be texted back.
- Ⓢ Some of the emails on the CATHSSETA database were no longer in operation.
- Ⓢ Some learners have deceased.
- Ⓢ Some learners are located in the deep rural areas and have limited access to email/fax.
- Ⓢ Some learners do not have any email/fax numbers.

Keeping these challenges in mind, the questionnaire reached 1 023 (N=1 023) learners that had participated in the CATHSSETA programmes. As in the case of the employers, the web-based system called SurveyMonkey was used as a link to the questionnaire and in cases where the participants did not have access to internet, a questionnaire was faxed to

them. The questionnaires were automatically stored by the SurveyMonkey electronic survey programme. Those that were e-mailed or faxed were manually captured on the Microsoft Excel data sheet. The distribution of the survey was also done during the period June to August 2012. After three months, 380 questionnaires were received (see Table 4.2 below). Follow-up e-mails and text messages were sent to all learners requesting them to complete the survey.

Table 4.2: Questionnaires distributed for learners

| CATHSESETA ROLE-PLAYERS | SAMPLE POPULATION (N) | SAMPLING SIZE (S) | DISTRIBUTION SAMPLE | TOTAL OF QUESTIONNAIRES RECEIVED |
|--------------------------------|------------------------------|--------------------------|----------------------------|---|
| Learners (Group B) | 5 633 | 1 023 | 1 023 | 380 |

Source: Own compilation

4.2.4 Data analysis

Microsoft Excel and SurveyMonkey were used to capture the data and do the basic data analysis. The Statistical Services at the North-West University, Potchefstroom Campus, assisted with the further processing of the data. The Statistical Package for the Social Science software (SPSS Inc., 2009, version 20) was used to process the information. Using SPSS, descriptive statistics, factor analysis, ANOVAs and *t*-test analyses were carried out to determine factors that cause the differences in skills perceptions and expectations among the CATHSSETA role players. The following methods have been applied (see Table 4.3):

Table 4.3: Data analysis methods

| DATA ANALYSES METHODS | | |
|-------------------------------------|--|---|
| Statistical methods | Purpose of the method: Learners | Purpose of the method: Employers |
| Frequency tables and figures | Profiling of learners | Profiling of employers |
| t-test | Comparing skills expected by employers and skills presented by learners. | Comparison of skill expectations and skills presented Comparison of group skills between |

| | | skills expected and skills presented |
|---|--|--------------------------------------|
| Factor analysis | Confirmatory factor analysis was done to group skills identified in the literature | |
| One way analysis of variance (ANOVA) | Comparing each group skill as per the sub-sector | |

Source: Own compilation

☉ Frequency tables and figures

✓ These are used in the analysis of the demographics section to demonstrate in a numerical manner the profile status and a set of sample observations of each participant.

☉ Confirmatory Factor Analysis

✓ This assists in section C of the learners questionnaires as it is able to group certain skills as identified in the literature. It was used to determine the reliability of learners data per group skill.

☉ One-Way-Analysis-of-Variance and *t*-test

✓ An ANOVA was performed to determine the importance of each skill factor as perceived by each sub-sector's learners. ANOVAs were further used to compare mean scores of all subsectors using section C and the demographic details of the learners' questionnaires.

✓ A *t*-test was performed to determine the skills required by employers and skills presented by learners. A *t*-test was performed to provide statistical tests between section D of group A (employers) questionnaires and section C of group B (learners) questionnaires to determine the gaps in regard to the skills presented. A *t*-test was further used to compare skills expected by employers and skills presented by learners using sections C and D of employers' questionnaires.

The literature of chapters 2 and 3 was also used to support the findings of the statistics.

4.3 DISCUSSION OF RESULTS

The results consist of a profile of the employers and learners that had participated in the study as well as a comparison between skill expectations of employers and skills presented by CATHSSETA-learners in the workplace.

4.3.1 Results of employers' research

4.3.1.1 Profiling the employers that participated in the study

Table 4.4: Profiling the employers that participated in the study

| VARIABLE | CATEGORY | PERCENTAGE |
|---|-------------------------------|------------|
| BUSINESS CHARACTERISTICS | | |
| Sector of operations in the industry | Tourism | 12% |
| | Travel | 17% |
| | Hospitality | 61% |
| | Gaming and Lotteries | 3% |
| | Conservation | 7% |
| Number of years in operation | 1-3 years | 14% |
| | 4-6 years | 16% |
| | 7-10 years | 70% |
| Size of the business (based on number of employees) | Small (0-49 employees) | 35% |
| | Medium (50-149 employees) | 30% |
| | Large (150+ employees) | 35% |
| CATHSSETA PROGRAMME CHARACTERISTICS | | |
| Type of CATHSSETA programme participation | Learnerships | 44% |
| | Internships | 24% |
| | Both programmes | 32% |
| Training providers forming part of the CATHSSETA Programme | Private Training Institutions | 38% |
| | College / FET College | 39% |
| | University of Technology | 14% |
| | University | 9% |

Source: Own compilation

Table 4.4 indicates that most of the employers who participated in this survey formed part of the hospitality industry (61%), which was followed by the travel industry (17%). Seventy percent (70%) of these businesses have been in operation between 7 and 10 years and these employers can therefore give a trustworthy opinion on the skills expected from and

presented by learners. Small, medium and large-sized businesses were also well represented in the sample. These businesses mostly participate in the learnership programme (44%), with 32% that had participated in both learnerships and internships. Employers are thus equipped with information on both programmes which can provide valuable insight. The employers recruit learners studying mostly at private training institutions (38%) and colleges/FET colleges (39%). The following section focuses on the comparison between skills expected by employers and skills presented by learners based on the opinions of the employers mentioned above.

4.3.1.2 Comparison of skills expectations and skills presented from an employer perspective

The following discussion aims to analyse the skills expected by the employers and the skills presented by the learners that participated in the CATHSSETA programmes from the perspective of the employers. It further aims to identify priority and least important skills as deemed by the industry to ensure proper coordination with the curriculum thereof. To determine this, an independent-sample *t*-test was conducted.

Table 4.5: *t*-test for skills expectations and skills presented

| SKILL FACTORS | EXPECTATIONS (N=141) | SKILLS PRESENTED (N=141) | MEAN &STANDARD DEVIATION | P- VALUE |
|---|---------------------------------|---|---|---------------------|
| Self-reliant | | | | |
| Self-aware, realistic, focused and purposeful | 4.13 (±.83) | 2.93 (±.78) | 1.20 (± 1.11) | 0.000* |
| Proactive | 4.09 (±.80) | 2.71 (±.94) | 1.38 (± 1.19) | 0.000* |
| Willing to learn | 4.53 (±.73) | 3.43 (±.88) | 1.09 (±1.07) | 0.000* |
| Able to network, resourceful and an initiator | 3.39 (±.91) | 2.77 (±.88) | 0.61 (± 1.04) | 0.000* |
| Good at planning, organising and prioritising | 3.66 (±.88) | 2.72 (±.92) | 0.93 (±1.03) | 0.000* |
| People skills | | | | |
| The ability to work in a team | 4.38 (±.74) | 3.41 (±.83) | 0.97 (±0.99) | 0.000* |
| Effective written communication skills | 3.61 (±.86) | 3.03 (±.82) | 0.58 (±1.00) | 0.000* |
| Effective verbal communication skills | 4.08 (±.77) | 3.02 (±.88) | 1.06 (±1.02) | 0.000* |

| | | | | |
|--|--------------------|-------------------|--------------------|--------|
| Leadership and management | 3.05 (\pm .89) | 2.43 (\pm .96) | 0.61 (\pm 0.93) | 0.000* |
| Customer orientation - friendly and caring | 4.54 (\pm .77) | 3.14 (\pm .93) | 1.40 (\pm 1.09) | 0.000* |
| Ability to speak a foreign language | 1.69 (\pm .90) | 1.65 (\pm .98) | 0.04 (\pm 1.03) | 0.664 |
| General employment skills | | | | |
| The ability to solve problems | 3.47 (\pm .96) | 2.88 (\pm .89) | 0.59 (\pm 1.22) | 0.000* |
| Flexibility | 3.77 (\pm .99) | 2.96 (\pm .84) | 0.81 (\pm 1.29) | 0.000* |
| Business acumen - entrepreneurial | 2.79 (\pm .95) | 2.32 (\pm .79) | 0.48 (\pm 1.12) | 0.000* |
| Numeracy | 3.38 (\pm 1.02) | 2.93 (\pm .79) | 0.44 (\pm 1.40) | 0.000* |
| Commitment | 4.25 (\pm 1.16) | 3.21 (\pm .88) | 1.04 (\pm 1.60) | 0.000* |
| Professionalism | 4.28 (\pm 1.16) | 3.09 (\pm .90) | 1.18 (\pm 1.63) | 0.000* |
| Specialist skills | | | | |
| Technical and computer skills | 3.46 (\pm .95) | 2.78 (\pm .91) | 0.68 (\pm 1.07) | 0.000* |
| Tourism knowledge | 3.15 (\pm 1.09) | 2.60 (\pm .98) | 0.56 (\pm 1.00) | 0.000* |

$p < 0.05$

Source: Own compilation

Table 4.5 shows significant statistical differences ($p < 0.05$) between skills expectations and skills presented as evaluated by the employers. It was alarming to find that significant differences exist for all skills but one. In all instances employers expected learners to be better skilled than was the reality.

The largest significant differences were found between skills expected by employers and skills presented by learners on customer orientation and willingness to learn. In the case of customer orientation it was found that employers expected more ($M = 4.54$, $SD = \pm 0.77$) from learners than they feel that learners presented ($M = 3.14$, $SD = \pm 0.93$). In the case of willingness to learn, it was no different employers expected more ($M = 4.53$, $SD = \pm 0.73$) willingness to learn certain skills than the learners presented ($M = 3.43$, $SD = \pm 0.88$). Therefore, in-depth attention must be provided towards the improvement of customer orientation as learners were unable to meet this higher demand needed by the employers. Bennett *et al.* (2000:5,14) as well as Hjalager (2003:34) indicated that employers demand flexible and adaptive employees that have the ability to learn quickly.

The least significant difference was found on business acumen. However, employers still expected more ($M = 2.79$, $SD = \pm 0.95$) than was presented by the learners ($M = 2.32$, $SD = \pm 0.79$). With regards to business acumen, according to Riley *et al.* (2002:178) although the current

curriculum includes business skills and entrepreneurial skills, the industry is in need of more general business skills and a theoretical underpinning curriculum.

No significant difference was found on the learners' ability to speak a foreign language where employers' expectations were low ($M=1.69$, $SD=\pm.90$) and learners presented a low level of foreign language proficiency ($M=1.65$, $SD=\pm.98$). The ability to speak a foreign language was also not considered to be important in studies done by Peacock and Ladkin (2002:398) and Earle-Mallesson (2009:308). In a South African context; these results are valid since most South Africans speak English and can also accommodate different nationalities in English.

The results conclude that there are significant differences between skills expectations and skills presented with high differences in customer orientation followed by pro-activeness, self awareness, professionalism, willingness to learn, effective verbal communication skills and, lastly, in commitment. Least differences were reflected on the ability to learn a foreign language, numeracy and business acumen. This therefore concurs with the above discussions and suggests that priority be given in the implementation of actions to close the gaps identified.

4.3.1.3 Comparison of group skills

These groups skills as identified in Chapter 3 literature were categorised according to Self reliance, People skills, General employment skills and Specialist skills.

Table 4.6: t-test for skills expectation factors and skills presented

| SKILL FACTORS | EXPECTATIONS (N=141) | SKILLS PRESENTED (N=141) | P-VALUE |
|---------------------------|-------------------------|--------------------------------|---------|
| Self-reliant | 3.96 ($\pm.62$) | 2.91 ($\pm.75$) | 0.026* |
| People skills | 3.56 ($\pm.55$) | 2.78 ($\pm.70$) | 0.000* |
| General employment skills | 3.66 ($\pm.82$) | 2.90 ($\pm.69$) | 0.031* |
| Specialist skills | 3.30 ($\pm.86$) | 2.68 ($\pm.85$) | 0.000* |

$p < 0.05$ *

Source: Own compilation

When analysing the Group skills to identify differences, significant differences were found for all four groups (see Table 4.6). In all cases, the skills expectations of employers were much higher than the skills presented by the learners. It is evident that employers consider self-reliance as slightly more important ($M=3.96$, $SD=\pm.62$) than the skills presented ($M=2.91$, $SD=\pm.75$). Significant differences are visible for the ability of learners to network, be resourceful and act as an initiator and learners showcasing planning and organising skills. The latter focuses on the ability of the learner to be *self-reliant*.

Although it can be deemed that learners are adequately prepared in terms of specialist skills, employers indicated significant differences between skills expected and skills presented for technical and computer skills as well as tourism knowledge. Again, the expectations of employers were higher than the skills presented by the learners. According to Peacock and Ladkin (2002:398), technological skills were considered to be the second most important skill for tourism employees. Employers also indicated differences regarding numeracy skills, commitment and professionalism, which form part of *general employment skills*.

It was noted in 2009 by Zagonari (2009:4) that, due to technological advancements in the industry, employers will require higher levels of specialisation and a well-educated workforce. This is already evident in the current study and better communication and integration between training providers and industry is needed to improve the current training programmes. It was also noted that, in most cases, the skills expected from learners were much higher than the skills presented by learners entering the workplace. This creates a concern and directly influences the success and growth of the tourism industry. It also questions the suitability of the current training programmes that CATHSSETA are managing; the adequacy of training institutions.

4.3.2 Results of learners' research

4.3.2.1 Profiling of learners that participated in the study

Table 4.7 reflects socio-demographic profile of learners that participated in the CATHSSETA's learnership and/or internship programmes and in the research. The learners' studied in various sub sectors of tourism, travel, conservation, hospitality and gaming and lotteries found within the overall tourism industry.

Table 4.7: Profiling the learners that participated in the study

| VARIABLE | CATEGORY | PERCENTAGE |
|---|------------------------------------|---------------|
| BUSINESS CHARACTERISTICS | | |
| Sector of operations in the industry | Tourism studies | 46.4 % |
| | Travel studies | 17.4% |
| | Conservation studies | 5.2% |
| | Hospitality studies | 27.8% |
| | Gaming and Lotteries studies | 3.2% |
| Provincial location | Gauteng | 47.2% |
| | KwaZulu Natal | 7.1% |
| | Eastern Cape | 5.7% |
| | Western Cape | 10.7% |
| | Northern Cape | 2.4% |
| | Limpopo | 15.1% |
| | Mpumalanga | 4.2% |
| | Free State | 3.7% |
| | North West | 3.9% |
| Gender | Female | 64.6% |
| | Male | 35.4% |
| Disability | Yes | 6.2% |
| | No | 93.8 % |
| CATHSSETA PROGRAMME CHARACTERISTICS | | |
| Type of CATHSSETA programme participation | Learnerships | 48.0% |
| | Internships | 36.6% |
| | Both programmes | 15.4% |
| Training providers forming part of the CATHSSETA Programme | Private Training Institutions | 38.2% |
| | College / FET College | 40.4% |
| | University of Technology | 12.8% |
| | University | 8.6% |
| Duration of programme | 1 Month | 8.4% |
| | More than 1 and less than 6 months | 33.8% |
| | More than 6 and less 9 months | 12.4% |
| | Longer than 9 months | 45.4% |

Source: Own compilation

Table 4.7 shows that the highest number of learners that participated in the survey was from the tourism industry covering 46.4%, followed by those that studied hospitality (27.8%). It is, however, interesting to note that 61% of the learners that completed the

survey are from the hospitality industry. Gauteng had the most participants (47.2%) as this is one of the provinces that have most tourism service providers. Females represented the group with 64.6% and within the sample there were 6.2% participants with a disability.

The learners (36.6%) were mostly recruited through their training institutions, making a 48% participation in the learnership programme and 36.6% on the internship programme. More than 42% (42.4 %) of the learners were trained through Colleges and 38.2% of learners through private training institutions. Most learners participated in programmes that were offered for a period of longer than 9 months, this could apply mostly to those that participated in learnerships as it is mostly a year qualification whilst 33.8% of the learners participated in programmes that were longer than 1 month and less than 6 months forming part normally of an internship programme. The learners were mostly placed in the front of house (50.8%), this group was mostly comprised of the tourism and travel related programmes participants.

4.3.2.2 *Learner Skills*

To analyse the learners skills, a factor analysis was conducted to observe factors found within each skill and group skill as perceived by the sub sector.

Confirmatory factor analysis was conducted on four groups of variables that are necessary in the workplace and in the tourism industry; as tested and explained in the literature by various sources (O'Neil *et al.*, 1997:5; Zagonari, 2009:4; Peacock & Ladkin, 2002:398; Earle-Mallesson, 2009:308; Sinclair, 1997:108,111,118; Nash & Korte, 1997:79; Evans *et al.*, 2004:222). The first step in analysing the adequacy of the data for factor analysis includes the interpretation of the Kaiser-Meier-Olkin (KMO) of sampling adequacy. Table 4.8 it is clear that the KMO's in three cases were highly acceptable ranging between .836 and .850. The KMO for Factor 4 was .500 which is not high but acceptable in the case of exploratory research. Secondly, the total variance explained by the extracted factors should be more than 50%, which was in each case higher than 50%. Only those factors with an eigenvalue equal to or greater than 1.0 were considered. The Cronbach's Alpha Coefficients were examined to determine the reliability of the data and, in all cases, values were above 0.60 which is acceptable.

Thus a list of 19 skill attributes was provided to respondents and they were asked to indicate the importance of each while on the programme. The attributes were grouped according to the following: Factor 1: Self-reliance; Factor 2: People Skills; Factor 3: General employment skills and Factor 4: Specialist skills.

Table 4.8: Confirmatory factor analysis

| Confirmatory factor analysis | | | | | |
|-------------------------------------|------|---------------|----------------|------|-----------------------------|
| | KMO | % OF VARIANCE | CRONBACH ALPHA | MEAN | MEAN-INTER-ITEM CORRELATION |
| Factor 1: Self Reliance | .838 | 60.22 | .831 | 4.30 | .50 |
| Factor 2: People Skills | .836 | 54.88 | .771 | 4.01 | .42 |
| Factor 3: General employment skills | .850 | 60.74 | .863 | 4.17 | .52 |
| Factor 4: Specialist skills | .500 | 71.69 | .604 | 4.00 | .43 |

Source: Own compilation

It is evident that the self reliance skills are considered as important based on the mean value of 4.30 followed by general employment skills with a mean value of 4.17.

Self-Reliance

The self-reliance factor includes variables such as self-awareness, pro-activeness, willingness to learn, networking, and planning & organising. This factor has the highest mean value of 4.30. As noted by Olivier, Russel, Gilli, Hughes, Schuder, Brown and Towers (1997:65) these factors are very important as they form a bridge between the individual, the society and the environment. Hjalager (2003:34) further added that the nature of the industry requires such personality traits in employees. Employers in this study also indicated the importance of self-reliance.

People Skills

People skills has a mean value of 4.01 and includes aspects such as the ability to work in a team, effective communication skills (written), effective communication skills (verbal), leadership and management and customer orientation. Peacock and Ladkin (2002:398) as well as Earle-Malleson (2009:307) consider that the tourism industry regards communication as top priority. On the other hand, Riley *et al.* (2002:179) aver that the

tourism industry has become more commercial thereby changing to a more managerial orientated approach which has a direct effect to the tourism traditional education. Earle-Malleson (2009:307) added that there's a shortage of variable high level strategic managers for recruitment in the sector with the ability to handle and lead people.

General employment skills

General employment skills has a mean value of 4.17 and includes aspects such as the ability to solve problems, flexibility, and business acumen, numeracy of quantitative literacy skills, commitment and professionalism. With this in mind, Earle-Malleson (2009:315) advises the industry to use bridging and mentoring programmes that will address issues of problem solving and general employment skills as the tourism industry interrelates with other industries. Most of the managers expect certain abilities to be common sense from learners while, in many cases, this is not so and this therefore creates a situation where more is expected than can be delivered.

Specialist skills

The specialist skills include aspects such as technical and computer skills as well as tourism knowledge. According to Busby and Gibson (2010:1) quality development and inclusion of technical and computer skills is important as it provides learners with a better foundation that will assist them with the flexibility of careers outside tourism as well. Hjalager (2003:34) notes that many tourism organisations are not keen to recruit specialised candidates with specific tourism related qualifications and Peacock and Ladkin (2002:396) further added that there is a debate as to whether it is necessary to have tourism knowledge and/or have more generic management skills to enable one to work in the tourism industry and which skills the industry requires. This factor resulted in a mean value of 4.0.

4.3.2.3 Comparison of skills based on fields of study

Unique to this study is the further analyses of the gaps of skills factors as deemed by each sub sector by means of a One Way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA). According to Pallant (2010:249) an ANOVA is used to compare mean scores of more than two groups and determine significant differences. This analysis was used to analyse data on Section A, question 1 referring to the "areas of your study" with skills required.

Table 4.9: ANOVA for comparison of skills by fields of study

| SKILL FACTORS | TOURISM STUDIES | TRAVEL STUDIES | CONSERVATION STUDIES | HOSPITALITY STUDIES | GAMING AND LOTTERIES STUDIES | F - VALUE | P-value. |
|---------------------------|-------------------|-------------------|----------------------|---------------------|------------------------------|-----------|----------|
| Self-reliance | 4.35(±.52) | 4.27 (±.57) | 4.21(±.86) | 4.37(±.58) | 3.88(±.85) | 2.98 | .019 * |
| People skills | 4.40(±.52) | 4.29 (±.57) | 3.96(±.92) | 4.44(±.63) | 3.85(±.54) | 6.80 | .000 * |
| General employment skills | 4.18(±.58) | 4.08(±.693) | 3.91(±.84) | 4.27(±.64) | 3.81(±.80) | 3.23 | .013 * |
| Specialist skills | 4.09(±.78) | 4.09(±.75) | 3.92(±.89) | 3.89(±.89) | 3.72(±.88) | 1.77 | .135 |

p<0.05 *

Source: Own compilation

Although the literature does not reflect much on each subsector, the study has shown that there are various skills differences in each factor related to the field of study. Table 4.9 shows that *people skills* reflect higher on Hospitality studies (M=4.44, SD=±.63), Tourism studies (M=4.40, SD=±.52) and on Travel studies (M=4.29, SD=±.57) and lower on Gaming and lotteries studies (M=3.85, SD=±.54). *Self reliance skills* reflected higher once again on Hospitality studies (M=4.37, SD=±.58), followed by Tourism studies (M=4.35, SD=±.52) and with lower once again on Gaming and lotteries studies (M=3.88, SD=±.85). This therefore suggests that the tourism, travel, and hospitality sub-sectors have commonality regarding certain skills factors required. It is interesting to note that the Conservation and Gaming and lotteries sub-sectors also share commonality in their skills factors requirements (people skills, general employment skills and specialist skills), this is due to the characteristics of both industries that are highly influenced by regulations. Job outputs in these industries are further systematic and properly structured with less room for flexibility when compared to other sub sectors in the industry. The hospitality sector reflected lower on specialist skills (M=3.89, SD±.89), therefore suggesting that the main components of the hospitality industry do not rely on technical and computer skills nor on tourism knowledge. Riley *et al.* (2002:25) noted that, in industries like hospitality, some skills can be learnt without any formal training.

Table 4.9 further shows that there is a statistically significant difference for all skills factors in the Gaming and lotteries studies when compared to other sub sectors as the p value <0.05, this therefore suggests that the Gaming and Lotteries skills studies to be conducted

in a different manner as this sector is unique in its overall operations. With this in mind as noted in chapter 3, Saayman and Geldenhuys (2003:93) also noted that the various sub sectors in the industry require different skills.

4.3.2.4 Comparison of skills expected by employers and skills presented by learners

This discussion aims to analyse the skills expected by the employers and the skills presented as perceived by the learners that participated in the CATHSSETA programmes. An independent-sample *t*-test was thus conducted to determine whether differences exist regarding skills expected by employers and skills presented by learners in the workplace that formed part of the CATHSSETA training programmes. This was conducted through a comparison of section D of the group A (employers) questionnaire and section C of group B (learners) questionnaire.

Section D of the group A (employers) questionnaires analysed the employers' opinions and skills expectations about the learners on the programme. The questionnaires asked how the learners performed with regard to self reliant skills, and also what qualities learners showed with regard to people skills, general employment skills and specialist skills. Section C of group B (learners) questionnaires analysed learners' skills demonstrated at the workplace. Learners were asked to what extent did their self reliance skill, people skill, general employment skill and specialist skill improve on the programme.

Table 4.10: *t*-test for comparison of skills expected by employers and presented by learners

| SKILL FACTORS | EMPLOYERS (N=141) MEAN & STANDARD DEVIATION | LEARNERS (N=380) MEAN & STANDARD DEVIATION | P-VALUE |
|---|--|---|----------------|
| Self-reliant | | | |
| Self-aware, realistic, focused and purposeful | 2.95 (±.76) | 4.27 (±.75) | 0.000* |
| Proactive | 2.70 (±.94) | 4.31 (±.76) | 0.000* |
| Willing to learn | 3.41(±.86) | 4.58 (±.64) | 0.000* |
| Able to network, resourceful and an | 2.76 (±.86) | 4.15 (±.86) | 0.000* |

| | | | |
|---|-------------|---------------|--------|
| initiator | | | |
| Good at planning, organising and prioritising | 2.74 (±.89) | 4.20 (±.85) | 0.000* |
| People skills | | | |
| The ability to work in a team | 3.45 (±.81) | 4.51 (±.72) | 0.000* |
| Effective written communication skills | 3.02 (±.78) | 4.35 (±.78) | 0.000* |
| Effective verbal communication skills | 3.02 (±.83) | 4.39 (±.72) | 0.000* |
| Leadership and management | 2.39 (±.93) | 3.91 (±.90) | 0.000* |
| Customer orientation – friendly and caring | 3.15 (±.89) | 4.51 (±.71) | 0.000* |
| Ability to speak a foreign language | 1.60 (±.95) | 2.33 (±.1.21) | 0.000* |
| General employment skills | | | |
| The ability to solve problems | 2.89 (±.85) | 4.06 (±.82) | 0.000* |
| Flexibility | 3.00 (±.83) | 4.36 (±.76) | 0.000* |
| Business acumen – entrepreneurial | 2.30 (±.77) | 3.61 (±1.03) | 0.000* |
| Numeracy | 2.96 (±.75) | 3.91 (±.94) | 0.000* |
| Commitment | 3.21 (±.86) | 4.49 (±.73) | 0.000* |
| Professionalism | 3.11 (±.88) | 4.46 (±.77) | 0.000* |
| Specialist skills | | | |
| Technical and computer skills | 2.82 (±.90) | 3.92 (±.93) | 0.000* |
| Tourism knowledge | 2.58 (±.96) | 4.10 (±.99) | 0.000* |

p<0.05

Source: Own compilation

Table 4.10 shows significant statistical differences ($p<0.05$) between skills expected by employers and skills presented by the learners on the programme on all factors. In all instances, learners thought they were better skilled than employers perceived their skills to be. This finding therefore confirms that there is a perception gap between skills expected and skills presented in the tourism training and skills environment of CATHSSETA.

The largest differences between skills expected and skills presented were found in the ability to speak a foreign language and business acumen (entrepreneurial skills). Employers considered learners' ability to speak a foreign language less important ($M=1.60$, $SD=\pm.95$) than learners ($M=2.33$, $SD=\pm.1.21$) themselves. The variance in language, according to Earle-Mallesson (2009:308) the tourism industry in South Africa does not regard a foreign language as a substantial requirement. Overall Latagan *et al.* (2010:5141) caution that it must be understood that organisations do not ask for the educational system to produce completely educated and skilled learners but rather learners with basic knowledge, innovative and entrepreneurial minds that are flexible and want to learn more, with an ability to establish and maintain social relationships.

Employers also regarded business acumen skills as less important ($M=2.30$; $SD=\pm.77$) than learners ($M=3.61$, $SD=\pm.1.03$). With regard to the business acumen (entrepreneurial skills), Riley *et al.* (2002:179) note that, over the years, the tourism industry has become more commercial and thereby requires a change to a more managerial orientated approach of education. There seems to be an imbalance as the researchers such as Baum (1995:186) and Riley *et al.* (2002:178) noted that most experiential learning in the sector focuses primarily on preparing learners for the lower skills positions and puts minimum focus on the higher levels of employment (managerial). Akojees (2009:133), Groenewald and Schurink (2003:98), Riley *et al.* (2002:178) as well as Swanson and Holton III (2009:227) agree that the curriculum is focused on simple skills and practical training which should actually be replaced by a broader-based curriculum that focuses on business skills (entrepreneurial skills) and theoretical underpinnings.

The highest skills gap is presented on pro-activeness where employers considered this to be less important ($M=2.70$, $SD=\pm.94$) than learners ($M=4.31$; $SD=\pm.76$), this therefore means that employers perceive the learners as not proactive enough whilst the learners think they are. This is supported by research done in 1999 when Holden and Jameson (1999:51) found that employers perceive learners as slow to become productive and reluctant to get their hands dirty.

The second skill gap is that of tourism knowledge, where employers considered tourism knowledge less important ($M=2.58$, $SD=\pm.96$) than learners ($M=4.10$, $SD= \pm.99$). Peacock

and Ladkin (2002:398) indicated that employers placed general transferable skills above tourism skills knowledge, when compared, tourism knowledge was viewed as a value added.

Significant differences are visible on the learners' ability to plan, organise and prioritising skills with employers (M=2.74, SD=±.89) and learners (M=4.20, SD=±.85). Their ability to network, resourcefulness and initiative with employers (M=2.76, SD=±.86) and learners (M=4.15, SD=±.86) were also lacking and lastly they were regarded as not being self-aware, realistic, and focused and purposefulness skills were lacking. Hjalager (2003:34) indicated that the tourism labour markets which are characterised by rapid turnover and intensive changes in business operations require the above mentioned skills. Earle-Mallesen (2009:312) further added that learners usually begin their placements with high expectations and have challenges in maintaining these expectations and motivation. They demand higher wages and expect immediate employment upon completion of their programme.

It is evident from the current study that there are major gaps between the employers' expectations and the skills learners feel they have. It is clear that an improved and solid tripartite relationship is required in this regard between the training providers, learners and employers. The skill gaps highlighted form core to fundamental skills and will not only enrich the learner's ability to cope with the tourism industry but it will also assist them to cope in other industries whilst enriching the economic status of the country.

This therefore creates a concern of the future workforce in South Africa and call for an urgent review of skills attainment.

4.3.2.5 *General comments and evaluation of the CATHSSETA programme received from the surveys*

Below are general thoughts about the programme from both the employers and the learners points of view which were captured by means of open-ended questions.

4.3.2.5.1 *Learners*

Twenty-six percent of the learners were placed in various departments such as the kitchen, food and beverage, waitressing, events, casino floor, call centre, housekeeping laundry and

reservations. They were rendered opportunities to work in these departments for a week to six months and some were never rotated between departments at all. Those that were not rotated or stayed for less than a month are of the opinion that the duration did not give them adequate time to learn the fundamental basics required to enter the industry. Some learners think the programme did not prepare them for the workplace as the duration is very short to learn and they are still not employed. After completion of the programme few are of the opinion that it helped them to understand what is expected of them in the workplace. The learners have experienced growth in better understanding of etiquette required by the industry whilst others have had a thought and exposure that it is hard to be in the workplace especially coming from school. They have seen an increase in their communication skills and self-confidence through the programme.

The learners think the programme can be improved through offering more of these programmes and request for a post programme to be put together to ensure learners are eventually employed. Proper planning with more realistic time frames spent in each department must be done prior to the start of the programme. The mentors should have time and patience for the learners and necessary equipment should be provided at the workplace. The learners must be given reports on their performance per department as this will enable them to realise their potential. CATHSSETA, as the training authority, should dedicate time to the monitoring the learners at the workplace at higher intervals than the current practice and issue further certification after completion on time. Review of learners' stipend must be considered.

The learners would appreciate seminars being held at their training institutions where employers engage with learners regarding their expectations prior to the start of the programme. The learnership requires the separation of age groups as their levels of understanding and experience vary.

4.3.2.5.2 Employers

Most of the employers operate throughout South Africa. Other employers recruit their learners through government departments and referral from staff. They place the learner for a duration of 3 to 6 weeks while others for 1 month to 6 months in each department, that is; normally for a internship maximum 6 months and learnership 1 year. Learners are placed in the kitchen, food and beverages, casino, finance department, laundry;

housekeeping and some employers prefer not to rotate them at all for the full duration of the programme.

According to the employers, some learners lack the right personality and emotional intelligence for the industry. The learners are immature and too young for the programme to deal with stressful situations that come with the industry. Learners should be provided with better guidance and career counselling to ascertain the levels of emotional intelligence and how this can be matched with the job requirements. In most cases, learners are misplaced as they come with tourism knowledge and yet are placed in travel trade organisations; they should further be informed of the differences between tourism and travel to ensure less career mismatch. Some learners do not know what the industry is about or the various departments but they expect to start working at management level.

Learners lack the basic business skills; the programmes need to add more of etiquette skill, customer service and professionalism. The training institutions must continuously be updated on areas of focus for training to ensure relevance. There are programmes that require their own training / qualification. For instance it is recommended for the Sushi chef to be professionalised and be registered as a learnership. Introduction of gaming and lotteries studies in FET colleges and universities will be beneficial for the industry. Creating a qualification for the Inbound Industry will be good as there is currently no qualification for entrants to this unique and different business module.

Consideration should be given for a bridging course to be in place before the start of a 1-year learnership programme for approximately six weeks focusing on life skills, business practice and ethics. It is important to review and establish recruitment and selection processes for both programmes. A properly structured empowerment programme for mentors is advised as this will enable them to know and completely understand their role in the programme. Employers should be given money for uniform and administration expenses. The stipend should be increased together with the periodic provision of the programmes.

4.4 CONCLUSION

The main aim of this chapter was to reflect on the results of the empirical research so as to determine the skills gaps between the learners and the employers that are on the CATHSSETA training programmes. The study was concluded with the comparisons of questionnaires completed by both the learners and the employers. The factors determined will enable the South African tourism skills to improve with increased quality in the facilitation of both programmes conducted by CATHSSETA.

From the results, it is clear that tourism education and skills need a collaborative partnership among the key industry stakeholders to ensure proper implementation and the consequent results. CATHSSETA, together with the employers and training institutions, must work together in ensuring that skills imparted to the learners respond to the industry needs in the long term. Although this might remain a challenge as the key characteristics of the industry are competition oriented, employers need to share their basic operation skills requirements for the improvement of the curricula.

It was interesting to note that there was no significant difference on employers' and learners' thoughts about **people skills** (the ability to work in a team, effective written and verbal communication skills, leadership and management skills, customer orientation skills), **general employment skills** (flexibility, numeracy, commitment, professionalism) and **specialist and computer skills** (technical and computer skills). Significant differences were seen on **self-reliant skills** (self-awareness, pro activeness, ability to network, planning, organising and prioritising skills), **general employment skills** (the ability to solve problems) and **specialist skills** (tourism knowledge). The lack of self reliance skills, which is one of the core elements of the tourism industry, is very problematic. These skills are considered to be the basic skills needed when entering the industry. Employers expect learners to be better equipped when working with tourists and visitors seeing that satisfied tourists will revisit. It was clear that employers expect learners to be self-reliant and have general employment skills and do more of the work on their own as well as take initiative and show a willingness to learn. The programmes need to include such aspects although some might be learnt on everyday living and conduct but this holds certain implications for the training providers, since the type of tourism knowledge presented to the learners should be of value not only to the learner but also to the employer and add value to the business.

According to these results as well as that of Hjalager (2003:34), Earle-Malleson (2009:315) and Evans *et al.* (2004:222), most employers require most of the above mentioned skills except for the tourism knowledge skills. Curriculum focusing on tourism knowledge should be updated and focused on the industry. Again, consultation with industry is needed in this regard.

The results therefore suggest that the current system produces the “generalist” types of graduates who are not adequately prepared for the business world of the tourism industry.

Chapter five will provide the findings of the research, draw conclusions and make recommendations regarding the skills gaps in the tourism education and environment in South Africa.

CHAPTER FIVE

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 INTRODUCTION

The future of a successful South African tourism industry is closely related to the development of the industry's human resource capacity (Saayman, 2005:258). It is thus important to ensure that skills expected from learners in the workplace and skills presented by the learners after training concur. The various stakeholders including the private sector, the government, and the providers of South African training and education need to interact to establish the composition of the relevant skills and qualifications required for this industry (Grobler *et al.*, 2006:328) and overcome the gaps between skills required and skills presented.

Considering this phenomenon, the aim of this study was to analyse the skills expectations of employers and compare them with the skills presented by learners that both participated in the CATHSSETA programmes. This was achieved by setting the following objectives:

- ② Objective 1: To analyse literature concerning human resources management with the main focus on training. This objective was achieved in Chapter 2 of the study. The research clearly shows that training and development of employees have an influence on the success of most organisations and need to be planned and conducted properly.
- ② Objective 2: To contextualise the current tourism education environment in South Africa. This objective was achieved in Chapter 3 of the study. It was found that, although the quality of tourism education is growing in South Africa, all stakeholders involved (learners, employers and training providers) have different views in terms of the its current relevance to the workplace, which also highlighted the importance of this study in a developing country such as South Africa.
- ② Objective 3: To determine the skills expectations of learners and the experiences of employers in the tourism industry. This objective was achieved in Chapter 4 of the

study and it was clear that there are significant differences between the skills presented by the learners and the skills required by the employers that participated on the CATHSSETA programme. This is an issue that needs to be addressed if the tourism industry wants to grow and focus on quality.

- ④ Objective 4: To draw conclusions and make recommendations regarding the skills gaps in tourism education. This is done in the current chapter where conclusions will be drawn concerning the findings of the research encompassing the literature analyses (Chapters 2 and 3) as well as the results reported in Chapter 4. Recommendations concerning the topic and objectives will be made as well as suggestions for further research.

5.2 CONCLUSIONS

Below, conclusions are presented regarding the literature review and the surveys that were analysed in this research (c.f. 1-4).

5.2.1. Conclusions regarding the literature study

- ④ The tourism industry has the potential to create jobs and contribute to the country's GDP. Government has invested money in the tourism sector to ensure improved education and skills for this sector (c.f. 1.1.).
- ④ To succeed in the rebuilding process, it is imperative for various stakeholders – the private sector, the government, and the providers of South African education and training – to collaborate in the composition of the relevant skills and qualifications required for the industry (c.f. 1.1).
- ④ CATHSSETA, as the Sector Education and Training Authority (SETA) for the tourism sector, must prioritise the facilitation and assurance of quality provision of both internships and learnerships (c.f. 1.2).
- ④ Training provision forms the core part of each CATHSSETA programme and is not responding to the needs of the industry (c.f. 1.2).
- ④ It was clear in the analyses that effective implementation of human resources practices enables competitiveness and sustainability in most organisations, highlighting the importance of well qualified and able employees (c.f. 2.1).

- ② Most organisations today often link their human resources to the overall organisation's strategy, goals and objectives (c.f. 2.1).
- ② HR is sub-divided into two components - human resource management (HRM) and human resource development (HRD), and has various other sub-components, such as compensation, employment relations, skills attributes, recruitment & selections and training & development (c.f. 2.1).
- ② HR departments vary per organisational size. The tourism industry normally has no HR department or small HR departments as the industry is dominated by SMMEs and the duties of HR are usually performed by the line managers which might be the reason for not always understanding and valuing the importance of adequate and well trained staff (c.f. 2.2).
- ② Training is central to the organisation's overall performance and needs to be continuously updated even in the case of small businesses (c.f. 2.3).
- ② Training has the potential to change the minds of employees and their commitment to the organisation (c.f. 2.3).
- ② Organisations find it difficult to calculate the return on investment on training in the short term and long term Hence some are reluctant to provide training especially because employees continuously apply for positions at other organisations for personal growth (c.f. 2.3).
- ② Organisations have different requirements regarding skills, but share common requirements in terms of the need for general employment skills, self-reliant skills and technology knowledge skills (c.f. 2.4).
- ② Recruitment and selection are directly linked to training and organisations are looking for certain skills that can be acquired through training of the prospective employees (c.f. 2.5).
- ② Compensation is also linked to the skill acquired through training and education as organisations usually compensate according to their job or skill knowledge capabilities (c.f. 2.6).
- ② Employee relations aim to ensure equitable distributions of all HR components to both the employers and employees in an amicable manner (c.f. 2.7).
- ② The tourism industry (both employers and employees) is embracing the importance of training and development irrespective of the industry characteristics (high seasonal business demand, insufficient time, high employee turnover and small business) (c.f. 3.2).

- Ⓢ Lack of quality skills is often compromised by organisations themselves as they are willing to hire people without the relevant knowledge of the industry (c.f. 3.2).
- Ⓢ The industry is gradually moving towards more sustainable HR practices as some of the practices identified in Table 3.1 are currently being implemented (c.f. 3.2).
- Ⓢ Many countries in the world combat poverty through provision of subsidies for youth unemployment which is usually in the form of bursaries, internships and career guidance and this is also the case in South Africa (c.f. 3.5).
- Ⓢ Experiential learning improves the learners' self awareness and increases their knowledge and understanding of the functioning of the industry which will enable them to be employable upon completion of these learning programmes (c.f. 3.5).
- Ⓢ Organisations often experience challenges in the management, implementation and monitoring of experiential learning and other bureaucratic processes which usually consumes their time (c.f. 3.5).
- Ⓢ The curriculum tends to focus on providing simple basic skills, not just simple business skills and normally it trains learners to the lower levels of positions (c.f. 3.5).
- Ⓢ Experiential learning has both the advantages and disadvantages which can contribute to learners' knowledge upon completion of the programme (c.f. 3.5). One of the biggest advantages is the creation of experience and reality to the learner. One of the biggest disadvantages is that it can disrupt the normal work outputs of the employer.
- Ⓢ Knowledge about the availability of these programmes is not known to everyone, especially those located in the rural areas, which therefore suggests that there is no equitable distribution (c.f.3.5).
- Ⓢ SMMEs are willing to participate in both learnerships and internships but they usually cannot afford the cost involved in running the programme and learners do not take the programmes serious mainly due to the size of the SMMEs (c.f. 3.5).
- Ⓢ Mentors play a very important role in the overall implementation of both programmes. It is therefore important for the mentor to be dedicated and be willing to make time for the learner (c.f.3.5).
- Ⓢ Training providers do not work closely with the industry and often educators themselves do not know much about tourism (c.f.3.5).
- Ⓢ Some managers in organisations do not value education because, quite often, they themselves do not have any industry-related qualification. Most senior positions in the industry are occupied by expatriates from other industries and some business

owners start operating without any knowledge of tourism (c.f. 3.5). Thus the entry requirements for the tourism industry are fairly low which also creates problems regarding skills and knowledge.

- ② The changes in the tourism industry require a more management-orientated approach in teaching while keeping general employment skills, information technology knowledge, innovative mind, entrepreneurial skills and flexibility in mind (c.f. 3.6).

5.2.2 Conclusions regarding the survey

The following important findings and conclusions were made in the survey:

This study compared the skills expectations of tourism employers and the skills presented by the CATHSSETA learners. Although the importance of certain skills has been highlighted in literature, this study revealed that there are still various gaps between employers' skill expectations from learners and what these learners can deliver after having completed the training programmes.

- ② The survey shows that hospitality sector employers are the majority implementers of these programmes with a higher percentage of learners from tourism studies and more females (c.f. 4.3).
- ② Participating businesses have been in operation between 7 and 10 years, therefore giving a trustworthy opinion on the skills expected from and presented by learners (c.f. 4.3).
- ② The participants were mostly part of the learnership programmes, based in Gauteng with less participation from the rural areas (c.f. 4.3).
- ② The prominence of private training providers was clear. The recruitment of learners is also made through these training institutions (c.f. 4.3).
- ② After compiling the *t*-test to determine the skills expected by employers and skills presented by learners as perceived by employers, it was surprising to find that significant differences exist for most skills, but especially for self-reliance and people skills. In all instances, employers expected learners to be better skilled than was the actual case (c.f. 4.3.1.2).
- ② The only skills that did not show any significant difference was that of an ability to speak a foreign language (c.f. 4.3.1.2).

- Ⓢ Regarding the group skills, most significant differences were found on general employment skills and least differences on specialist skills (c.f. 4.3.1.3)
- Ⓢ When analysing the mean values, employers regarded customer orientation and learners' willingness to learn as the most important skills (c.f. 4.3.1.2).
- Ⓢ It was further found that, in most cases, the skills expected from learners were much higher than the skills presented by learners entering the workplace. The results clearly showed that the learners are unable to adhere to the current demands of the industry (c.f. 4.3)
- Ⓢ The *t*-test conducted the comparison of skills presented by learners as perceived by the employers and acquired skills by the learners as perceived by learners upon completion of the programme indicate that there are significant differences in all skills (c.f. 4.3.2.4).
- Ⓢ The 19 attributes were grouped according to the following: Factor 1: Self-reliance; Factor 2: People Skills; Factor 3: General employment skills and Factor 4: Specialist skills. It is evident that the self reliance skills are considered as important based on the mean value of 4.30 followed by general employment skills with a mean value of 4.17 (c.f. 4.3.2.2).
- Ⓢ The results of the One-way ANOVA reflected that each sub-sector's skill requirements vary - more specifically the gaming and lotteries sub-sector skills indicated as unique in the way it should be approached.
- Ⓢ It is interesting to note that the tourism, travel, and hospitality sub-sectors have commonality regarding the skills factors required, while the Conservation and Gaming and Lotteries sub-sectors also share commonality in their skills factors requirements. This is due to the characteristics of both industries that are highly influenced by regulations. Their job outputs are further systematic and properly structured with less room for flexibility when compared to other sub-sectors in the industry.
- Ⓢ Overall, the expectations of the employers are much higher than those that learners can deliver, and this creates frustration and, very importantly, also influences the growth of the tourism industry.
- Ⓢ This research indicated that, although government institutions such as CATHSSETA aim to provide the opportunity for young South Africans to obtain training and education in the tourism industry, learners are still not yet competent in the workplace.

5.3 RECOMMENDATIONS

Based on the conclusions discussed above and the research results, the following recommendations are made:

- ② CATHSSETA and the industry role players must improve cooperation and collaborate in developing appropriate training programmes that will equip learners with the required skills and knowledge.
- ② The results of the survey create a concern and question the suitability of the current training programmes that CATHSSETA are managing as well as the adequacy of training institutions. An in-depth analysis for these differences is thus imperative.
- ② The current curriculum should be reviewed by all stakeholders (CATHSSETA, employers and training institutions) with the involvement of learners (graduated) that have completed their training, to ensure relevance and realistic expectations. It should include aspects of self-reliant skills, general employment skills and IT skills.
- ② Attention should be provided to the improvement of customer services aspects in the curriculum as the industry has a higher demand for customer-orientated learners.
- ② Prior exposure to the industry must be given to the learners, especially in the initial phase of commencement of their studies to ensure that they understand what is expected from them and what the industry upholds. Managers of companies must make time to visit schools and higher education institutions to interact with the learners, perhaps as part of their organisation's corporate social responsibility.
- ② Investment in foreign language skills must be reduced and be provided on a speciality level. Provision of numeracy and business acumen must be provided on a basic level.
- ② Technology is vital to the industry; key focus must be prioritised in an increase of technological aspects on the curriculum.
- ② Willingness to learn, which forms part of self-reliance skills, is a higher requirement by employers, therefore the curriculum should include motivational aspects that will ensure learner focus throughout their training. Psychological aspects and emotional intelligence must form part of the curriculum.
- ② Management, leadership and entrepreneurial skills should be emphasised and instilled in the learners. Institutions that offer entrepreneurial advice and assistance

must form part of the training, for instance the involvement of Umsobomvu Youth Fund and NYDA (National Youth Development Agency).

- Ⓢ There should be increased disbursement of funds to internship programmes as results reflected minimum investment in this programme. The programme should be a minimum of a year to ensure sufficient exposure for the learners.
- Ⓢ A pre-course for a period of six months must be provided to the learnership learners. The pre-course must focus on the life skills, ethics and conduct, and provide an introduction to the industry as this will assist learners psychologically for the challenges and requirements of the industry.
- Ⓢ Composition of individual training material should be discouraged. Instead, employers / training providers must be encouraged to offer the same training and build differentiation at the workplace as this will assist in reducing employers' low perception of other employers in the industry.
- Ⓢ Mentors play an integral role in these programmes; proper training for the mentors should be established as there are gaps in this regard. Inspections should be conducted to ensure that necessary equipment per participant is available for either programme (internship and learnership).
- Ⓢ South African cultures and standards should be taught to promote South Africa as a tourism destination, for example teach South African cuisine to ensure promotion of the country.
- Ⓢ Post-programme or an effective after plan should be put in place to ensure sustainability and trace for the learners beyond the programme.

5.4 RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

- Ⓢ The curriculum content of tourism sub-sectors offered by various types of training institutions (FET Colleges, Universities, Private training providers) should be analysed to determine the level of relevance to the employers' requirements.
- Ⓢ A study should be conducted to determine whether the learners that participated in these programmes are employed in the industry with the aim of measuring the return on investment.
- Ⓢ A study should be conducted to determine the challenges experienced by participants (learner, employer and training provider) in the rollout of these programmes.

- ② A study should be conducted to determine the skills levels of managers in the sector.
- ② A study should be conducted to evaluate the impact of tourism knowledge as a requirement and contribution to enter the industry.

From the research, it is clear that there are skills gaps between the learners and the employers on CATHSSETA programmes. Given the amount of money that is invested in these programmes, it is therefore advised that the programmes not be rolled out for quantity purposes and to increase new entrants into the industry, but rather to ensure quality attainment of qualifications and skills.

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APPENDIX 1: QUESTIONNAIRES

An analysis of skills expectations of learners versus employers:

SECTION A: SOCIO-DEMOGRAPHIC DETAIL

1. What is your area of study?

- Tourism studies Travel studies Conservation studies Hospitality studies Gaming and lotteries studies

2. In which province are you staying?

- Gauteng KwaZulu-Natal Eastern Cape Western Cape Northern Cape Limpopo Mpumalanga

3. What is your gender?

- Female Male

4. Do you have any form of disability? if yes, please specify on "other box below"

- Yes No

Other (please specify)

SECTION B: CATHSSETA / THETA PROGRAMME

1. Which programme did you participate in?

- Learnership Internship Both

2. How did you hear about the internship/learnership programmes?

- Referrals Media, such as newspapers Referrals from current staff Training institutions

3. At which type of training institution did you study?

- Private training institution College / FET college University of Technology University

4. What is your highest qualification?

- National Certificate National Diploma Degree Honours Degree Master's Degree

5. What was the duration of your internship/learnership?

- 1 Month
 More than 1 and less than 6 months
 More than 6 and less than 9 months
 Longer than 9 months

An analysis of skills expectations of learners versus employers:

6. Where were you placed during your participation in the learnership/internship programme?

- Front office
- Back office
- Field work
- Other

Other (please specify)

7. How long did you stay in one department, before moving to the next?

8. Please provide your opinion on the following questions by selecting either Yes or No

YES NO

- | | | |
|--|-----------------------|-----------------------|
| A. Did you rotate departments during the learnership/internship? | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> |
| B. Did the organisation provide you with a mentor during your internship/learnership? | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> |
| C. Did you and your mentor complete a progress assessment? | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> |
| D. Do you feel that you have sufficient theoretical knowledge upon entering the workplace? | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> |
| E. Were you committed to learning more than what was required from you? | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> |
| F. Did you complete the training programme? | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> |
| G. In your opinion did the internship/learnership programme prepare you for the workplace? | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> |

Other (please specify)

SECTION C: SKILL DEMONSTRATED UPON ENTERING THE WORKPLACE

To what extent did the following skills / aspects improve after a learnership/internship programme

An analysis of skills expectations of learners versus employers:

1. A) Self- reliance

| | None at all | A little | To a moderate extent | To a great extent | To a very great extent |
|--|-----------------------|-----------------------|-----------------------|-----------------------|------------------------|
| Self awareness (realistic, focused , and purposeful) | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> |
| Proactiveness | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> |
| Willingness to learn | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> |
| Networking - being resourceful and an initiator | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> |
| Planning and organising - being a planner and able to prioritise | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> |

2. B) People skills

| | None at all | A little | To a moderate extent | To a great extent | To a very great extent |
|--|-----------------------|-----------------------|-----------------------|-----------------------|------------------------|
| The ability to work in a team | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> |
| Effective communication skills (written) | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> |
| Effective communication skills (verbal) | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> |
| Leadership and management | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> |
| Customer orientation - being friendly, caring and diplomatic | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> |
| The ability to speak a foreign language | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> |

3. C) General employment skills

| | None at all | A little | To a moderate extent | To a great extent | To a very great extent |
|--|-----------------------|-----------------------|-----------------------|-----------------------|------------------------|
| The ability to solve problems | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> |
| Flexibility | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> |
| Business acumen - entrepreneurial skills | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> |
| Numeracy of quantitative literacy skills | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> |
| Commitment | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> |
| Professionalism | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> |

4. D) Specialist skills

| | None at all | A little | To a moderate extent | To a great extent | To a very great extent |
|-------------------------------|-----------------------|-----------------------|-----------------------|-----------------------|------------------------|
| Technical and computer skills | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> |
| Tourism knowledge | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> |

SECTION D: GENERAL

1. Besides these skills, what else did you learn?

2. How can the programme be improved?

3. Are you currently employed in this industry?

Yes

No

Still studying

An analysis of skills expectations of learners versus employers: the

1. SECTION A: SOCIO-DEMOGRAPHIC DETAIL

1. In which sector does your business operate?

- Tourism Travel Hospitality Gaming and Lotteries Conservation

2. In which province is your business located?

- Gauteng KwaZulu-Natal Eastern Cape Western Cape Northern Cape Limpopo Mpumalanga

Other (please specify)

3. How long has the business been in existence?

Year/s

Year/s

4. What is the size of your business (based on the number of employees)?

- Small (0-49) Medium (50-149) Large(150+)

2. SECTION B : CATHSSETA / THETA PROGRAMME

5. In which programme did your business participate?

- Learnership Internship Both

6. How do you recruit suitable learners for your internship/learnership programmes?

- Referrals Media such as newspapers Referrals from current staff Training institutions

Other (please specify)

7. Where are the learners studying?

- Private training institution College / FET College University of Technology University

Other (please specify)

An analysis of skills expectations of learners versus employers: the

8. How many learners formed part of the internship/learnership programme in the following years?

| | Internship | Learnership |
|------|----------------------|----------------------|
| 2008 | <input type="text"/> | <input type="text"/> |
| 2009 | <input type="text"/> | <input type="text"/> |
| 2010 | <input type="text"/> | <input type="text"/> |
| 2011 | <input type="text"/> | <input type="text"/> |

9. How long is the internship/learnership?

- 1 month
- More than 3 and less than 6 months
- More than 6 and less than 9 months
- More than 9 months

Other (please specify)

10. Where do you place learners participating in the learnership/internship programme?

- Front office
- Back office
- Field work

Other (please specify)

11. How long do they stay in one department?

An analysis of skills expectations of learners versus employers: the

12. Please complete the questions below by ticking Yes or No

| | Yes | No |
|--|-----------------------|-----------------------|
| a) Do the learners rotate departments? | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> |
| b) Do you provide mentors for the learners? | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> |
| c) Does the mentor complete an assessment for the learner's progress? | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> |
| d) Did the learners demonstrate sufficient and appropriate theoretical knowledge when they arrived in the programme? | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> |
| e) Were the learners committed to learning more than what was required of them? | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> |
| f) Did the learners complete the training programme? | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> |
| g) Does the Internship/learnership programme equip learners with the skill, knowledge and quality required for your business? If not, please indicate the reasons below. | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> |
| h) Were the learners prepared for the workplace? If not, please indicate the reasons below. | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> |
| Other (please specify) | <input type="text"/> | |

3. SECTION C: SKILL EXPECTATIONS

Please rate the importance of the following skills for any new employees:

13. New employees need to be

A) Self-reliant

| | Not at all important | Slightly Important | Important | Very Important | Extremely important |
|--|-----------------------|-----------------------|-----------------------|-----------------------|-----------------------|
| Self aware, realistic, focused, and purposeful | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> |
| Proactive | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> |
| Willing to learn | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> |
| Able to network, resourceful and an initiator | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> |
| Good at planning and organising and able to prioritise | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> |

An analysis of skills expectations of learners versus employers: the

14. New employees need to have

B) People Skills

| | Not at all important | Slightly Important | Important | Very Important | Extremely important |
|--|-----------------------|-----------------------|-----------------------|-----------------------|-----------------------|
| The ability to work in a team | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> |
| Effective written communication skills | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> |
| Effective verbal communication skills | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> |
| Leadership and management | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> |
| Customer orientation - friendly, caring and diplomatic | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> |
| Ability to speak a foreign language | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> |

15. New employees need to have.....

C) General employment skills

| | Extremely important | Very Important | Important | Slightly Important | Not at all important |
|-----------------------------------|-----------------------|-----------------------|-----------------------|-----------------------|-----------------------|
| The ability to solve problems | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> |
| Flexibility | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> |
| Business acumen - entrepreneurial | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> |
| Numeracy | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> |
| Commitment | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> |
| Professionalism | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> |

16. New employees need to have.....

D) Specialist skills

| | Not at all important | Slightly Important | Important | Very Important | Extremely important |
|-------------------------------|-----------------------|-----------------------|-----------------------|-----------------------|-----------------------|
| Technical and computer skills | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> |
| Tourism knowledge | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> |

4. SECTION D: SKILL FACTORS

Based on your expectation and in your opinion as an employer, which skills did the learners have upon commencement of the internship / learnership?

An analysis of skills expectations of learners versus employers: the

17. Learners were ...

A) Self-reliant

| | Not at all | To a little extent | To a moderate extent | To a great extent | To a very high extent |
|--|-----------------------|-----------------------|-----------------------|-----------------------|-----------------------|
| Self aware, realistic, focused, and purposeful | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> |
| Proactive | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> |
| Willing to learn | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> |
| Able to network, resourceful and an initiator | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> |
| Good at planning and organising and able to prioritise | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> |

18. Learners showed ...

B) People Skills

| | Not at all | To a little extent | To a moderate extent | To a great extent | To a very high extent |
|--|-----------------------|-----------------------|-----------------------|-----------------------|-----------------------|
| The ability to work in a team | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> |
| Effective written communication skills | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> |
| Effective verbal communication skills | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> |
| Leadership and management | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> |
| Customer orientation - friendly, caring and diplomatic | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> |
| Ability to speak a foreign language | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> |

An analysis of skills expectations of learners versus employers: the

19. Learners showed ...

C) General employment skills

| | Not at all | To a little extent | To a moderate extent | To a great extent | To a very high extent |
|-----------------------------------|-----------------------|-----------------------|-----------------------|-----------------------|-----------------------|
| The ability to solve problems | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> |
| Flexibility | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> |
| Business acumen - entrepreneurial | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> |
| Numeracy | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> |
| Commitment | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> |
| Professionalism | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> |

20. Learners showed ...

D) Specialist skills

| | Not at all | To a little extent | To a moderate extent | To a great extent | To a very high extent |
|-----------------------------------|-----------------------|-----------------------|-----------------------|-----------------------|-----------------------|
| 56. Technical and computer skills | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> |
| 57. Tourism knowledge | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> |

5. SECTION E : GENERAL

21. How can the programme be improved?

22. How many learners have you employed through the programmes?

Total