A comparative analysis of the national diploma tourism management to the human resources needs of the tourism industry.

A COMPARITIVE ANALYSIS OF THE NATIONAL DIPLOMA TOURISM MANAGEMENT TO THE HUMAN RESOURCES NEEDS OF THE TOURISM INDUSTRY

by

PHILISIWE LORRAINE MOLEFE

Submitted in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree

MAGISTER TECHNOLOGIAE: TOURISM AND HOSPITALITY MANAGEMENT

in the

Department of Tourism Management

FACULTY OF MANAGEMENT SCIENCES

THSWANE UNIVERSITY OF TECHNOLOGY

Supervisor: Prof S Geldenhuys

Co-Supervisor: Mrs L Sime

October 2014

DECLARATION AND COPYRIGHT

I hereby declare that the dissertation submitted for the degree, Magister Technologiae: Tourism and Hospitality Management, at Tshwane University of Technology is my own, original work and that it has not previously been submitted to any other institution of higher education. I further declare that all the sources cited or quoted have been indicated and acknowledged by means of a comprehensive list of references.

_____

Philisiwe Lorraine Molefe

DEDICATION

This study is dedicated to my husband Oscar and my family for their support.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

"There will be rough nights but joy really does come in the morning" (Tyler Perry). Often when a milestone is reached, when "*the morning"* does come, it is because many people have been placed on your path to fulfil a certain purpose. Most people may think that their contribution has been insignificant through this period of my life, some may even say "it's a drop in the ocean"; what they do not realise is that an ocean is made of drops. I would like to extend my gratitude to the following:

- Firstly, my Heavenly Father, the Lord Almighty, the author and finisher of my life. Daddy, we had many conversations, and through this project I have learned that your promises are true. Thank you for all the lessons.
- Oscar, my wonderful husband, lover, friend, confidant, and the pillar of my strength. Your love, support, patience, care and faith in me were the major motivators for waking up yet for another day. I thank God for making you a part of my life.
- My supervisor, Professor Sue Geldenhuys, and co-supervisor, Mrs Louise Sime: Your guidance, and knowledge imparted to me during the life of this project will forever be appreciated. Great life-lessons have been learned through this project that will be useful beyond this qualification. Thank you.
- My family for all the love and support. I love you.
- To my friends and colleagues (especially Professor Willie Coetzee), thank you for listening and supporting me.
- Jacqui McKnight (ASATA) and Faith Zwane (CATHSSETA) for distributing the questionnaire among the stakeholders.

- Judy Coetzee from the Department of Statistics at the University of Pretoria and Maupi Letsoalo from the Department of Statistical Support at Tshwane University of Technology, thank you for the work done on my statistics.
- Everyone else who contributed and I did not mention, I truly appreciate your assistance and support. May God bless you.

"*For I know the plans I have for you, declares the Lord*..." (Jeremiah, 29:11).

ABSTRACT

The tourism industry has received a great deal of attention where economic development issues are discussed. South Africa is not an exception to this trend. The country places a high premium on tourism in terms of economic growth. As the attention paid to the tourism industry has increased, attempts to resource the tourism industry through tourism education have also increased. In spite of the increased provision of tourism education, it still faces criticism for its limited ability to meet the needs of the tourism industry. Tourism employers complain about skills mismatch resulting in the inability of tourism students to perform tourism jobs once they have qualified from a tourism programme.

A host of studies have investigated the content and the relevance of tourism education. However, these studies are concentrated on first world countries, particularly the United Kingdom and Australia. Very little is yet known about the South African curriculum content for tourism higher education.

The primary aim of this research is to determine whether students with a National Diploma: Tourism Management meet the Human Resource requirements of tourism employers using the Tshwane University of Technology (TUT) in Gauteng as a case study. TUT is a public higher education institution located in Gauteng, South Africa.

The population was all tourism employers in South Africa. A non-random convenience sampling method was used.

The study made use of a quantitative research design and a standardised, computerised self-administered questionnaire (CSAQ) hosted online by SurveyMonkey to gather data. The quantitative data gathered were converted into an Excel spreadsheet and analysed using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) and Statistical Analysis System (SAS). Descriptive statistics were presented, and a factor analysis, Chronbach's Alpha; cluster analyses and Kruskal-Wallis tests were applied to determine the results of the study.

In general, the respondents perceived the skills identified by the study as important for employment in the tourism industry. Based on the results of the questionnaire and the content analysis of the National Diploma: Tourism Management offered at the Tshwane University of Technology (TUT), it can be concluded that the programme meets the human resources requirements of the tourism employers in South Africa.

The contribution of the study is the identification of skills that are regarded as important for employment in the tourism industry. This result will be useful in determining curriculum content when enriching the existing tourism curriculum.

TABLE OF CONTENT

LIST OF FIGURES

LIST OF TABLES

CHAPTER 1

PROBLEM STATEMENT AND RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

1.1 INTRODUCTION

According to the South African National Department of Tourism (NDT) (2009:3), tourism in South Africa (SA) has been identified as a priority sector that will be able to promote accelerated and shared economic growth and labour absorption. Strategies and initiatives for economic growth that prioritise tourism to achieve this vision, include: the Accelerated and Shared Growth Initiative for South Africa (ASGI-SA) (2006:3), the Joint Initiative on Priority Skills Acquisition (JIPSA), the New Growth Path Framework (Department of Economic Development, 2009:3), the National Tourism Sector Strategy (NDT, 2011:1), and the national government's Medium-Term Strategic Framework (MTSF) (NDT, 2011:1).

Tourism scholars (Weaver & Lawton, 2010:5; Haven–Tang & Jones, 2008:356; Raj, 2008:40; Baum, 2007:1384 and George, 2007:11) declare that tourism is labour-intensive. Accurately so, the NDT (NDT, 2009:9) is also of the view that tourism in South Africa is a major growth sector that is also labour-intensive coupled with significant infrastructural capacity for further growth. The NDT (2011:1) indicates figures that approximately 599 412 people are directly employed by the tourism industry, and that international arrivals have increased

from 3 million in 1993 to over 9,9 million in 2009, with growth of 5.6% in arrivals from the African continent alone in 2009.

Evidently, reliance on a service industry requires enormous human capital investments. Kusluvan, Kusluvan, Ilhan and Buyruk *(*2010:171) and Ladkin, (2005:438) assert that the success of the tourism industry in any destination is to a large measure dependant on the quality of staff which can be achieved through tourism education. Based on a statement put forward by Mr Marthinus van Schalkwyk, the outgoing minister of tourism, “the availability of appropriately trained staff is one of the challenges in fully realising South Africa’s tourism vision for the future” and the Department of Environmental Affairs (DEAT) now known as NDT is not oblivious to this fact (DEAT, 2008:1).

Mayaka (2005:167) points out those countries which attach importance to tourism, offer tourism education at colleges, universities and in schools, especially in secondary schools. This is also a view which is advocated by Saayman (2005: 265) who maintains that tourism can be developed through education. South Africa is a good example of this approach, as tourism was introduced as a school subject from grade 8 to grade 12 in 2000 (Saayman, 2005:264).

In South Africa, tourism education is currently presented at universities, universities of technology (previously known as Technikons), technical colleges, and a vast number of private institutions (Saayman, 2005:258). Sadly, the Tourism, Hospitality & Sport Education and Training Authority (THETA) now known as Culture, Arts, Tourism, Hospitality, and Sport Sector Education and

Training Authority (CATHSSETA) (2009:33) reports that complaints from industry abound that available qualifications have relevant titles but the content is not what the industry requires in a particular occupation. THETA (2009:33) also reports that many of the qualifications that learners and students receive do not equip students with all the skills that industry requires.

Based on the above, it can be concluded that there is no shortage of providers for tourism education and skills; however, there seems to be concerns regarding the quality of tourism education provision. There is therefore a legitimate need to examine the responsiveness and appropriateness of tourism education and the human resources pool produced through tourism programmes for the tourism industry to identify and address the perceived gaps.

This first chapter describes the background and the general research question. The objectives of the study, research methodology, definition of important terms, and the outline for the chapters of this dissertation are also provided.

1.2 BACKGROUND AND MOTIVATION

South Africa places high value on tourism in order to alleviate the chronic lack of employment opportunities (Department of Economic Development, 2009:4) that prevail in the country. For the South African tourism sector to be able achieve this, the sector needs to maintain an upward trajectory in tourism arrivals. Essentially, growth in arrivals cannot be separated from competitiveness of the sector that is highly dependent on human resources. Equally, the quality of available human

resources is concomitant to available education. Currently, there seems to be a discord between what educational institutions are providing to tourism students and what employers need students to be able to do when they enter employment.

To assess the issues, the following question requires answering: What are the Human Resources requirements of tourism industry employers and do under-graduate students with tourism qualifications meet their needs? While the question is valid, it is too broad to be tackled as a research question, hence the delimitation that follows: What are the Human Resources requirements of tourism industry employers and do under-graduate students with a National Diploma: Tourism Management from Tshwane University of Technology (TUT) meet their needs?

The reason for undertaking this study was to use TUT as a case study to identify the skills needs of tourism employers in South Africa with an associated aim of identifying gaps in the current qualification to better meet the needs of the tourism employers.

1.3 GENERAL RESEARCH QUESTION

The following is the main question for this study:

What are the Human Resources requirements of tourism industry employers and do under-graduate students with a National Diploma: Tourism Management from TUT meet their needs?

1.3.1 Specific Research Questions

The following sub-questions are derived from the main question:

- What are the jobs in which tourism graduates with a National Diploma: Tourism Management are employed?
- What are the skills and knowledge required to effectively perform these jobs?
- What is the curriculum content of the National Diploma: Tourism Management offered by TUT?
- What are the gaps between the industry skills requirements and the National Diploma: Tourism Management that is offered by TUT?

The following section discusses the primary and secondary objectives of the study.

1.4 PRIMARY AND SECONDARY OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

The following paragraphs state the primary and secondary objectives of the study by delineating the areas that this study will be addressing.

1.4.1 Primary Objective

The primary objective of the study is to determine whether students with a National Diploma: Tourism Management from TUT meet the Human Resources requirements of tourism employers in South Africa.

1.4.2 Secondary Objectives

The secondary objectives are as follows:

- to conduct a literature review on the international and South African tourism higher education landscape.
- to identify the jobs that students with a National Diploma: Tourism Management are employed in;
- to identify the skills and knowledge that are required to effectively perform these jobs;
- to analyse the curriculum content of the current National Diploma: Tourism Management offered at TUT; and
- to identify the gaps between the curriculum content of TUT's National Diploma: Tourism Management and the skills and knowledge requirements by the tourism industry employers.

The following section discusses the research methodology for this study.

1.5 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

The information requirements of this study (based on the study objectives) were a major determinant of the methodology upon which the study operated as suggested by Jennings (2010:24). The design of this study is empirical, uses primary data in the form of a survey and the purpose is to describe what is observed.

The chosen research design will accomplish the objectives of the study in the following manner: Firstly, by being empirical, the study addresses a real life problem. Secondly, the primary data collected by the researcher presents an opportunity for new knowledge, and, thirdly, by being descriptive, the design provides extensive data to develop a profile of the respondents and their skills requirements.

This study comprises two main parts; namely a literature review and an empirical study.

1.5.1 Literature Review

The literature study was conducted in order to understand the core issues relating to the study such as internal and external impacts on the provision of tourism higher education both internationally and in South Africa. Additionally the literature study provided in-depth information relating to skills and knowledge that are required to effectively perform tourism jobs. Furthermore, an analysis of challenges that are associated with tourism employment is presented. The following resources were utilised during the literature review process:

- books related to tourism management, in particular, publications by Baum, Ladkin, Airey and Riley were extensively used in this study;
- articles in academic journals including Journal of Hospitality, Leisure, Sports and Tourism Education, Journal of Curriculum Studies, Journal of Travel Research, Journal of Teaching in Travel and Tourism, Journal of Further and Higher Education and Annals of Tourism Research;

- information searches were conducted on library catalogues and databases including Ebscohost, Science Direct and Sabinet;
- South African Government publications relating to education and tourism were extensively used for this study; and
- public media was also scrutinised with relevance to developments in tourism, skills and education. These sources included websites of the National Department of Education, the National Department of Tourism and the CATHSSETA.

1.5.2 Survey

This research is of quantitative nature and an online self-administered/self-completion questionnaire was used for the purpose of collecting data.

1.5.2.1 Population sampling

Sarantakos, as quoted in Jennings (2010:137), describes a sample as a selection of subjects or units in the population. For this study, the population is all tourism employers in South Africa. Sarantakos quoted in Jennings (2010:137) further asserts that sampling is the means by which subjects or study units from the target population are included in the research project. According to Flick (2011:50), sampling entails the process of defining groups, cases or fields that must be integrated into a study. For this study, a non-random convenience sampling method was used. The method of drawing the sample units and reasons that led to the drawing of the sample units (individual subjects) are discussed below.

Firstly, the department of Tourism Management at TUT sends students for Work Integrated Learning (WIL) in their third year of study. The department keeps records of employers who provide WIL (hereinafter referred to as TUT WIL employers) opportunities to all its' students. The TUT WIL employers are travel agencies, tour operators, hospitality, car/coach rentals, museums/heritage sites, information centres and government. The WIL employers produced a sampling frame of 64. It was important to separate the TUT sampling frame from the rest to determine the response rate of employers who have employed TUT students previously.

Secondly, in order to increase the sampling frame for the study, a database of tourism employers was created. The sources for the creation of the database were the GSA Travel Magazine, Tourism Directory of Tourism Services. This list generated a total of 998 tourism businesses with contacts.

Thirdly, associations and organisations such as the Culture, Arts, Tourism, Hospitality, and Sport Sector Education and Training Authority (CATHSSETA), the Association of Southern African Travel Agents (ASATA), South African Association for Conference Industry (SAACI), and Tourism Business Enterprise were approached for assistance to distribute the questionnaire to their current stakeholders who have access to e-mail facilities.

Only CATHSSETA and ASATA agreed to distribute the questionnaire to their members. A total of 291 (N=291) responses were received. Only 289 (N = 289)

questionnaires were usable. The following section discusses data collection, commencing with a discussion on piloting (pre-testing) of the measurement tool.

1.5.2.2 Data Collection

The data collection method used for this study was a standardised, computerised self-administered questionnaire (CSAQ). The questionnaire (Annexure A) was designed and hosted online by SurveyMonkey (www.surveymonkey.com). Babbie and Mouton (2006:244) suggest that piloting a questionnaire prior to commencement of data collection avoids errors such as ambiguity. Leedy and Ormrod (2013:92), concur by stating that piloting a measurement tool enhances its reliability.

The questionnaire piloting phase was divided into two phases. Phase one was conducted by four subject experts from the Department of Tourism Management at TUT who examined the questionnaire individually and provided comments and suggestions. The suggestions were incorporated into the questionnaire. This is an example of content validity testing.

The second phase of questionnaire piloting to satisfy the requirement of reliability was conducted on fourteen (14) tourism employers in the Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality, Gauteng. Questionnaires were sent to two employers within each tourism sector represented in the study. The Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality was chosen because of its proximity to the researcher, should a face-to-face discussion regarding any shortcomings of the questionnaire become necessary.

The covering letter stated that the questionnaire was for a pilot study which sought information regarding:

- the time taken to complete the questionnaire,
- clarity of terms and questions used, and
- issues regarding the choices that were provided for the ranking scale (Likert scale).

The pilot study responses indicated that respondents:

- understood the questions,
- took 12 to 15 minutes to complete the survey online,
- were not opposed to the 4 point Likert Scale which does not provide a middle ground, and
- were looking forward to the results of the study.

Respondents indicated that there was no clarity in terms of Microsoft Packages (MS) (Section C, Question 11). The feedback was taken into consideration, and Microsoft Packages were specified in brackets in the questionnaire (MS Word, Excel, Power Point and MS Project). After reviewing and incorporating comments based on the pilot study, the questionnaire was considered valid and reliable for its purpose and suitable for collection of data.

Invitation e-mails were sent out to tourism employers, ASATA and CATHSSETA accompanied by a web link to the survey.

The first e–mail was sent on 3rd December 2012. A week thereafter, reminders were sent to all contacts whose e-mails were not returned (bounced) on the first round. Reminders were also sent to key personnel at ASATA and CATHSSETA to send reminder e-mails just before everybody went on holiday. The researcher was cognisant of the fact that most people were preparing for the holiday season, therefore, further reminders were placed on hold until January 2013.

During the first week of January 2013, reminders were sent again. On 19 January 2013 the response rate was still very low, with a total of 58 surveys appearing on SurveyMonkey but the majority had only been started and not completed. Only 21 responses had been completed. To expedite the process, a printable version of the questionnaire was created. The questionnaire was adapted to conduct a manual self-completion (self–administered) survey using the existing database described in 1.5.2.1. The questionnaires were hand-delivered by an independent field worker, who collected them on an agreed time and date with the respondent. The problem, however, was that there was no way of telling who had already completed the on-line survey. The risk was to infuriate respondents who had already completed the questionnaire by asking them to complete the questionnaire again. For each manual self-completion survey, respondents were asked whether they have already completed an online version of the questionnaire. If they had already participated, they were not expected to complete the questionnaire again. The field worker started distributing questionnaires from the 1st of February 2013 to the 20th of March 2013. The web-based questionnaire remained active during the manual data collection period for the benefit of stakeholders from CATHSSETA and ASATA.

A precautionary measure to avoid questionnaire fraud was introduced by requesting that each manual questionnaire must be signed and for the telephone number of the organisation to be indicated on the questionnaire. Some respondents only provided telephone numbers on the questionnaire or a business stamp citing compromised confidentiality as a reason for not signing the questionnaire. Data from the manual questionnaires was manually fed into SurveyMonkey and combined with online responses. The measurement tool is discussed in the following section**.**

1.5.2.3 Measurement tool

The self-administered questionnaire used to collect data for this study consisted of three sections (Section A, B and C) and comprised 18 items. Section A comprised only one question dealing with the respondents consent to participate in the study. Section B (questions 2 to 5) sought general information of the respondents such as the tourism sector represented, the size of the organisation, the level of education, the position held by the respondent in the organisation and whether the respondent had employed a TUT student in the past.

Questions in Section C of the questionnaire (questions 6 to 18) were intended to measure the perception of the level of importance the tourism employers (respondents) attribute to each skill identified on the questionnaire for employment in the tourism industry.

In order to avoid against middle ground response to questions, as cautioned by Cooper and Schindler (2003:235-236) and Leedy and Ormrod (2013:193), a four point Likert scale was used. Cooper and Schindler (2003:236) posit that a four point Likert scale may help to eliminate respondent errors such as leniency, central tendency and a systematic bias that the respondent introduces by carrying over a generalised impression of the subject from one response to another. The four point Likert scale rating the importance of skills on the questionnaire was: 1 = Not Important, 2 = Important, 3 = Very Important and 4 = Extremely Important.

The opening statement of the questionnaire introduced the purpose of the questionnaire, assured the respondent of confidentiality and requested the respondent's consent for participation. If the respondent did not consent, SurveyMonkey ended the answering process and thanked the respondent for participating. Where the respondent consented, SurveyMonkey directed the respondent through all questions. At the end of the questionnaire, SurveyMonkey generated a thank you message. Likewise, the manual version of the questionnaire included the confidentiality clause. Respondents did not receive incentives for participating in the study. The following section discusses data analysis for this study.

1.5.2.4 Data Analysis

Once the questionnaires were returned by the independent field worker, they were checked to ascertain whether they had been completed in full. Questionnaires with incomplete data were discarded. This process is discussed in 1.5.2.2 (data

collection). Data was captured in SurveyMonkey and converted to a Microsoft Excel file.

Once all data was captured, cleaned and coded, it was analysed by means of the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) software programme and Statistical Analysis System (SAS). The data was interpreted by means of the following methods:

- descriptive statistics in order to obtain an overview of respondents and skills that are perceived as important by tourism employers;
- factor analysis was used to analyse the structure of the correlations between a large number of variables, by defining a set of common underlying dimensions known as factors, thus reducing the data set to identify underlying relationships between measured variables and identify latent constructs (factors);
- Cronbach Alpha was conducted on the extracted factors to measure internal consistency or reliability on the constructs (factors) obtained in the factor analyses;
- cluster analysis was conducted to group observations based on the factors obtained in the factor analyses, in order to establish whether there are different groups within the tourism industry who have different opinions regarding the importance of the following obtained constructs, namely: cultural awareness skills, cognitive abilities, information literacy and communication skills, tourism knowledge skills, research skills, hospitality operations skills, tour operating and guiding skills (see factor analyses 4.4 for an explanation on how these constructs were obtained); and

- the Kruskal–Wallis test was conducted to test for differences between the observed populations/groups obtained from the cluster analysis.

1.5.2.5 Validity and Reliability

Two phases of questionnaire piloting were conducted to test both the validity and reliability of the data collection tool. Section 1.5.2.2 provides details of the pilot study. Additionally, the Cronbach's Alpha was calculated for the extracted factors to measure internal consistency and reliability on the constructs (factors) obtained in the factor analyses. According to Tavakol and Dennick (2011:53), the Cronbach Alpha is a measure of the internal consistency or reliability of a set of items. This is a measure based on the correlations between different items on the same scale. As a rule of thumb, an Alpha of between 0.6 and 0.7 is regarded as acceptable reliability and 0.8 or higher indicate good reliability. The item analysis of the Cronbach Alpha recalculates the Cronbach Alpha by deleting one variable at a time from the construct in order to see the effect (positive or negative) on the Cronbach Alpha. If a variable is deleted from the analysis and the Cronbach Alpha increases significantly, it suggests that that the specific variable does not correlate well with the rest of the variables in the construct and it is usually an indication that the variable should be excluded from the construct.

1.6 DEFINITION OF IMPORTANT TERMS

This section provides definitions of important terms as understood in this study:

- **Human Resources:** The Human Resource Glossary (Tracey: s.a) defines Human Resources as: “The people that staff and operate an organization”.
- **Programme:** A purposeful and structured set of learning experiences that leads to a qualification. Programmes may be discipline based, professional, career–focused, trans-, inter-, or multi-disciplinary in nature (SAQA, 2013:44).
- **Higher Education:** The Higher Education Act (101 of 1997) defines higher education as consisting of all learning programmes leading to qualifications higher than Grade 12 or its equivalent in terms of the National Qualifications Framework. Grade 12 is the highest grade in which education is provided by a school. The Senior Certificate (taken at the end of Grade 12) is assigned to level four on the National Qualifications Framework. Levels five to ten on the NQF are defined as higher education (Simkins, s.a:1).
- **Skill:** The 1997 South African Green Paper, Skills Development Strategy for Economic and Employment Growth in South Africa, defines skill as the necessary competencies that can be expertly applied in a particular context for a defined purpose (Department of Labour, 2003:1).
- **Work Integrated Learning**: means a structured form of experiential learning in a learning programme that focuses on the application of theory in an authentic (work-based learning) or non-work based workplace context. It addresses the specific competences identified for the acquisition of a qualification, and are therefore linked to the acquisition of credits, and supports the development of a range of skills that will render the qualifying student employable.

1.7 OUTLINE OF CHAPTERS

The chapters of the study provide the following details:

Chapter 1: Problem Statement and Research Methodology

Chapter 1 introduces the study by means of a background and motivation for the study. The general and specific research questions, the goal and objectives of the study, and research methodology that will be employed to execute this study follow.

Chapter 2: Tourism Higher Education Provision

The aim of chapter 2 is to provide a literature analysis of internal and external impacts on the provision of tourism higher education, both internationally and in South Africa. This chapter includes aspects relating to higher education in South Africa. The chapter ends with a discussion of Tshwane University of Technology (TUT) as a University of Technology (UoT).

Chapter 3: Skills Analysis for the Tourism Industry

The aim of chapter 3 is to identify the jobs that students with a National Diploma: Tourism Management are employed in and the skills and knowledge that are required to effectively perform these jobs. The chapter further provides an analysis of challenges that are associated with tourism employment. The chapter ends with

an analysis of the curriculum content of the current National Diploma: Tourism Management offered at TUT.

Chapter 4: Empirical Research Methodology and Results

Chapter 4 presents the results obtained by the research. The chapter will address the respondent profile, followed by a detailed discussion of the skills required to work in the tourism industry. The chapter will conclude with a discussion of a Factor and Cluster Analysis as well as a Kruskal Wallis test.

Chapter 5: Conclusions and Recommendations

This chapter presents conclusions and recommendations of the study in terms of bridging the identified skills gaps, as well as the contribution of the study to tourism higher education, and identifying further avenues for research. The chapter ends by outlining the limitations of the study.

1.8 CONCLUSION

This first chapter provided an overview of this research. The following two chapters provide an in-depth literature review. Chapter 2 reviews literature regarding international and South African perspectives on the state of tourism higher education provision, starting with external impacts on the provision of tourism higher education internationally.

CHAPTER 2

TOURISM HIGHER EDUCATION PROVISION

2.1 INTRODUCTION

According to Goeldner and Ritchie (2009:4) tourism as an economic activity continues to grow. The World Travel and Tourism Council (WTTC), reports that the direct contribution of Travel and Tourism to the world economy grew by 3.1% in 2013 for the third consecutive year, creating a total of 101 million jobs (WTTC, 2014:1). Likewise, in South Africa continuous growth has been recorded for international arrivals from 3 million visitors in 1993 to 13 million international visitors in 2012 (National Department of Tourism, 2014:1).

Zagonari (2009:2) asserts that the identification of tourism as a global tool for economic development has resulted in plethora of tourism education and training programmes at various levels. According to Major and Evans (2008:410), tourism courses on offer range from highly vocational to higher research degrees. All the programmes on offer aim to resource the tourism industry with manpower to meet the needs of employers. Sadly, People First quoted by Major and Evans (2008:410) reports that employers do not see the tourism education's relevance to careers.

Tourism education can be traced back to just over 40 years of existence as a field of study (Ayikoru, Tribe & Airey, 2009:191) which makes it relatively young when compared to most disciplines. The young age of tourism education as a field of study is evident in the nature of deliberations concerning Tourism Higher Education which have produced numerous guidelines on the core curriculum, the knowledge base for tourism (Airey, 2005:20; Fidgeon; 2010:699; Weaver & Lawton, 2010:6), and whether tourism can be seen as a discipline or a field of study (Zaganori, 2009:3).

The aim of this chapter is to address the secondary objective of the study, namely:

- to conduct a literature review on the international and South African tourism higher education landscape.

The chapter explores the underlying influences that have shaped the provision and design of Tourism Higher Education as it grows. This will be achieved by categorising information into international and South African discussions. The first section will focus on international issues with the latter portion focusing on South Africa. Secondly, the focus shifts to the provision of Tourism Management qualifications at Universities of Technology in light of the Higher Education Qualifications Sub-Framework (HEQSF), specifically at the Tshwane University of Technology (TUT), South Africa.

2.2 AN INTERNATIONAL PERSPECTIVE ON TOURISM HIGHER EDUCATION

This section will discuss external and internal influences that have impacted the provision of Tourism Higher Education.

2.2.1 External influences on Tourism Higher Education

As a growing sector of economic activity, tourism has been linked to good employment opportunities (NDT, 2009:2). This has prompted educational institutions to offer courses that will groom students for employment in the tourism industry (Airey, 2005:14-15; Fidgeon, 2010:699). The following section focuses on the impact of such growth on the provision of Tourism Higher Education.

2.2.1.1 The growth of tourism education

The magnitude of the tourism industry growth has necessitated expansion of organisations involved in meeting the needs of tourists and the professionalisation of tourism suppliers. Authors and researchers such as Airey (2005:14), Hudson (2005:224), Inui, Wheeler and Lankford (2006:26), and Wang, Ayres and Huyton (2009:62) identify the rapid growth and professionalisation of the tourism industry as major drivers that prompted educational institutions to respond to the opportunities created by tourism employers by providing education for the sector.

Fidgeon (2010:699) is of the opinion that the emergence during the 1960s of tourism as a clear area of study up to diploma and research degree level, with an associated community of scholars, resulted in the phenomenal rate of growth in

tourism courses. Evidence of considerable growth of tourism education during the past three decades is well documented (Airey, 2005:13; Horng, Teng & Baum, 2009:1473).

Additionally, Baum and Szivas (2008:783) attribute the growth of tourism education to the support afforded to the tourism sector by governments. Baum and Szivas (2008:783) further assert that government support for tourism can be associated with its ability to create employment opportunities and contribute to the overall economic and social development of a nation.

The following section will focus on the impact of tourism industry fragmentation on Tourism Higher Education.

2.2.1.2 Industry fragmentation

Mayaka and Akama (2007:300) assert that tourism as an industry is fragmented and multi-faceted, presenting a challenge in identifying what exactly comprises tourism. Cooper, Fletcher, Fayal, Gilbert and Wanhil (2005:56) associate the fragmentation with the various industry sectors that have to be catered for. Additionally, Cooper et al. (2005:56) demonstrate further fragmentation by analysing tourist motivation for travel by exposing the fragmentation evident in tourist activities. To illustrate this point, Goeldner and Ritchie (2009:11) draw a distinction between domestic and international tourists, and further classifies tourists by the purpose of visit, including leisure, business, event and visiting friends and relatives. The classification bears testimony to the diversity of tourist

activities that result in fragmentation of the sector. Busby (2001:35) posits that the fragmentation results in too many sectors and stakeholders that cannot be controlled by a few professional bodies to regulate and control employment as is the case in most occupations.

According to Churchward and Riley (2002:84) the conspicuous diversity of the tourism industry drives learning content beyond very specific training and presents challenges for the identification of learning content necessary within higher level courses. Consequently, it is difficult for the industry to specifically identify what it wants from education because of the varying sectoral requirements (Busby, 2001:35).

The following section discusses internal influences on the provision of Tourism Higher Education.

2.2.2 Internal influences on Tourism Higher Education

To further gain perspective on the content of current tourism undergraduate qualifications, the following section discusses the internal influences impacting the provision of Tourism Higher Education, namely: the growth of tourism education, industry fragmentation and Work Integrated Learning (WIL).

2.2.2.1 Evolution of Tourism Higher Education

Tourism education initially started out as training courses for staff in specific sectors, which subsequently led to the establishment of technical and vocational

schools (Ernatawi as quoted by Ring, Dickinger and Wőber (2009:107)). According to Inui, Wheeler and Lankford (2006:26) the need to respond to the needs of industry resulted in a curriculum that is essentially vocational. Furthermore, Lee, Lee and Kim (2009:62) assert that most tourism programmes centre on giving students an understanding of operational issues and a set of wider subjects which affect the industry with curricula that can be best described as clusters of attributes that fulfil the needs of major stakeholders.

Fidgeon (2010:699) observes that responding to the growing needs of the industry resulted in disparate development of the field of study. Most countries developed tourism education in an unplanned manner. On the other hand, Cooper quoted by Saayman (2005:259), advises that the three distinct ways in which it developed includes:

- a purely vocational view of tourism and training where the student is groomed directly for a post in the tourism industry;
- enrichment of a qualification, where tourism is used to enrich and exemplify traditional subject areas or disciplines; and
- a range of courses that view tourism as an activity worthy of study in its own right.

Airey (2005:16) is of the opinion that, the continuing growth of tourism as a world activity resulted in the broadening of the tourism curriculum from an essentially vocational curriculum around 1990. The following section outlines the dominant deliberations that have shaped the content of Tourism Higher Education.

2.2.2.2 Tourism Higher Education debates

Internationally there have been ongoing efforts to elevate the profile of Tourism Higher Education. Such interventions are evident in studies, debates and engagements with industry. To understand the current structure of the majority of tourism programmes, the following section analyses debates that have had a major impact on the content of tourism programmes.

- **Industry participation in curriculum design**

Baum and Szivas (2008:783) propose that people who work in the tourism industry are a vital resource for the successful delivery of tourism services due to the service nature of the industry. In agreement, Cooper, Shepherd and Westlake, (1997:13) see the future of the tourism industry as dependent on the human factor.

Against this background, it is clear that the demand for human resources in the tourism sector will continue to be very intense, as tourism is an exceptionally competitive industry relying heavily on professionalism and level of skill and innovation as key determinants for a destination's success (Baum & Szivas, 2008:783). Furthermore, Baum and Szivas (2008:783) advise that only competent and motivated employees can deliver high-quality service and achieve competitive advantage for their firms and tourist destinations. Reiterating the importance of human resources for tourism Cooper et al. (1997:101) agree that competence can be achieved through quality education and training. Nevertheless, Smith and Cooper (2008:90) caution that achieving quality education and training today for

tomorrow's workforce is a challenge facing tourism and hospitality education institutions providing career training for the tourism industry. Cooper et al. (1997:101) further maintain that institutions must provide education that will ensure that the tourism industry is in a position to attract tourists and meet their demands in a professional and complete manner. Advancing the debate on human resource requirements for the industry, Airey (2005:15) emphasises the importance of identifying industry needs and the involvement of industry in academic curriculum design. Airey's view (2005:15) supports Koh's (1995:68) proposal of a comprehensive marketing approach to designing undergraduate tourism programmes that are responsive to the needs of the industry.

While meeting the current demands of the industry is the main aim of undergraduate qualifications as purported by literature, consideration needs to be accorded to the future demands of the industry. Ring, Dickinger and Wőber (2009:107*)* caution educational planners against education that produces graduates who just function in the current environment within an industry that is characterised by constant change. For this reason, the following section investigates the relationship between education and training.

- **Education versus Training**

According to Ayikoru, Tribe and Airey (2009:191) training, as opposed to education, has traditionally dominated the tourism industry by the provision of vocationally oriented programmes. The main purpose of tourism programmes is

reported to have been the provision of skills that are necessary to function in the tourism industry (Ayikoru et al., 2009:191).

Conflicting views regarding training and education exist. There is a belief by some academics that training is inferior to education while some industry practitioners believe that training is more important than education. Such beliefs perpetuate hostility and lack of mutual respect between those that advocate education as opposed to training (Cooper et al., 1997:193). Understanding the difference between training and education and how the two complement each other is vital for the benefit of the tourism industry which is constantly changing.

Essenhigh (2000:46) eloquently demonstrates the relationship between training and education by asserting that the difference is the *"know how*" and the "*know why*". Essenhigh (2000:46) further elaborates his argument by using the example of a pilot as opposed to an aeronautical engineer. The pilot is described as being *trained* as a pilot to fly a plane, while an aeronautical engineer is *educated* in knowing why the plane flies, which enables him or her to improve the design of the plane to fly better.

Furthermore, Essenhigh (2000:46) argues that the pilot or the "know how" person is not less important than the "know why" person because he is able to take passengers to their desired destination, though it may be more advantageous for the passengers if the pilot also knew the "why" in case of an emergency. From this excerpt, it is clear that education expands one's awareness of human environment and how to cope with this environment. Additionally, education provides tools for

interpretation, evaluation and analysis of new knowledge, while training is a technical model directed toward specific behavioral changes, the “acting” part, which needs to supplement theory (Cooper *et al.* 997:193). Zagonari (2009:2) and Ring *et al*. (2009:108) advocate the balancing of training and education based on its ability to produce well-rounded graduates, flexible enough to cope with changing demands and needs of the industry as required by the tourism industry.

As a natural progression from the discussion on education and training the following section details the various types of knowledge within the tourism fraternity and how this can be further developed for the growth of the education sector of tourism.

Knowledge for tourism

Airey (2005:13) maintains that the dramatic growth of tourism has created an extensive knowledge for tourism, however, there is no certainty whether this truly represents “Tourism Knowledge” as a distinct and coherent body of theory. In addition, Airey (2008:21) categorises knowledge into three different types, namely:

- “*extradisciplinary”* knowledge that comes from outside the academic domain, which includes industry, governments, think tanks, interest groups, research institutes and consultancies;
- “*multidisciplinary”* knowledge which comes from a range of disciplines, where a rich source of knowledge from many different disciplines as academics skilled in the contributing disciplines have brought their knowledge and methodologies to tourism; and

- "*interdisciplinary*" knowledge which comes from the genuine new knowledge where scholars draw upon more than one discipline to explain a tourism problem. Weaver and Lawton (2010:7) add that this stage entails the combination and synthesis of perspectives of various disciplines into new tourism perspective.

Figure 2.1 demonstrates the evolution of tourism knowledge from the past multidisciplinary stage to the current interdisciplinary stage as explained by Weaver and Lawton (2010:7).

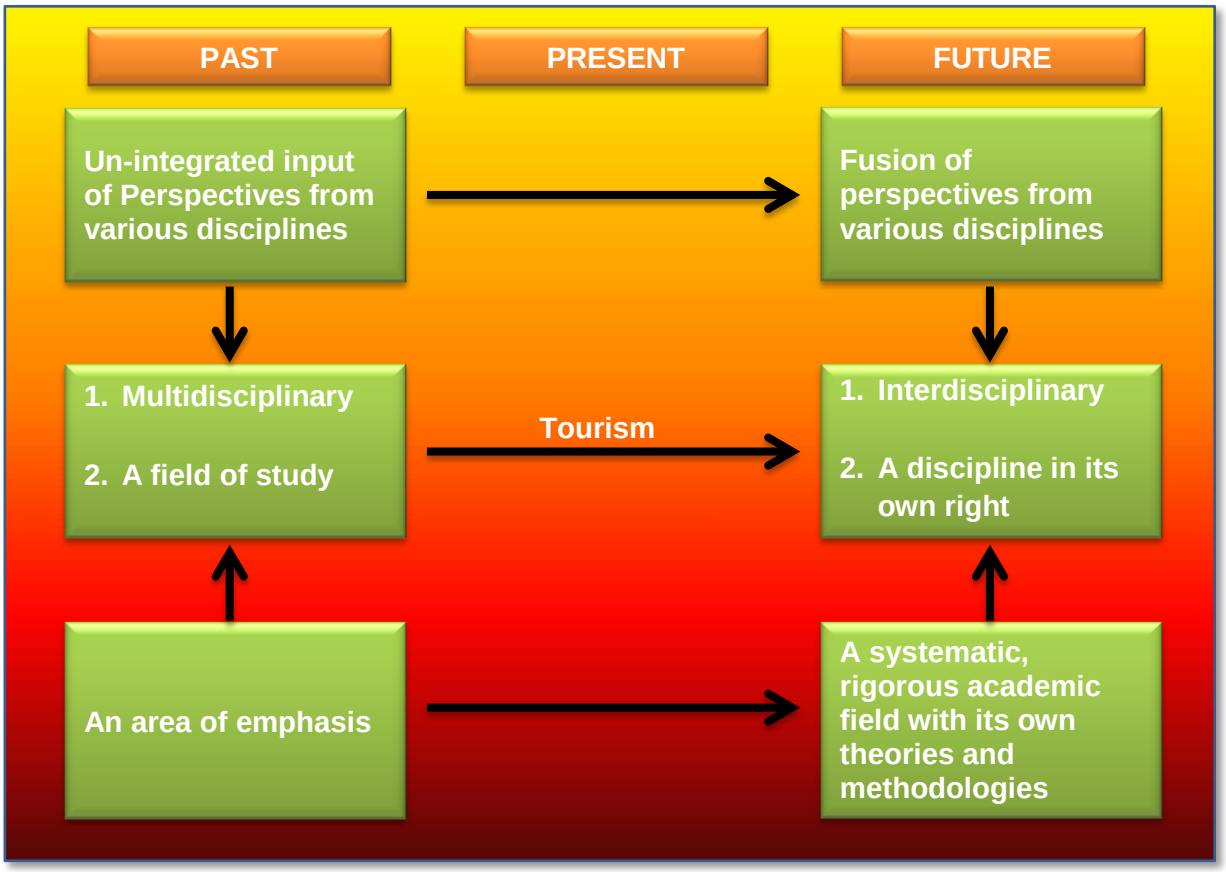

FIGURE 2.1: Evolution of tourism knowledge

***Source**: Weaver & Lawton (2010:7)*

Figure 2.1 indicates that over the years tourism education has evolved from extradisciplinary knowledge that comes from un-integrated input of perspectives from various disciplines. Airey (2008:2) and Weaver and Lawton (2010:7) affirm that, today, tourism education has its body of literature, community of scholars, curriculum coverage with the same concerns and questions as more established fields indicating a move toward maturity. The move toward the interdisciplinary stage is evident in Figure 2.1, where a fusion of perspectives from various disciplines is synthesized into a distinctive and new tourism perspective. The move suggests that tourism educations' future is characterised by a distinct discipline with rigour, indigenous theories, systems and methodologies specific to tourism. The following section discusses the core body of knowledge for tourism.

- **The Core Curriculum debate**

According to Airey (2005:20) the growth and development of tourism education in the early 1990s raised concerns and unease that there was no real agreement about the content of the tourism curriculum. Ring et al. (2009:106) concede that a plethora of undergraduate programs continue to be available in tourism globally, though different in content, aims and scope. The prevalence of great diversity in curriculum design, paralleled by the uncertainty of what should be included or excluded in a tourism curriculum, increased doubts concerning the make-up of vocationally oriented tourism degrees. Consequently, Ring et al. (2009:106) reveal that the rigour of such programmes became questionable with tourism industry employers not knowing what to expect from a tourism graduate. Such discourse

resulted in calls for standardization of the tourism curriculum and a disciplined planning process of the tourism curriculum (Holloway, 1995:1; Koh, 1995:68).

The concerns outlined above have had a major influence on a dominant discourse of tourism known as the "'core curriculum" debate during the early 1990s (Tribe, 1997:638). According to Airey and Johnson (as quoted by Evans (2001:23)), the core curriculum has been debated since tourism has been studied. Several organisations, including the National Liaison Group for Higher Education in Tourism (NLG), the Association for Tourism, and Leisure Education (ATLAS) and the WTO worked at different stages during 1990s on the idea of the NLG's core body of knowledge and setting out a range of tourism competencies (Airey, 2005:21).

These debates culminated in an NLG national conference held in December 1994 to solicit views on the areas of knowledge for tourism (Holloway, 1995:1). The conference involved academics and members of the tourism industry and they agreed on seven areas of knowledge for tourism, as described below:

- the meaning and nature of tourism - definitions, social and other conditions and determinants of tourism, and tourism motivations;
- the structure of the industry - description and interrelationship of the main component sectors and their operating characteristics;
- the dimensions of tourism and issues of measurement - scope, geographical knowledge and perspectives, patterns and determinants of demand, natural and other resources for tourism. Sources of data and management of information;

- the significance and impact of tourism - economics of tourism, costs and benefits. Assessing economic, social and environmental impacts;
- the marketing of tourism - general marketing theory and its particular application to tourism, consumer behaviour;
- tourism planning and management - destination and site planning. Financial implications. Partnership issues and sustainable tourism, and
- policy and management in tourism - public sector policy. Organisations in tourism and visitor management (Holloway, 1995:2; Busby, 2001:38 and Ring et al., 2009:109).

Airey (2005:20) reports that the contents of the core curriculum discussed presents a pattern that is in agreement with the original content that was suggested by Bukart and Medlink. Airey (2005:20) asserts that Holloway suggested similar themes such as marketing for tourism, statistics for tourism, planning and development, organisation and finance, passenger transport, accommodation, tours and agencies. In addition, Airey (2005:20) states that subsequent studies that yielded results in favour of the core curriculum include studies conducted during 1996 and 1997 by ATLAS and WTO.

In the United States Koh (1995:71) conducted a study and concluded that the tourism curriculum should comprise 26 elements classified under General Education, Business Education, Tourism Education and Experiential Education. Further pursuing the agenda of the core body of knowledge for tourism, Hunter-Jones (quoted in Busby, 2001:31), suggested what he called “law relevant to tourism” in the process of selecting content for tourism degrees.

According to Busby (2001:31), Hunter-Jones' proposal categorises tourism knowledge into:

- the relevance to managers in industry;
- respect for major areas of the tourism industry and their needs;
- teaching that reflects the obligations of managers to consumers, employers and community at large; and
- the reflection of opportunities of organizations to develop and carry out their business.

Upon having studied all the proposals regarding the content of tourism programmes, Airey (2005:21) concludes that the studies prove that there is an agreement about the position of tourism curriculum that crystallises around vocational and business aspects. Additionally, Airey (2005:21) points out that most tourism programmes already incorporate much of the core curriculum.

While an overwhelming support for the core curriculum was received, it is worth noting that critics of the core body of knowledge argued that the imposition can work against academic freedom, affect the ability to meet such a diverse range of employer's curricular needs, limit flexibility, innovation, and creativity, thus resulting in reduced popularity of programs to students (Ring et al., 2009:108). Nevertheless, the criticism failed to prejudice the core curriculum as it does not preclude the inclusion of other topics. Ring et al. (2009:108) conclude that accepting the core body of knowledge as 'core' that it is meant to be can prevent homogeneity of programmes as suggested by critics.

Notwithstanding the above criticism, Koh (1995:72) provides a compelling assertion for the core body of knowledge by stating that “professionalism demands standardisation”. The assertion provides a benefit for the tourism industry employers as they will have a benchmark against which to measure the graduates they receive from institutions of higher education, should the curriculum be standardised. With exception to Koh’s study (1995:69 - 71) industry placement was not specifically stated in any of the areas that were proposed for the core body of knowledge. The following section explores student work placements as part of tourism degrees.

2.2.2.3 Work Integrated Learning (WIL)

Various terms such as industrial experience, industrial placement, supervised work experience, internships, experiential training and, work integrated learning (WIL), (Solnet, Robinson & Cooper, 2007: 67, TUT, 2005:1) are used interchangeably to describe student work experience. WIL will be used throughout this study.

Due to the applied nature of tourism and related services (Solnet, Robinson & Cooper, 2007: 66) most employers are more interested in what students can do rather than what they know (Munar & Montaño, 2009:71). Fidgeon (2010:32) highlights the importance of WIL by pointing out that employers stress the importance of job ready graduates. Evidently, the majority of undergraduate tourism programmes include WIL to accentuate the vocational focus of the courses (Solnet et al., 2007:67; Fidgeon, 2010:724).

Vocationally oriented tourism undergraduate programmes place a premium on WIL (Leslie & Richardson, 2000:481) which is normally featured as a requirement for graduation (Solnet et al., 2007: 66). According to Fidgeon (2010:673) the main aim of WIL is to facilitate a balance between theory that is taught in the classroom and practice, thereby inculcating vocational skills required by employers and thus fostering a smooth transition from the classroom to the world of work. The process of WIL harnesses the interdependency of academia and industry to produce employable graduates (Inui et al., 2006:27).

The benefits of WIL accrue to employers, institutions and students (Solnet et al., 2007:67). Figure 2.2 outlines a summary of the benefits of WIL for the students, industry and employers.

For the students :

- experience the realities of the workplace and business environment;
- practical experience;
- encourages a greater awareness of the diversity of the industry;
- opportunity to define personal areas of interest, values, strengths and aptitude;
- valuable as a reference source;
- the more knowledgeable prospective applicants are about the company the better positioned they are for appointment;
- influences career choice;
- feedback on interpersonal skills;
- fosters greater sensitivity toward different learning styles; and
- develops relationship with employees and mentors.

For the industry:

- availability of high calibre and generally committed staff at an early stage in their development;
- opportunity to bring into the organization someone who is not steeped in tradition nor one who probably needs re-training;
- basically no turnover problems;
- potential contribution of student;
- potential opportunity to undertake research by the student and supported by the institution and tutors;
- potentially employing one of tomorrow's manager's at a low cost;
- possibility of a student on graduation applying for a position in a sector of the industry to which they are unsuited is reduced; and
- potential employee on graduation more knowledgeable about the company.

For the institution:

- the contacts developed arising as a result of the placement system could lead to a number of indirect benefits;
- facilitates inputs by the industry into course development; and
- increased liaison between the college and industry should lead to better course provision, and
- more informed tutors, as well as more knowledgeable, competent, and industry aware students.

FIGURE 2.2: Benefits of WIL

***Source**:* Adapted from Leslie and Richardson (2000:490)

2.3 A SOUTH AFRICAN PERSPECTIVE

To contextualise the study to South Africa, an analysis of how tourism education has evolved in South Africa is dealt with in the following section of the literature study. Tourism in South Africa is a major growth sector with significant infrastructural capacity for further growth. To demonstrate the importance with which tourism is regarded, the New Growth Path (NGP) for the promotion of economic development and job creation has identified tourism as one of the top six priority areas (Department of Economic Development, 2009:11). The strategy proposes that tourism alone has the potential of creating over 250 000 direct jobs in the country.

The following discussion will focus on the provision of tourism education in South Africa.

2.3.1 Tourism education provision in South Africa

According to Saayman (2005:259) travel courses were introduced in the 1980s and mainly developed during the 1990s, housed in different departments such as Secretarial Studies and Communication in Tecknikons, now known as Universities of Technology (UoTs), and Marketing and Recreational Management in the case of traditional universities. South Africa is not unique in its pattern of development of tourism education. The phenomenon is evident globally, where tourism is offered as a highly vocational qualification, an enrichment to well-developed disciplines, or the study of tourism as an activity worthy of study in its own right which is equally prevalent (Saayman, 2005:259).

Tourism programmes are offered by UoTs, comprehensive universities and traditional universities which are public higher education institutions, as well as a network of private higher education institutions. The South African Qualification Authority's (SAQA) database of all registered undergraduate tourism qualifications on the South African National Qualification Framework (NQF) level 6 (undergraduate level) reveals various terms that are used to describe tourism provision at this level. The qualifications range from National Diploma: Tourism Management, Diploma: Travel and Tourism, Advanced Diploma: Tourism Management, Bachelor of Commerce: Applied Tourism Management, Bachelor of Commerce: Tourism Management, Bachelor: Tourism Management (SAQA, S.a:1). Similar to their international counterparts, the focus of all these qualifications is varied.

Most private institutions offer tourism courses that groom students for specific posts within the tourism industry and are purely vocational, with a wide range of courses ranging from basic skills to junior management, while public higher education institutions prepare students to enter tourism at junior management level (Saayman, 2005:265).

With the varied array of institutions that offer tourism training and education, South African employers express concerns around the issues of curriculum and readiness of tourism graduates who enter the job market (National Department of Tourism, 2013:1). Consequently, industry often criticizes institutions that offer qualifications in tourism.

According to Saayman (2005:265) there is a range of criticism against tourism programmes which are summarised as follows:

- lack of demand-led planning of programmes, thus they fail to fulfil the skills needs of the industry;
- not keeping abreast of industry trends – technologies utilized in day-to-day job applications;
- provision of training focused on specific sectors;
- not focusing enough, in terms of course content, on the importance of service and the potential customer;
- system is not sufficiently articulated or consistent in its curriculum to create the impact needed;
- some training is of poor quality with inappropriate learning materials and facilities;
- teachers and trainers in the business do not have industry experience;
- too many avenues of training exist that have varying quality and capacity and sometimes training options are not adequate;
- formal educational structures are numerous and fragmented and are accused of generally not meeting the needs of industry; and
- the formal education and training system is not sufficiently articulated or consistent in its curriculum to create the impact needed.

Additionally, the National Department of Tourism (2013:1) reports that tourism industry stakeholders are of the opinion that:

- the lack of a standardised tourism curriculum contributes to an influx of tourism graduates with unequal skill levels and qualifications,

- employers are uncertain about graduates' competency levels, and
- employing tourism graduates is seen as a risky investment that could harm the integrity of tourism businesses.

The consequence of such criticism is that the sector responds with its own in-house training. The challenge, however, is that such training is only available in large organisations and a few conglomerates. The Culture, Arts, Tourism, Hospitality and Sport Sector Education and Training Authority (CATHSSETA, 2008:50) reports that the Small Medium and Micro Enterprises (SMMEs) who employ the majority of individuals in the sector do not provide training due to the associated training costs.

Table 2.1 attests to the fact that Small Medium and Micro Enterprises (SMMEs) constitute over 90% of the tourism sector with the highest percentage in the Hospitality and the Travel and Tourism sub-sectors in South Africa.

TABLE 2.1: Employment provided by SMME's

Sub-sector	Percentage SMMEs per sub-sector
Hospitality	97%
Travel and Tourism	97%
Gaming and Lotteries	89%
Sport, Recreation & Fitness	98%
Conservation and Tourist Guiding	89%

***Source**: CATHSSETA (2008:33)*

Nzimande, the minister of Higher Education (2010:2) is of the opinion that concerted efforts need to be made to provide training and skills for the majority of

the workforce in tourism through the creation of partnerships between the SMMEs and the public higher education institutions, specifically the UoTs which are heavily funded by the South African government.

To understand the current and future provision of Tourism Higher Education in South Africa, it is imperative to provide a brief overview of the education system in South Africa. The following section introduces the structure of higher education in South Africa.

2.3.2 Higher Education landscape

From the mid -1990s the South African Government instituted a series of fundamental educational reforms toward the transformation of higher education (Sedgwick, 2004:1). The Council on Higher Education (2009:88 - 91) identifies the National Plan for Higher Education (NPHE) as one of the documents that had a major impact on higher education in South Africa. The NPHE recommended sixteen desired outcomes for higher education with five major goals. Among the desired outcomes was the recommendation for mergers and new institutional and organisational forms for higher education.

Before 2004 South Africa had 21 Universities and 15 Technikons. Public Higher education in South Africa could be pursued at universities or Technikons. Technikons were institutions that focused on higher professional or career oriented education. Programmes included the WIL component as part of the curricula. Arnolds, Stofile and Lillah (2013:1) note that co-operation with commerce, industry and government at tertiary levels ensured program mixes that were sensitive to

demands of labour. Technikons offered three-year programmes that led to a National Diploma, with provision for exit points after one or two years leading to a National Certificate and a National Higher Certificate, respectively. The National Diploma initially could be followed by a Higher National Diploma, a Master's Diploma in Technology and a Laureatus in Technology. These were replaced by a Baccalaureus Technologiae (B Tech, four years post school), a Magister Technologiae (M Tech, 1 year after the B Tech) and a Doctor Technologiae (D Tech, two years after the M Tech) in the nineties (Nuffic, 2010:12).

As a result of the reforms in higher education from 1994 onwards, South Africa has twenty three public higher education institutions: six universities of technology (what used to be Technikons), eleven universities (confer traditional theoretically oriented university degrees) and six comprehensive universities (a new type of institution that combines the functions of traditional universities and universities of technology) (Arnolds, Stofile & Lillah, 2013:1). Two new universities opened their doors in Northern Cape and Mpumalanga province in January, 2014 (Sol Plaatjie University, s.a; University of Mpumalanga, s.a). The two universities are located in provinces which had limited access to higher education in South Africa. According to the CHE (2009:08) the National Institute for Higher Education (NIHE) Northern Cape and the NIHE Mpumalanga were set up to coordinate the provision of programmes to address the absence of public higher education institutions in the two provinces. These institutions have agreements with existing universities and offer affordable programmes to the inhabitants of these provinces.

Private higher education institutions offer higher education; however, they do not receive state funding as they are owned by companies and individuals. Nonetheless, these institutions must be registered with the Department of Higher Education and Training and comply with the quality assurance requirements of Higher Education Quality Committee (HEQC) of the Council of Higher Education (CHE) (Nuffic, 2010:12).

To understand discussions relating to the levels at which programmes are aimed at in terms of Higher Education in South Africa, the following sections will discuss the role of the South African Qualifications Authority (SAQA) and the South African National Qualifications Framework (NQF).

2.3.2.1 The South African Qualifications Authority (SAQA)

The South African Qualifications Authority **(**SAQA) was established through the South African Qualifications Authority Act of 1995 to oversee the development and implementation of the National Qualifications Framework (NQF). Among other roles of SAQA is the development of policy and criteria for registering standards and qualifications on the National Qualifications Framework (NQF) on the recommendation of the Council on Higher Education (CHE).

The following section provides an overview of the old 8 NQF which was replaced by the new 10 level NQF and its associated sub-frameworks, concentrating on the Higher Education Qualifications Sub-Framework (HEQSF). The study emphasises

the HEQSF because tourism higher education falls under this sub-framework of the NQF.

2.3.2.2 The National Qualifications Framework (NQF)

The NQF is a comprehensive system approved by the Minister of Education for the classification, registration, publication and articulation of quality-assured national qualifications (Department of Higher Education and Training, 2008:4). The National Qualifications Framework (NQF) Act No 67 of 2008 replaced the South African Qualifications Authority (SAQA) Act No 58 of 1995, and came into effect on 1 June 2009. The NQF Act changed the NQF from an eight (8) level framework to a ten (10) level framework. Table 2.2 depicts the old 8 NQF.

TABLE 2.2: The old 8 level NQF

NQF LEVEL	BAND	QUALIFICATION
8 7 6 5	Higher Education and Training	Post-Doctoral Degrees Doctorates Masters Degrees Professional Qualifications Honours Degrees National First Degrees National Diploma National Certificates
3 2	Further Education and Training	
1	General Education and Training	

Source: Adapted from **SAQA (S.a:1)**

Table 2.2 depicts the old NQF framework with 8 levels. On the new 10 level NQF, levels 5 to 10 are substituted by the HEQSF as seen in Table 2.3.

Table 2.3 is a representation of the 10 level NQF, clearly indicating the three sub-frameworks as indicated in the NQF Act, No 67 of 2008 (Department of Education, 2008:7)

TABLE 2.3: 10 level NQF and Sub-Frameworks

NATIONAL QUALIFIQATIONS FRAMEWORK		
LEVEL	**SUB-FRAMEWORK AND QUALIFICATION TYPES**	
10	Doctoral Degree Doctoral Degree (Professional)	*
9	Marster's Degree Marster's Degree (Professional)	*
8	Bachelor Honours Degree Postgraduate Diploma Bachelor's Degree	*
7	Bachelor's Degree Advanced Diploma	*
6	Diploma Advanced Certificate	Occupational Certificate (Level 6)
5	Higher Certificate	Occupational Certificate (Level 5)
4	National Certificate	Occupational Certificate (Level 4)
3	Intermediate Certificate	Occupational Certificate (Level 3)
2	Elementary Certificate	Occupational Certificate (Level 2)
1	General Certificate	Occupational Certificate (Level1)

* Qualification types beyond level 6 on the OQSF have not been determined pending further advice.

Key to sub-frameworks

Higher Education Qualifications Sub-Framework	General and Further Education Training Qualifications Sub-Framework	Occupational Qualifications Sub-Framework

Source: SAQA (2013:9)

Table 2.3 clearly indicates that the NQF act further comprises three coordinated sub-frameworks for:

- General and Further Education and Training, contemplated in the General and Further Education and Training Quality Assurance (GENFETQA) Act,
- Higher Education, contemplated in the Higher Education Act; and
- Trades and Occupations, contemplated in the Skills Development Act (SAQA, 2013:7).

The following section will discuss the Higher Education Qualification Sub-Framework.

2.3.2.3 The Higher Education Qualifications Sub-Framework (HEQSF)

Prior to 2008, South Africa had separate and parallel qualifications structures for universities and technikons which hindered the articulation of programmes and transfer of students between programmes and higher education institutions (Department of Higher Education & Training, 2008:1). The various policies are replaced by the NQF Act, No 67 of 2008. The replaced policies include:

- a Qualifications Structure for Universities in South Africa – NATED Report 116;
- the General Policy for Technikon Instructional Programmes – NATED Report 150;
- formal Technikon Instructional Programmes in the RSA – NATED Report 151 and

- Qualifications-Framework for Schooling in Norms and Standards for Educators.

The HEQSF applies to all higher education institutions and is part of the NQF as it integrates all higher education qualifications into the new NQF which has 10 levels. On the new NQF as indicated in Table 2.3, higher education spans levels 5 to 10. The HEQSF only determines the structure for higher education, by establishing common parameters, criteria for qualification design and facilitation of the comparability of qualifications across the system (Department of Higher Education, 2007:5-6).

The policy implication is that qualifications and programmes that are currently offered by higher education institutions must be aligned with the HEQSF to become part of the approved Programme and Qualification Mix (PQM) of each institution (Council of Higher Education, 2010:1). The alignment will necessitate recurriculation for most qualifications and programmes. According to the Higher Education Qualifications Committee (HEQC) the alignment process will require programmes to be categorised and dealt with in the following manner (Council of Higher Education, 2010:1):

- category A: programmes that need no or only a minor adjustment to align with the HEQSF;
- category B: programmes that require some curriculum development (amounting to a less than 50% change) to align with the HEQSF; and
- category C: programmes that cannot be aligned with the HEQSF and which will need to be phased out or replaced.

For universities of technology, the major task lie in upgrading subjects/modules to a higher NQF level than what currently exists (McDonald & Van der Horst, 2007:3). Another challenge is that the new HEQSF does not currently make provision for B Tech degrees as indicated in Figure 2.2. In terms of the HEQSF, students in the Diploma track will require progression via the Advanced and Post Graduate Diploma, thus taking an extra year when compared to students in the Degree track (South African Technology Network, 2008:3).

Furthermore, UoTs have to position themselves within the Higher Education Sector based on resources available to them, institutional PQMs, their mission statements and how the qualifications will respond to the needs of the country when deciding whether to follow the diploma or the degree track on the HEQSF. Additionally, UoTs need to be mindful that the diploma is a mechanism to allow access to education, particularly for students from historically disadvantaged backgrounds and ensure throughput in much needed areas of skills which is one of the priority areas that were outlined by the NAP document for the country (HEQC, 2008:2).

Figure 2.3 is a diagrammatic representation of the HEQSF indicating entry requirements to NQF levels at undergraduate level and progression possibilities for a candidate studying at a UoT from Diploma level to a Doctoral Degree.

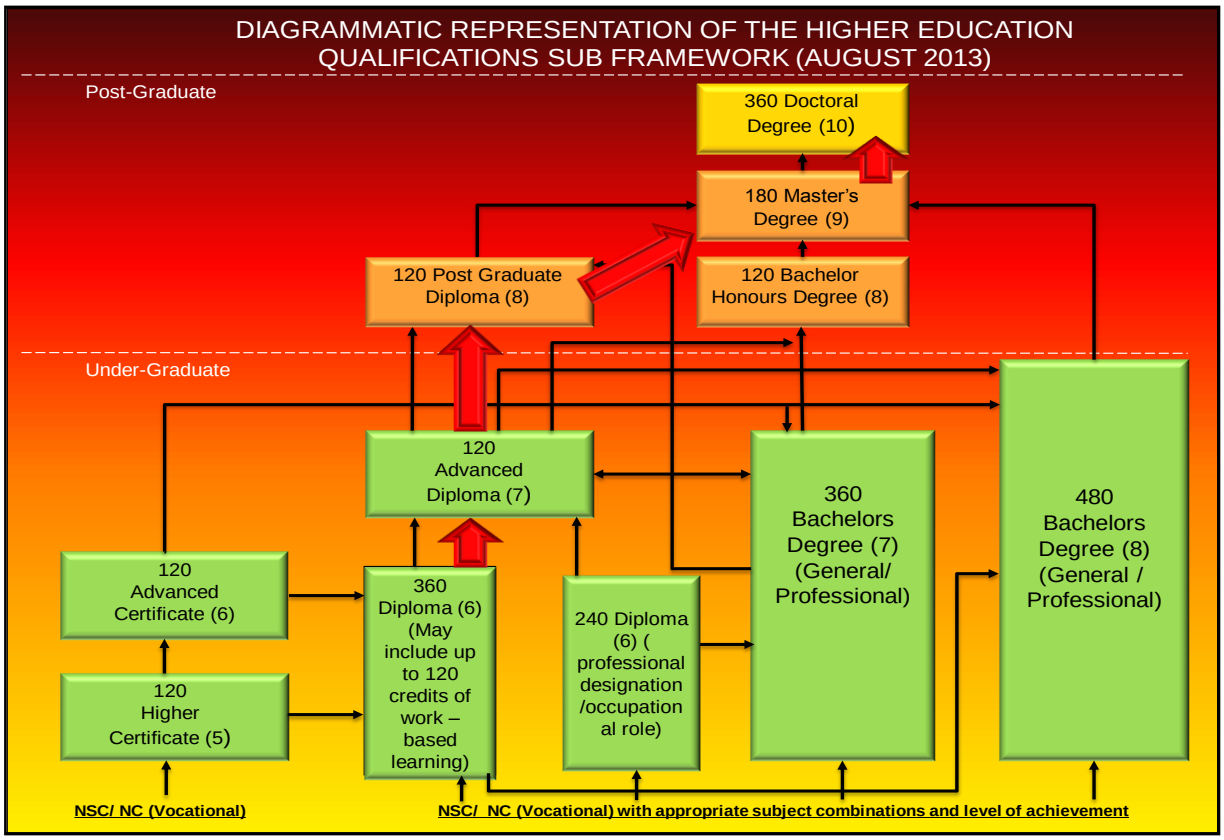

FIGURE 2.3: Diagrammatic Representation of the HEQSF.

***Source**: Adapted from: Publication of the General Further Education and Training Qualifications Sub-Framework and Higher Education Qualifications Sub-Framework of the National Qualifications Framework (SAQA, 2013:9)*

Figure 2.3 is a diagrammatic representation of the new HEQSF. The arrows denote minimum entry requirements and possible articulation routes. Figure 2.3 further highlights a possible progression route for a student who follows the Diploma track. Based on Figure 2.3, it is clear that a student will take a minimum of three years for a Diploma. Should a student opt to study further, the Diploma is followed by an Advanced Diploma for a minimum of one year and a Post Graduate Diploma for a minimum of one year before proceeding to a Master's qualification. The new HEQSF results in a minimum of five years study period for Diploma

students to reach Master's level when compared to the current four year study period. The current progression route for a Diploma candidate studying at a UoT to reach a Master's qualification is a National Diploma (three years) followed by a Baccalaureus Technologiae (one year). Moreover, the new HEQSF does not make provision for a Baccalaureus Technologiae as indicated in Figure 2.3.

The following section focuses the study on Tshwane University of Technology (TUT), a UoT in South Africa. The discussion introduces TUT and further investigates the impact of the HEQSF on the undergraduate National Diploma: Tourism Management qualification offered at TUT.

2.3.2.4 Tshwane University of Technology

TUT is a public higher education institution which emerged from the merger of Pretoria Technikon, Northern Gauteng Technikon and Technikon North West in January 2004 as part of the restructured Higher Education (HE) landscape of South Africa (TUT, 2005a:1).

As Technikons, the three institutions were characterised by the delivery of graduates to the labour market who mastered a career-focused type of education, were job-ready on entering the work place, and who had internalised work ethics and professional codes of conduct (TUT, 2005a:13). TUT as a university of technology faces new challenges presented by the transformation from Technikon education to a UoT and imperatives from the Department of Education such as the

PQM for the institution and the alignment of qualifications to the HEQSF which will require careful planning for positioning the institution.

The strategic focus for TUT as a university of technology is the development of people, concentrating at Diploma and Degree levels to meet the labour market needs of the country. Learning programmes place an emphasis on cutting-edge technology that hinges on the efficient and effective application of knowhow, knowledge and skills. Work related competencies are developed through the system of WIL (TUT, 2005b:5).

As a UoT the institution must differentiate its programme offering from traditional universities. The South African Technology Network (SATN) identifies the following unique features of UoTs:

- the PQM that is technology driven;
- the relevance and responsiveness of the curriculum that can be measured through: employer satisfaction; involvement of professional bodies; existence of advisory committees; introduction of new programmes and
- career focused programmes that can be measured through WIL components in the curriculum and exposure/experience of staff in the industry (SATN, 2008:7).

The features of a UoT as outlined above need to be evident at programme level. Currently, programmes have to be aligned to the HEQSF which requires careful

decisions on whether undergraduate programmes will follow diploma or degree tracks on the HEQSF.

The following section discusses considerations for decision-making in selecting the appropriate track to be followed for the new undergraduate Tourism Management qualification at TUT.

2.3.2.5 Qualification type considerations

In planning for the alignment of qualifications to the HEQSF, TUT should consider the following factors when deciding to offer a diploma or a degree for undergraduate tourism qualifications:

- the National Plan for Higher Education identified five key policy goals and strategic objectives that are central to achieving the overall goal of the transformation of the higher education system. The policy goals include: increased access; redressing imbalances of the past and ensuring that the system produces graduates with appropriate skills and competencies, as well as knowledge and technological skills, acquired through research, to contribute to social and economic development (TUT, 2005a:8);
- TUT's vision to provide professional career education that responds to the needs of the economy (TUT, 2005a:14);
- the minimum entrance requirements for a bachelor's degree are four points representing adequate achievement (50-59%) or higher in the designated subject list of the National Senior Certificate (NSC) compared to three

points representing moderate achievement (40-49 %) or higher for a diploma (Department of Higher Education and Training, 2008:17); and

- the current and future skills needs of the tourism industry.

Plans contained in TUT's Institutional Operating Plan (TUT: 2005a,19) include that TUT will have 75% of the headcount total of contact students in Science and Technology and in Business Management, and 92% of the programmes must be at undergraduate diploma level.

2.4 CONCLUSION

The chapter provided a comprehensive literature review in respect of the state of tourism higher education both internationally and in South Africa. It is evident that the disparate development of tourism higher education has been shaped by both external and internal impacts. The chapter, through literature highlighted major impacts that have resulted in the current state of Tourism Higher Education.

Externally, the growth of the sector which is linked to good employment resulted in the mushrooming of educational programmes aimed at resourcing the tourism sector. Additionally, the fragmented nature of the industry has too many sectors, consequently it is a challenge to identify what needs to be included in educational programmes.

Internally, researchers and educators have been engaged in efforts to elevate the profile of Tourism Higher Education. Interventions include studies, debates and involvement of industry in curriculum design.

In addition to keeping abreast with international developments in the state of Tourism Higher Education, South Africa has to satisfy educational reforms such as the HEQSF in planning for new tourism qualifications.

Achieving quality education and training that is recognised by tourism industry employers is a challenge facing tourism education institutions providing career training. Therefore, the identification of industry needs, and the involvement of industry in academic curriculum design relevant to the labour requirements is the best method of achieving quality education.

The following chapter will focus on skills requirements for employees in the South African tourism industry.

CHAPTER 3

SKILLS ANALYSIS FOR THE TOURISM INDUSTRY

3.1 INTRODUCTION

Major and Evans (2008:409) identify global tourism as the most promising area of economic growth. Likewise, the National Department of Tourism (2011:1) has recognised the tourism sector's potential to bring about economic growth and employment creation. According to the Department of Economic Development (2009:4) the high level of unemployment in the country has seen the government positioning tourism as one of the six core pillars of growth in the country's New Growth Path Framework (Department of Economic Development, 2009:3) based on the sector's reputation for being labour intensive (Baum, 2007:787; Geldenhuys, 2009:253).

Through the Department of National Tourism Sector Strategy (NTSS) (National Department of Tourism, 2011:1) the tourism sector is committed to creating a total of 225 000 jobs by the year 2020 and becoming one of the top 20 global tourism destinations by 2020. To achieve the set targets, the country must be a competitive destination. Ladkin (2005:437) points out that the relationship between tourism education and tourism employment is central in the provision of human capital that will ensure destination competitiveness. Kusluvan et al. (2010:171) and Haven-Tang and Jones (2008:353) concur that international literature on

destination competitiveness indicates that human resources, the right skills, knowledge and attitude are vital assets for tourism organisations.

Hjalager and Andersen (2000:115) and Ladkin (2005:438) further hold the view that opportunities available to generate jobs depend on tourism education as a starting point in training and development of human capital. However, Ladkin (2005:440) laments that not much is known about careers and employment in the tourism industry.

The aims of this chapter are to address the secondary objectives of the study, namely:

- to identify the jobs that students with a National Diploma: Tourism Management are employed in;
- to identify the skills and knowledge that are required to effectively perform these jobs; and
- to analyse the curriculum content of current National Diploma: Tourism Management offered at TUT.

The chapter will be presented in the following sequence. Firstly, a description will be given of sectors that are used to represent the tourism industry in this study, the fragmentation thereof and the consequences thereof for the tourism industry. Secondly, the tourism jobs that graduates from TUT with the National Diploma: Tourism Management are exposed to during the Work Integrated Learning (WIL) period in South Africa will be identified. Thirdly, the skills and knowledge required to effectively perform these jobs will be identified through literature. Finally, the

content of the current TUT National Diploma: Tourism Management will be analysed using exit level outcomes registered with the South African Qualifications Authority (SAQA) for guidance.

The following section provides a brief discussion of the complexity of tourism as an industry.

3.2 COMPLEXITY OF THE TOURISM INDUSTRY

The complexity of the tourism industry begins with agreeing on what constitutes real tourism. Tourism researchers such as Meneses and Teixeira (2009:26) and Leiper (2007:238) challenge reference to tourism as an industry instead of tourism industries, indicating that tourism services comprise more than one industry. George (2007:4) proposes the use of the term “tourism system” instead of tourism industry. This research acknowledges the legitimacy of these debates, however, the term “tourism industry” will be used in this research.

George (2007:15) describes the tourism industry as all those firms, organisations and facilities which are intended to serve the specific needs and wants of tourists. Riley, Ladkin and Szivas (2001:11) and Ayres (2006:114), provide a more specific description including hospitality, transport, tour operators and travel agencies, tourist attractions, conference businesses, tour guides, tourist information services, souvenir shops, relevant government offices, Non Governmental Organisations (NGO’s), educational establishments, events, festivals, culture and heritage, indigenous tourism, health and spa tourism as part of the tourism

industry. The descriptions provided, form the basis of what is accepted as the 'tourism industry' for this study.

Various authors such as Weaver and Lawton (2010:5), Haven-Tang and Jones, (2008:356), Raj (2008:40), Baum (2007:788) and George (2007:11) describe tourism as a diverse, multi-faceted, cross-cutting industry that contributes to and straddles numerous economic sectors. George (2007:11) further points out that tourism is characterised by complexity and fragmentation.

The following section demonstrates how fragmentation affects the Standard Industrial Classification (SIC) for the tourism industry which further affects tourism employment.

3.2.1 Standard Industrial Classification

Major and Evans (2008:410) and George (2007:11) hold the view that fragmentation of the tourism industry can be attributed to the diversity of the sector. According to Haven-Tang and Jones (2008:356) categorising tourism neatly into any specific Standard Industrial Classification (SIC) grouping is a challenge. Furthermore, Leiper (2007:241) points out that the International SIC framework tasked with collecting economic data by industry does not identify tourism as an industry but as tourism related activities. Conversely, Weaver and Lawton (2010:5) draw attention to New Zealand, where tourism related activities are described in at least fifteen industrial classes, with the United States, Canada and Mexico recording just under thirty codes. According to the Culture Arts, Tourism, Hospitality and Sport Sector Education and Training Authority

(CATHSSETA, s.a:1), the tourism and travel services sub sector covers 13 SIC codes in South Africa. Comparing the SIC for the various countries reveal serious inconsistencies which result in confusion for tourism manpower planning. The discussion of the various SIC Codes clearly demonstrates the complexity of the tourism industry which impacts directly on the employment and career front.

Baum (2008:277) provides additional evidence of fragmentation of the tourism industry evident in the dichotomous nature of tourism businesses. The industry is dichotomous in terms of size and structure of businesses. The literature reveals that multinational organizations operate alongside large numbers of independent local businesses with large operators co-existing with Small Medium and Micro Enterprises (SMMEs) where, according to George (2007:11), the latter dominates the industry, further indicating implications for tourism manpower planning.

According to Baum (2008:788) the disparities within the industry further extend to tourism education and training. The needs at technical or knowledge level become blurred. Consequently, assessing industry needs accurately per sub sector to provide specialised educational programmes for the industry is a challenge. Betcon and Graetz (2001:106) claims that input into training development is owned by a few operators who are willing and able to sacrifice time to attend meetings, thus marginalising the views of the majority of operators. Furthermore, Riley *et al.* (2001:14) hold the view that inconsistencies in the tourism industry challenge the development of a coherent employer perspective. Baum and Szivas (2008:786) observe that the sector does not act together and regulate its actions as a group. In agreement with them Haven–Tang and Jones (2008:357) add that

easily acquired transferable skills are perceived to be adequate for operating in the industry. Amoah and Baum (1997:6) conclude that the responsibility and ownership is spread across a diversity of bodies characterised by lack of coordination, thus presenting confusing messages about tourism employment resulting in a weak operating framework. The following section reviews literature on tourism employment.

3.3 TOURISM EMPLOYMENT

Ayres (2006:115), assert that governments widely accept tourism for economic development due to the wide range of employment opportunities it provides. Further still, Baum (2007:787) and Geldenhuys (2009:257), point out that tourism is a labour intensive industry with a ripple effect creating jobs in a wide range of support industries. The diversity of the industry undoubtedly translates to a diversity of human capital needs. Ladkin (2005:439), Baum and Szivas (2008:284) and Geldenhuys (2009:257) emphasise that tourism provides jobs for different segments of people as skills levels range from low to advanced technical skills.

The Organizing Framework for Occupations (OFO) in the tourism, hospitality and events sector of South Africa has been studied at length to identify jobs that are available for the tourism sector. The OFO has not been used in its entirety for this study as it lists all tourism occupations, including unskilled occupations. Ladkin's (2005:439) warning against the use of the OFO to classify and identify occupational classifications that results in long lists for tourism was accepted for this study.

Ladkin (2005:439) lists tour operators, travel agents (retail and business), ground handlers, tourist boards (national and regional), local authorities, tourism information centres and tourism consultancies as key areas of tourism employment. In line with the list provided by Ladkin (2005:439), this study is biased to jobs offered by travel agencies, visitor attractions, accommodation services, tour operators, and Destination Marketing Organisations (DMOs). Moreover, the decision is influenced by the existing team of tourism industry employers that provide Work Integrated Learning (WIL) opportunities to students from Tshwane University of Technology (TUT) who are studying toward a National Diploma: Tourism Management.

The following section provides a summary of types of tourism employment TUT students are employed in.

3.3.1 Sub-sectors and skills requirements

The tables in the following section provide information on the services provided by each sub sector of tourism that is represented, including skills and attributes required to succeed in these jobs. The discussion begins with the travel agency sub-sector.

3.3.1.1 Travel agencies

Table 3.1 presents the range of jobs and services available in the travel agency environment. Skills and attribute requirements are further discussed to achieve a holistic view of the sub sector.

TABLE 3.1: Services, skills and jobs in travel agencies

Range of jobs in a travel agency: receptionist; administrative assistant, reservation sales agent, retail travel agent, corporate travel agent (junior/intermediate/senior), retail travel manager, business development manager, marketing coordinator, marketing manager, general manager, back office accounting.	
Services	**Skills**
• provide travel advice on destinations (this includes safety issues, accommodation at destination, transport at destination); • make arrangements for transportation, hotel accommodation, car rentals, tours, and recreation; • advise on weather conditions, restaurants, tourist attractions, and recreation; • provide information on customs regulations, required travel documents (passports, visas, and certificates of vaccination), and currency exchange rates to international travelers; • consult published and computer-based sources for information on departure and arrival times, fares, and accommodation grading information; • visit hotels, resorts, and restaurants to evaluate comfort, cleanliness, and quality of food and service; • build relationships with customers; • Travel Reservations.	• extensive product offering knowledge; • skills to source travel information; • ability to use latest technology including travel websites and computer reservations systems; • skills in airline fares and issuing of tickets; • customer service skills; • interpersonal skills; • negotiation skills; • technical skills in financial management; • planning itineraries; • cultural sensitivity skills; • public relations skills; • reading and interpreting rules and policies; • event planning and support; • accounting skills; • basic foreign exchange skills; • communicating verbally and in writing; • back office skills such as Bank Settlement Plan Southern Africa (BSPZA).
Attributes: team worker, interpersonal skills, willingness to learn, adaptability, creativity, patience, confidence, pay attention to detail, assumption of responsibility and making decisions, identify and solve problems, work well under pressure, strong work ethics, work independently and use initiative.	

Adapted from: *George (2007:137), Page and Connell (2009:160)*

Table 3.1 demonstrates the range of skills that people who work in the travel agency environment must possess. By its nature, the travel agency environment stocks a wide range of brochures, plans itineraries, makes reservations using the Computer Reservations Systems (CRSs), promotes merchandise in attractive displays, calculates fares, advises consumers on a wide range of offerings, deals with dissatisfied customers and communicates both verbally and in writing (George, 2007:138). The table further indicates the variety of positions that are available in this environment. Depending on the size and type of the agency, travel consultants may require all the skills or some of the skills listed on the table. Smaller travel agencies tend to have a flatter hierarchy where an individual performs a variety of tasks. In this case, all the listed skills are important to succeed. Travel consultants are required to have extensive product knowledge as they represent a variety of principals. Product knowledge is vital in matching the clients' needs with the various products. The attributes listed are not specialist skills, however, they complement the specialist skills such as Galileo, Bank Settlement Plan, etc. and are therefore important for all positions. Tourism is a service industry, and customer service skills are key considering that personnel are part of the product that is sold as the product is sold and consumed simultaneously (George, 2007:267). The following section presents the range of jobs and services available in a tour operating environment.

3.3.1.2 Tour operations

Table 3.2 presents the range of jobs and services available in a tour operating environment. Skills and attribute requirements are further discussed to achieve a holistic view of the sub sector.

TABLE 3.2: Jobs, services and skills in tour operations

Range of jobs in the tour operating environment: receptionist, administrative assistant, sales representatives, ticketing consultant, reservation sales agent, inbound travel consultant, researcher, tour planner, marketing coordinator, marketing manager, product manager, general manager, tour manager, holiday representative, ground handler, tour broker.	
Services	**Skills**
• development of domestic and international packages by visiting destinations and suggesting interesting travel routes or places of interest; • designing flexible tour packages to meet the needs of different clients; • tour costing, • exploring and identifying new business opportunities in a competitive and rapidly changing industry; • promoting tour packages through travel agencies and directly to the public; • booking tour related travel arrangements; • issuing tour related documentation; • providing sales support to the travel agencies that sells the tour operator's product such as training • accompanying groups travelling by coach, although on specialist tours travel may be by mini-bus, car,	• research skills; • planning skills; • negotiation skills; • administration skills; • marketing skills; • contract interpretation; • extensive product offering knowledge; • skills to source travel information; • ability to use latest technology including travel websites and computer reservations systems; • skills in airline fares and issuing of tickets; • customer service skills; • cultural sensitivity; • interpersonal skills; • public relations skills; • technical skills in financial management; • basic foreign exchange skills; • complaints handling; • planning itineraries;

boat, train or plane; • helping with passport and immigration issues; • making sure all travel arrangements run according to plan and that accommodation, meals and service are satisfactory.	• tour costing skills, • communicating verbally and in writing; • leadership skills.
Attributes: team worker, interpersonal skills, willingness to learn, adaptability, creativity, patience, confidence, pay attention to detail, assumption of responsibility and making decisions, identify and solve problems, work well under pressure, strong work ethics, work independently and use initiative.	

Adapted from: *George (2007:132-136), Lubbe 2000:287- 317), Mancini (2001:8)*

Table 3.2 reveals skills overlap for the travel agency and tour operating environments. While the majority of skills requirements are similar for the travel agency and tour operating environments, they do not necessarily use these skills in the same way. Tour operators use itinerary planning skills to create tour packages to be sold via the travel agency, while travel agencies use the same skills to create packages and tours for individual travellers. Research skills are important for the tour operating environment as they constantly conduct market research to create tour packages that respond to the markets. The attribute requirements for the travel agency environment and the tour operating environment are similar. The following section presents jobs and services available in the destination marketing organisation (DMO) environment.

3.3.1.3 Destination Marketing Organisations

Table 3.3 presents the range of jobs and services available in the DMO environment. Skill and attribute requirements are further listed to achieve a holistic view of the sub sector.

TABLE 3.3: Jobs, services and skills in Destination Marketing Organisations

Range of jobs in DMOs: receptionist, administrative assistant, sales executive, researcher, marketing coordinator, marketing manager, product manager, general manager.	
Services	**Skills**
• producing and providing tourist information on local resources and facilities; • generate tourist visitation for a given area; • enhancing community relations; • setting up and attending exhibitions and holiday shows; • organising special and seasonal events and festivals; • liaising with local operators, the media, designers and printers; • managing budgets and staff training needs; • providing business advice support and sending e-newsletters to local businesses; • developing e-tourism platforms, including websites, and constructing business databases; • campaigns; undertaking market research; • supporting the local tourism industry through providing promotional	• extensive product offering knowledge; • research skills; • planning events and exhibitions; • public relations skills; • project management; • computer skills; • business management skills; • tourism product development skills; • oral and written communication skills; • public speaking skills; • marketing skills; • relationship management; • knowledge of a foreign language; • financial management skills.

opportunities; • encouraging the creation of a tourism association or similar body; • writing and presenting reports for committees; • planning and writing funding applications; • visitor attraction development and management • talks to local parties, community groups and handling media enquiries. • commissioning and/or producing tourism strategies and economic impact studies for implementation; • lobbying the industry and government on strategic matters such as quality assessed accommodation; devising and coordinating marketing.	
Attributes: team worker, interpersonal skills, willingness to learn, adaptability, creativity, patience, confidence, pay attention to detail, assumption of responsibility and making decisions, identify and solve problems, strong work ethics, work well under pressure, work independently and use initiative.	

Source: *George (2007:158)*

Table 3.3 indicates overlap of skills for DMOs with the travel agency and tour operation environments. The functions are however not the same. Where marketing and public relations are used at organisation level in the tour operator and travel agency environments, DMOs use these skills at national and international level. Planning events is at a higher level than it is for a conference facility or as performed by a travel agency for a small group of people. DMOs promote a destination to attract major events and meetings, incentives, conferences and exhibitions (MICE) tourism. The following section presents employment types in the visitor attraction environment.

3.3.1.4 Visitor Attractions

Table 3.4 presents the range of jobs and services available in the visitor attraction environment. Visitor attractions include natural, built, cultural and social attractions.

TABLE 3.4: Jobs, services and skills at visitor attractions

Range of jobs: site guide, reservations agent, product manager, marketing manager, marketing coordinator, special projects and events coordinator, operations manager, public relations, reservations, receptionist	
Services	**Skills**
• identifying, implementing and monitoring commercial opportunities and additional services to raise revenue; • controlling and monitoring the visitor attraction budget to ensure the attraction achieves its objectives in the most cost-effective way; • publicising the attraction's services; • event planning and organisation; • keeping up to date with changes in tourist activities and events; • providing support for the senior management team by supplying and interpreting visitor attraction data, as well as working closely with the DMOs; • communicating information to members of the public; • dealing with enquiries in person and by post, email and phone; • sponsorships; • business partnerships; • operating booking services and selling tickets for the attraction where applicable.	• general management skills; • research skills; • sustainable development skills; • written and oral communication; • business identification skills; • marketing skills; • site guiding or interpretation; • cultural sensitivity; • operations management; • financial management skills; • public relations skills; • research skills; • event planning and support; • computer skills; • extensive product offering knowledge.

Attributes: creativity, team worker, interpersonal skills, handling complaints, work well under pressure, work independently and use initiative.

Adapted from: *George (2007:58–75), Page and Connell (2009:196-221)*

Skills requirements for visitor attraction positions overlap with most positions for the tour operators, travel agencies and DMOs. Skills that do not overlap with other positions are guiding or interpretation skills. Currently, the National Diploma Tourism Management from TUT does not offer Guiding nor Interpretation as subjects. The importance of guiding or interpretation skills will be established through the survey questionnaire. The following section presents skills requirements and services offered by a reservations agent at an accommodation services establishment.

3.3.1.5 Reservation agents at accommodation establishments

Table 3.5 outlines skills requirements and services offered by the reservation agent position at an accommodation services establishment. Skills and attribute requirements are further discussed to achieve a holistic view of the sub sector.

TABLE 3.5: Jobs, services and skills at accommodation establishments

Job: Reservations agent	
Services	**Skills**
• processes guestroom reservations from the hotel sales office, direct inquiries, third party sources, correspondence, and guests at the front desk; • responds to guests' requests efficiently and courteously; • registers and assigns rooms that accommodate special requests wherever possible; • knows room locations, types of rooms available, and room rates; • answers guests' questions about the property and its products and services; • arranges for special guest services by inputting information for front desk, bell services attendants, housekeeping, concierge, or other departments; • stays current on developments within the property. • adheres to proper credit, cash handling policies; • adheres to credit limits and verifies accuracy of guest information; • verifies information about guest's name, address, and payment method; • completes shift closing requirements; • complies with property policies and procedures; • complies with all service departmental service guarantees; • assists in preregistration and blocking room reservations; • maintains information about travel	• extensive product offering knowledge; • people skills • public relations skills; • computer skills; • property management system skills; • oral and written communication skills; • customer service skills; • cultural sensitivity skills; • understanding cultures of the world; • financial skills; • selling skills; • telephone skills; • skills to read and interpret rules and policies.

agent commission; • offers area overflow hotels when necessary; • enters reservations into the PMS made by phone (transient guest), or from delegate (group) meeting lists; • provides reservation information to front desk personnel; • processes advance deposits on reservations; • provides input to room revenue and occupancy forecasts; • prepares arrival lists for use of front office personnel; • prepares guest confirmations for mailing as necessary; • maintains records for no-show accounts.	
Attributes: courteous, team worker, appropriate physical stamina, willingness to work a variety of day, night and weekend shifts, if required, patient, genuine interest in helping guests and peers, strong work ethics, attention to detail, willingness to stand long periods of time and the ability to handle multiple tasks concurrently if appropriate.	

Source: Woods, Ninemeier, Hayes and Austin *(2007:110–115)*

Skills requirements for a reservations agent include skills that are required for the travel agency, tour operating, DMOs and front desk agent environment. Cultural sensitivity is a requirement for most tourism industry positions. It is however most important for a reservations agent and front desk agents as they are most likely to interact with international guests. Reservations agents handle telephone reservations, these skills therefore require to be exceptional. A specialist skill for this position is the ability to work with a property management system or central reservations system. The following section presents skills and attributes requirements for the position of a front desk cashier at accommodation services establishment.

3.3.1.6 Front desk cashiers at accommodation establishments

Table 3.6 lists skills and attributes requirements for the position of a front desk cashier at accommodation services establishment. Skills and attribute requirements are further discussed to achieve a holistic view of the sub sector.

TABLE 3.6: Jobs, skills and services for front desk cashiers at accommodation establishments

Job: Front desk cashier	
Services	**Skills**
• maintains cash banks; • posts revenue charges; • receives and processes guest payments at check-out time; • interacts with accounting department for credit card and direct-billing accounts as applicable; • performs banking services; • transfers guest balances to other accounts as applicable; • manages safe-deposit boxes for guests.	• computer skills; • property management system skills; • financial skills; • communication skills.
Attributes: trustworthy, numeracy skills, courteous, team worker, appropriate physical stamina, willingness to work a variety of day, night and weekend shifts if required, patient, genuine interest in helping guests and peers, strong work ethics, attention to detail, willingness to stand long periods of time, and the ability to handle multiple tasks concurrently if appropriate.	

Source: *Woods et al. (2007:110–115)*

The position of front desk cashier as represented in Table 3.7 requires numeracy skills more than the reservations agent and the front desk agent. This position

deals with money. Reading and interpreting the various items listed on a guests' invoice are also important. Skill overlap exists with the front desk agent and reservation agent positions in terms of being able to operate the property management system such as Opera. The following section presents skills and attributes requirements for the front desk agent at and services available at accommodation services establishment.

3.3.1.7 Front desk agent at accommodation services establishment

Table 3.7 provides details pertaining to skills and attributes requirements for the front desk agent at and services available at accommodation services establishment. Skills and attribute requirements are further discussed to achieve a holistic view of the sub sector.

TABLE 3.7: Jobs, services and skills for front desk agent at accommodation establishments

Job: Front desk agent	
Services	**Skills**
• provides courteous guest services by responding promptly and efficiently to inquiries, requests and complaints; • uses selling skills and hotel sales programs to maximize revenue and occupancy levels; • makes room assignments and provides keys to the guests; • familiar with locations and types of guestrooms throughout the property; • obtains guest signatures on	• extensive product offering knowledge; • people skills • public relations skills; • computer skills; • property management system skills; • oral and written communication skills; • customer service skills; • cultural sensitivity skills; • financial skills;

registration cards and credit cards, obtain approval and form of payment information as part of registration process; • issues logs for parking vouchers; • maintains information and communication sources such as log book and guest services directory; • handles accounting of money, receipts and guest accounts; • keeps current about company's marketing programs, special rates, promotions and gifts and explain them to guests; • operates telephone for incoming calls; • ensures guest satisfaction at the time of check – in, check – out and during a guests' stay; • processes incoming and outgoing reservations and cancellation requests; • ensures that all guests are evacuated in case of fire; • handles guest complaints and reassures guest that complaints will be addressed; • runs shift reports; • works closely with housekeeping staff to ensure that room status reports are current; • coordinates requests for guestroom maintenance.	• selling skills;
Attributes: courteous, team worker, ability to handle pressure, people skills and pay attention to detail.	

Source: Woods et al. (2007:110–115)

The skills requirement of a front desk agent completely overlaps with the reservations agent. In smaller properties, functions of a reservations agent and front desk agent are treated as one position. The following section discusses employability skills.

3.3.2 Employability skills

Understanding what graduates need to achieve or develop through tourism education for the purpose of employment in the tourism industry, requires an interrogation of skills sets that are required by the industry employers. Hodges and Burchell (2003:17), Burke, Jones and Doherty (2005:133), and Singh-Lather, Garg and Vikas (2008:11) propose that employers are increasingly placing an emphasis on generic and behavioural competencies in the recruitment for employment of graduates. Yorke and Knight (2006:2) assert that "employers expect students, particularly at undergraduate level, to develop a range of skills, understandings, qualities and dispositions appropriate to employment". Addressing the question of employability, Griesel and Parker (2009:1) acknowledge that skills, knowledge, competencies and values of graduates are a precondition for achieving employability in synchrony with the needs and expectations of employers.

A comparative study of literature by researchers such as Ahmed and Crossman (2008:61) Wang, Ayres and Huyton (2009:64) Zehrer and Mőssenlechner (2009:269) and Singh-Lather *et al* (2011:11) reveals that employability skills are interchangeably referred to as soft skills, graduate attributes, graduate qualities, transferable skills, core skills, generic skills, personal skills, behavioural skills and key competencies. This study will adopt the definition of employability proposed by

Yorke and Knight (2006:5) describing employability as "a set of achievements, skills, understandings and personal attributes that make graduates more likely to gain employment and be successful in their chosen occupations, which benefits themselves, the workforce, the community and the economy".

According to Ahmed and Crossman (2008:62) students learn subject-specific or technical skills that are related to a specific career and non-technical or employability skills throughout their academic life. Zehrer and Mőssenlechner (2009:260) specify non-technical skills as relevant across many different jobs or professions. Ahmed and Crossman (2008:61), Zehrer and Mőssenlechner (2009:260) and Singh-Lather *et al.* (2011:11) identify learning product-related aspects of the job as technical skills. Providing further clarity, Ahmed and Crossman (2008:61) note that employability skills are not necessarily career-specific. In addition, Zehrer and Mőssenlechner (2009:260) point out that employability skills can be classified into behavioural aptitudes and intellectual abilities with the latter addressed as cognitive skills in academia. Singh-Lather et al. (2011:11) and Zehrer and Mőssenlechner (2009:269) conclude that tourism professionals require both technical and non-technical skills as tourism is primarily a service industry.

In terms of attributes that are expected by employers from graduates in general, a list provided by the Pedagogy for Employability Group suggests that employers expect to find the following generic skills developed in graduates:

- imagination/creativity,
- adaptability/flexibility,

- willingness to learn,
- independent working/autonomy,
- working in a team,
- manage others,
- work under pressure,
- good oral communication,
- communication in writing for varied purposes/audiences,
- numeracy,
- attention to detail,
- time management,
- assumption of responsibility and for making decisions, and
- planning, coordinating and organising ability (Pedagogy for Employability Group, 2004:5).

The identified skills are comparable with the Critical Cross Field Outcomes that are embedded in the National Diploma: Tourism Managements' curriculum of TUT. The Critical Cross Field Outcomes include:

- identify and solve problems demonstrating responsible decision-making, originality and a critically evaluative approach,
- working effectively with others as a member of a team, group, organisation, community,
- organise and manage time and activities responsibly and effectively,
- collect, analyse, organise and critically evaluate information,
- communicate effectively using visual, mathematical and/or language skills in the modes of oral and written persuasion,

- use technology effectively and critically,
- contribute to the full personal development of each learner as an individual, the subject field and society at large, by making it the underlying intention of the tourism programme to make learners aware of the importance of:
    - reflecting on and exploring a variety of strategies to learn more effectively,
    - participating as responsible citizens in the life of local, national and global communities,
    - recognising the relationship between tourism/hospitality and social, economic, environmental and political contexts,
    - exploring education and career opportunities, and developing entrepreneurial skills and opportunities within the tourism/hospitality industry (SAQA, 2010:8).

Wang, Ayres and Huyton (2009:65) conducted a study in seven leading Australian institutions in the field of tourism education and research to investigate what is provided by institutions in terms of tourism skills sets, graduates' generic skills and tourism discipline-specific attributes. The aim was to understand what students must develop through tourism education to meet tourism employers' requirements. Two distinct skills categories emerged from the study representing attributes needed for employment in the tourism sector, namely university generic skills and tourism-specific skills.

The following section discusses the challenges that are associated with tourism employment.

3.3.3 Challenges associated with tourism employment

According to Ladkin (2005:446) characteristics that are associated with the glamour of tourism employment include travelling, meeting people, and engaging in a variety of tasks. The glamour, however, does not presuppose that employment is without its challenges.

According to Baum (1997:5) the poor image of the tourism sector as an employer, quality and availability of skilled staff, and rewards are the main people related concerns worldwide in the tourism industry. On the other hand, Ladkin (2005:438) holds the view that the tourism industry is notorious for being associated with seasonality, part time jobs, low pay, weak management skills, low specificity on skills and a high percentage of young people in occupations with high levels of mobility. Haven-Tang and Jones (2008: 353) add to this list decreasing labour pools, lack of training, invisible career paths, deskilling, physical demands, poor working conditions, long working hours, low entry barriers, and lack of qualifications. According to Haven-Tang and Jones (2008: 354) and Raj (2008:40), the poor images associated with the tourism industry result in high labour turnover for the industry.

The following section elaborates on the consequences of some challenges associated with tourism industry employment.

3.3.3.1 Low entry barriers

THETA (2008:10) now known as CATHSSETA, acknowledges the importance and contribution of small and micro tourism businesses as major drivers of the tourism economy. Indeed, a number of studies investigating the high number of small businesses in tourism suggest that low entry barriers to tourism entrepreneurship are linked to the high number of small businesses operating in tourism (Haven-Tang, 2008:354; Baum, 2007:277; Baum & Szivas, 2008:786). In line with this, Haven-Tang and Jones (2008:354) hold the view that the majority of small businesses operate lifestyle tourism businesses with no growth ambition.

Low entry barriers to tourism entrepreneurship have a direct link with the lack of management skills, notably financial and human resources skills. Haven-Tang (2008:354) maintains that small tourism businesses perceive skills necessary to operate in the accommodation sub-sector as an extension of domestic life. In South Africa, Small Medium and Micro Enterprises (SMMEs) are accused of low levels of investments in skills development (Van Schalkwyk, 2006:5). Additionally, the majority of owner managers are reported to be without a matriculation qualification and less than 2% have degrees. Van Schalkwyk (2006:5) holds the view that the situation results in critical skills shortages in the areas of technical management, information knowledge management, and language and communication skills. According to Petrova and Mason (2004:104) the majority of tourism owner managers do not have formal tourism qualifications, and therefore tend not to value an educational background. As a direct consequence of this, the majority of employers do not see benefits of employing tourism graduates, hence

tourism qualifications are not used systematically to regulate employment (Petrova and Mason, 2004:100). In addition, O'Leary and Deegan (2005:422) observe that the few barriers to entry in the tourism industry discount the role of specialist qualifications, a trend that has led to high staff turnover and invisible career paths.

The following section discusses invisible career paths in the tourism industry.

3.3.3.2 Invisible career paths

The tourism industry is characterised by a lack of defined paths to supervisory and managerial positions, especially within smaller businesses. Haven-Tang (2008:355) cites invisible career paths as a major deterrent for young educated people to enter service industries. The trend exacerbates the low employment status associated with tourism employment. Researchers such as Major and Evans (2008:410), Munar and Montano (2009:72) and Petrova and Mason (2004:100) assert that employers are a contributory factor to the low status associated with tourism employment as they do not see the relevance of qualifications to careers in tourism. Petrova and Mason (2004:100) concur that the majority of tourism employers do not use tourism qualifications systematically in employment for the industry.

The following section will discuss the low status associated with tourism employment.

3.3.3.3 Low status of tourism employment

According to Haven-Tang and Jones (2008:354), tourism sector employment is experiencing increasing competition with sectors offering better pay and working conditions. Furthermore, Haven-Tang (2008:355) reports that high status is associated with careers with high entry requirements. Raj (2008:40) concurs by presenting the case of India where traditional careers such as civil services, medicine, and management are viewed as respectable while tourism jobs are not seen as real jobs. Raj (2008:40) concludes that the implication of such perceptions on tourism is that tourism education is not generally the first choice for students pursuing higher education. It is seen as a means to an end. A study conducted by Jiang and Tribe in China (2009:9) reveals that general attitudes of students regarding tourism jobs are not positive. Jiang and Tribe (2009:9) report that the majority of students do not think that tourism offers good prospects for their employment, hence the lack of interest in considering a permanent profession in tourism. Jiang and Tribe (2009:9) are of the opinion that students see tourism jobs as short-lived and best to work in while they are young. Moreover, Jiang and Tribe (2009:9) report that students cite personal reasons for following a tourism career such as being independent, to broaden knowledge and to relieve parents' burden, instead of career oriented reasons.

O'Leary and Deegan (2005:422) conclude that the poor image of the tourism industry is a major contributory factor in high staff turnover and wastage of trained and experienced personnel. O'Leary and Deegan (2005:422) and Richardson

(2008:25) state that without a doubt the majority of tourism graduates do not to enter tourism employment upon graduation.

In summary, the practices discussed in this section are detrimental to the tourism industry in terms of attracting, recruiting and retaining high calibre staff, thus the skills shortages (O'Leary and Deegan, 2005:422). The following section discusses skills shortages and skills gaps in the tourism industry.

3.3.4 Skills shortages vs skills gaps

Van Schalkwyk (2006:5) and Richardson (2008:24) draw attention to skills shortages in the tourism industry. Van Schalkwyk (2006:5) declares that critical skills shortages for the tourism industry exist in the areas of technical management, information knowledge management and language and communication skills in South Africa.

Any discussion on skills shortages and skills gaps needs to clarify the concepts at hand. Haven-Tang and Jones (2008: 356) assert that skills shortages and skills gaps are challenging concepts. The terms do not necessarily mean the same thing, yet, they are often used interchangeably. The following discussion provides a brief distinction between skills shortages and skills gaps.

- Skills shortages

Skills shortages are the lack of adequately skilled individuals in the accessible labour market because of lack of people (low unemployment), geographical

imbalances in supply, or shortfalls in the number of appropriately skilled individuals.

In South Africa, THETA (2010:58) reveals that scarce skills prevail when available, qualified and experienced people, current or anticipated, do not meet the employment criteria because the enterprise needs a black candidate in order to achieve their employment equity targets.

Major and Evans (2008:411), argue that perceived gaps in understanding real skills issues are limited since it is based on somewhat undependable evidence. A case in point is South Africa, where the majority of tourism businesses are small medium and micro enterprises (SMMEs). According to THETA (2010:9) the dominance of SMMEs in the tourism industry produces unreliable data on available skills in the industry as the majority operates below the radar.

The following section investigates which skills gaps have been identified by literature.

- Skills gaps

Haven-Tang and Jones (2008:356) relate skills gaps to employees with lower skill levels than required to achieve business objectives, or where new, trained and qualified, entrants lack requisite skills and other recruitment difficulties which may arise even when sufficient skilled individuals are available for work. In addition to this, they also indicate other recruitment difficulties relating to poor recruitment and

retention practices, poor industry image, low remuneration, poor employment terms and conditions which may arise even when sufficient skilled individuals are available for work (Haven-Tang & Jones, 2008:356).

In Wales, employers report job applicants to be lacking soft skills such as personal presentation, confidence, the ability to follow instructions, initiative and understanding customer needs, communication and attitude, rather than qualifications or job specific skills. Haven-Tang and Jones (2008:358) report that personal attributes are becoming more important than qualifications for SMME recruitment. Haven-Tang and Jones (2008:359) report skill gaps to be prevalent in management and leadership skills in most countries. In the East of England, Haven-Tang and Jones (2008:359) mention communication skills, job-specific skills, initiative, customer service skills and willingness to learn as the top five lacking skills.

Table 3.8 is a representation of the skills categories that were identified by Wang, Ayres and Huyton (2009:65). The table groups skills under university generic skills and tourism discipline attributes resulting in a total of twenty seven skills representing attributes needed for employment in the tourism sector.

TABLE 3.8: Tourism graduate attributes: skills and attributes

University generic skills	Tourism discipline attributes
1. computer skills, 2. creativity, 3. critical thinking, 4. oral communication, 5. organizational ability, 6. problem-solving skills, 7. team working skills, 8. work ethics, 9. written communication.	1. academic grades, 2. adaptability at work, 3. attention to detail, 4. confidence, 5. customer service skills, 6. decision making, 7. events management skills, 8. industry knowledge, 9. leadership ability, 10. legal understanding, 11. management skills, 12. marketing and sales skills, 13. negotiation skills, 14. networking ability, 15. practical skills, 16. relationship management skills, 17. relevant work experience, 18. research skills.

Adapted from: *Wang, Ayres and Huyton (2009:64).*

The twenty-seven skills and attributes were used in a survey to obtain tourism managers' views on the skills and attributes they needed for employment in the tourism sector. The study will be useful as a base for developing a questionnaire for this research. Wang et al. (2009:65) report that the survey results revealed oral communication, relationship management skills and work ethics as the top attributes in the tourism industry for the sample. Operational skills such as work ethics, customer service skills, adaptability at work and attention to detail were highly valued. Attributes that ranked the least important include research skills, legal understanding, academic grades, decision making, management skills and leadership ability.

The following section provides evaluation of the content of the National Diploma: Tourism Management that is offered at the Tshwane University of Technology against the registered exit level outcomes registered with SAQA.

3.4 CONTENT EVALUATION OF THE NATIONAL DIPLOMA: TOURISM MANAGEMENT

The Department of Education describes the purpose and rationale of the qualification as follows: The qualifying learner will be competent in consistently using a variety of technical, managerial and personal skills and strategies in the everyday running of a tourism enterprise. The successful learner will have developed a sound foundation for progression into management and industry leadership positions, and to exploit entrepreneurial opportunities (DoE, 2008:1). The National Diploma: Tourism Management is registered at level 6 on the National Qualification Framework (NQF) for a minimum of three hundred and sixty (360) credits that must be achieved over a minimum of three (3) years. Six (6) months of the third year of study is spent in the industry as compulsory WIL period.

The specified outcomes of the National Diploma: Tourism Management offered at TUT are as follows:

- formulate and implement sustainable tourism planning strategies,
- prepare a detailed business plan,
- identify entrepreneurial opportunities,
- organise and manage events and conferences,

- select and review key tourism destinations ,
- calculate advanced fares and ticketing,
- operate as a tourist guide (local region),
- organise and implement tourism activities in a co-operative education position in the tourism industry (SAQA, s.a).

Table 3.9 provides a summary of the of the exit level outcomes upon completion of the three hundred and sixty (360) credits and the associated assessment criteria for the National Diploma: Tourism Management, offered at TUT. It is important to note that the similarities between the exit level outcomes and the associated assessment criteria are errors, registered as such in the SAQA documents. This error requires correction when the existing qualification is aligned to the Higher Education Qualification Sub Framework.

TABLE 3.9: Exit level outcomes of the National Diploma: Tourism Management

Exit level outcome 1	Perform the functions required of a tourism manager and directed at developing and promoting tourism in a changing environment and niche markets.	
Assessment criteria 1	Perform the functions required of a tourism manager and directed at developing and promoting tourism in a changing environment and niche markets.	
Current content of TUT's National Diploma: Tourism Management	Tourism Management I, II and III. (Broad topics include: Basic Principles of Management, Human Resources, Economic Theory, Financial Accounting and Entrepreneurship).	This subject group provides a student with broad-based transferable managerial knowledge that equips students with practical skills that relate to the function of management, human resources, financial and entrepreneurial principles in

		order to manage a tourism enterprise sustainably.
	Tourism Development I, II, and III. (Broad topics include: Tourism Demand and Forecasting, Tourism Consumer Behaviour, Tourism Impacts, Sustainable Tourism, Tourism Development and Planning, Policies, Information Technology, Future of Tourism, Responsible Tourism Planning and Tourism Project Management and Geographical Positioning System).	This subject group equips students with skills to plan and develop different types of tourism destinations, taking into account the different types of tourists in a sustainable manner.
	Marketing for Tourism I and II. (Broad topics include: the meaning of marketing in tourism, the marketing mix, planning strategy tactics and marketing tools).	This subject group inculcates the basic principles of marketing. Students apply the basic the principles of marketing to product development and the marketing mix to the tourism context.
Evaluation	Learners acquire the skills to implement sustainable tourism planning strategies at national, provincial, regional and local level through the instructional offering Tourism development, Tourism Management and Marketing for Tourism.	
Exit level outcome 2	Gather and analyse tourism information to address the management needs of industry.	
Assessment criteria 2	Gather and analyse tourism information to address the management needs of industry.	
Current content of TUT's National Diploma: Tourism Management	Tourism Management I, II and III. Marketing for Tourism I and II.	
Evaluation	The instructional offerings Tourism Management and Marketing for Tourism culminate in a completion of a detailed business plan for a tourism enterprise. Introduction to the various sectors and types of tourists for the industry through Travel and Tourism Practice and Tourism Development further meets the	

	requirements of the exit level outcome and the associated assessment criteria.	
Exit level outcome 3	Perform appropriate practical skills and expertise in a professional service component of the tourism industry.	
Assessment criteria 3	Perform appropriate practical skills and expertise in a professional service component of the tourism industry.	
Current content of TUT's National Diploma: Tourism Management	Travel and Tourism Practice I, II and III. (Broad topics include: Travel agency operations, tourist health and safety, conducting tours, managing hotel operations, guest house management air fare calculations, event management and destinations incorporating basic geography and tourist attraction in Africa, Europe and the Americas, Australasia, Far East and Middle East. The theory is reinforced with current industry accredited operating software such as Galileo, Tour Plan, Fidelio, Summit and Quicktrav.	This subject group equips students with skills to perform operational and technical skills in travel sub sector of the tourism industry.
Evaluation	Travel and Tourism Practice I, II and III equip learners with the skills to organize events and conferences, formulate detailed itineraries, and calculate domestic air fares. Currently, advanced international airfares are not covered. Front office skills for accommodation services and guest house management are covered under this subject group. Furthermore, the principles of conducting tours and tour costing are part of this subject group. Learners are not trained in tour guiding. The Work Integrated Learning (WIL) period culminates in the development and presentation of a completed log book on the learner's experiences during the WIL period. A detailed personal portfolio for finding a WIL position in the tourism industry as indicated on the SAQA registration is currently not addressed.	
Exit level outcome 4	Perform the necessary technical and operational tasks in a tourism enterprise.	
Assessment criteria 4	Perform the necessary technical and operational tasks in a tourism enterprise.	
Current	Travel and Tourism Practice I, II and III.	

content of TUT's National Diploma: Tourism Management	Work Integrated Learning (students spend a period of six months at an organization whose primary focus is tourism irrespective of the subsector. During this period, students have the opportunity to integrate theory with practice).
Evaluation	Learners complete a log book that is provided by the Department of Tourism Management at TUT. The logbook makes provision for recording student's daily activities and asks questions about students' duties during the WIL period from the student and the employer. Monthly reports are submitted to the department for assessment. The SAQA registration document (2009) indicates that learners will produce a critical report on own experience and competencies acquired in co-operative education situation. This area of the log book may benefit from assessed reporting on critical personal development by the students.

Adapted From: *SAQA (s.a)*

Table 3.9 demonstrates how well the current programme responds to the SAQA registered exit level outcomes by using the following method: Firstly, the current content of TUT's National Diploma: Tourism Management which identifies the taught modules to meet the exit level outcomes. Secondly, Table 3.9 evaluates what is included in the content identified to ensure that the content meets the exit level outcomes.

The National Diploma: Tourism Management has three major subjects offered from the first to the third year of study. These subjects are aimed to inculcate industry-specific knowledge, allowing learners to enter the industry at junior management positions. They include Travel and Tourism Practice I, II and III; Tourism Development I, II and III; and Tourism Management I, II and III. Additional subjects are Marketing for Tourism (offered at levels I and II), languages (Communication English, and a choice between German, Spanish and French),

End-User Computing, and Law for Tourism. The qualification includes six months' compulsory WIL. In addition to the subjects that are examined by the institution, students do compulsory industry accredited travel trade training courses. The courses include Travel Agency Operations, Fidelio, Domestic Fares, Summit, TourPlan, Galileo and Quicktrav. To maintain uniformity, students have to be competent in all the industry accredited courses to be awarded the National Diploma: Tourism Management at TUT. TUT's Department of Tourism Management is backed by a substantial staff base with industry experience and, accordingly, the curriculum is vocationally oriented in line with the broad goals of the institution.

The following section presents a brief outline of undergraduate Tourism Management programmes that are offered by public higher education institutions in the Province of Gauteng, South Africa. Gauteng was used because TUT is in the province of Gauteng, South Africa.

3.5 TOURISM PROGRAMMES OFFERED BY PUBLIC HIGHER EDUCATION INSTITUTIONS

Public higher education institutions that offer tourism in the province of Gauteng in addition to TUT are the University of Johannesburg (UJ), University of Pretoria (UP), and the Vaal University of Technology (VUT). Table 3.10 indicates a summary of the structure of undergraduate programmes offered by the public higher education institutions in Gauteng expressly highlighting the type of programme, duration of the programme, duration of WIL, and industry recognised

courses. VUT offers a National Diploma: Tourism Management, UJ offers a Diploma Tourism Management while UP offers a BCom degree in Tourism Management. Both VUT and UJ send their students on WIL for six months, a practice that is similar to that of TUT. Students from UP only experience three months of industry exposure with an option of completing industry recognized practical courses, which is not the case with UJ and VUT.

The comparison of the public higher education institutions that offer tourism leads one to conclude that TUT is the sole public higher education institution in Gauteng that offers extensive compulsory industry recognized courses as part of the undergraduate tourism programme.

TABLE 3.10: Structure of tourism programmes offered by public higher education institutions

Institution	Programme	Duration	Work Integrated Learning	Additional industry courses
University of Johannesburg	Diploma: Tourism Management	3 years	Six months	Not indicated in the prospectus.
University of Pretoria	BCom Tourism Management	3 years	Three months	Based on the statement of practical work, students have a choice of completing practical short courses, however, it is not indicated that they are compulsory.
Vaal University of Technology	National Diploma: Tourism management	3 years	Six months	Not indicated in the prospectus

Adapted from: *University of Pretoria (s.a.); University of Johannesburg (2014); Vaal University of Technology (s.a)*

3.6 CONCLUSION

This chapter explored tourism as an industry with a special attention to jobs that are available in the industry. An analysis of skills requirements to prepare graduates for tourism jobs was undertaken, revealing employer expectations from tourism graduates including but not limited to imagination/creativity, adaptability/flexibility, willingness to learn, independent working/autonomy, working in a team and managing others.

The content evaluation of TUT's National Diploma: Tourism Management provides a point of departure when comparing what literature suggests is expected from tourism graduates and what is offered at TUT. The exit level outcomes and assessment criteria appear to be aligned to the registered qualification with SAQA (s.a), with the exception of Tour Guiding.

The registration document makes reference to the Critical Cross Field Outcomes that appear to be aligned with the soft skills that are identified in the literature as essential for participation in the tourism industry. The question that remains, therefore, is how important the identified skills and knowledge for performing tourism jobs are and does the National Diploma: Tourism Management offered at TUT meet the needs of the industry employer?

The answer to this question will emerge from the results of survey questionnaire as presented and discussed in Chapter 4.

CHAPTER 4

RESULTS

4.1 INTRODUCTION

The primary objective of this study is to determine whether students with a National Diploma: Tourism Management from Tshwane University of Technology (TUT) meet the Human Resource requirements of tourism employers in South Africa. In Chapter 3, the curriculum of the National Diploma: Tourism Management offered at TUT was discussed. In addition to this, the jobs in which TUT students are employed were identified. The literature discussed in Chapter 3 provided insight on prerequisite skills and knowledge to effectively perform the identified jobs.

The aim of this chapter is two-fold. Firstly, the chapter aims to rate the importance of skills and knowledge identified in Chapter 3 to perform tourism jobs. In order to achieve this objective, the importance of identified skills through literature was tested in industry by means of a questionnaire. This aim addresses the secondary objective of the study, i.e. to identify the skills and knowledge that are required to effectively perform these jobs. Secondly, the chapter further aims to identify the gaps between the curriculum content of TUT's National Diploma: Tourism Management and the skills and knowledge requirements of the tourism industry employers. The gaps will be identified by comparing the importance rating of skills

by employers using the results of the questionnaire to the content of the National Diploma: Tourism Management offered at TUT. This aim addresses the secondary objective, i.e. to identify the gaps between the curriculum content of TUT's National Diploma: Tourism Management and the skills and knowledge requirements by the tourism industry employers.

The chapter will address the respondent profile, followed by a detailed discussion of the skills required to work in the tourism industry. The chapter will conclude with a discussion of a Factor and Cluster Analysis as well as a Kruskal Wallis test.

4.2. RESPONDENT PROFILE

The following section deals with the distribution of tourism employers by tourism industry sector (sub - sector) who responded to the questionnaire in percentages.

4.2.1 Tourism industry sector

Figure 4.1 portrays the distribution of tourism employers who participated in the study by tourism industry sector.

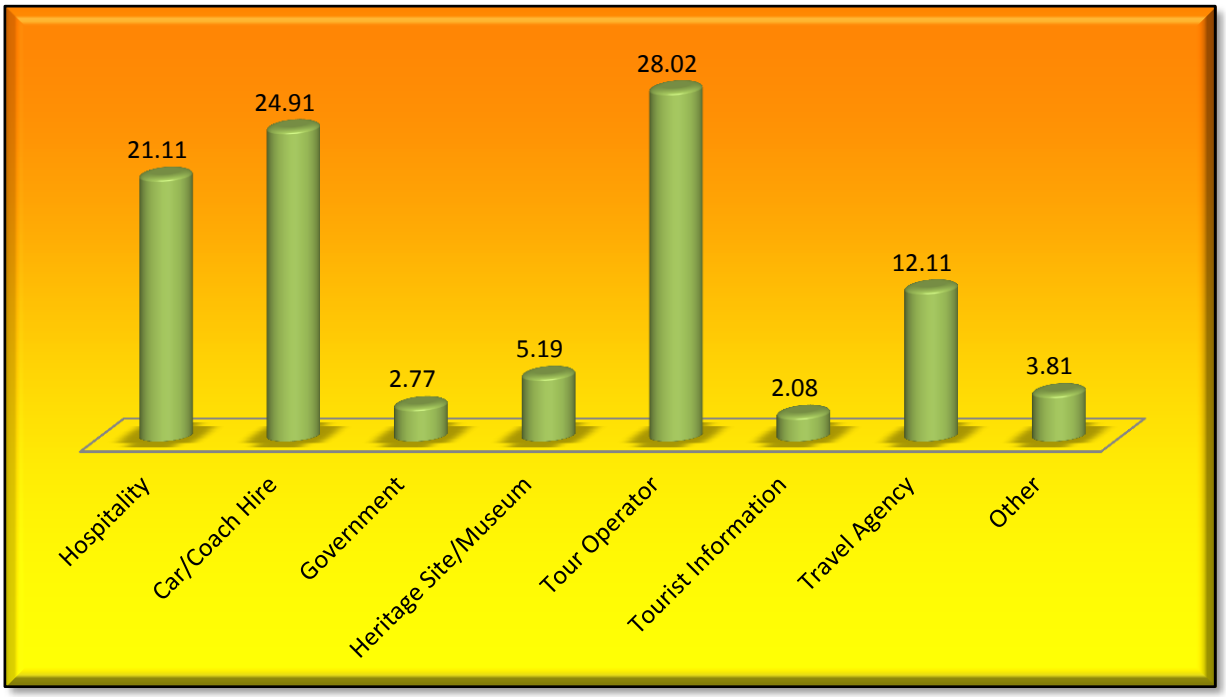

FIGURE 4.1: Respondents by tourism industry sector

Figure 4.1 represents the distribution of the respondents by tourism industry sector. Additionally, Figure 4.1 indicates that the tour operator sector is the highest represented sector at 28.02 % (n=81). Car/coach hire is represented by 24.91% (n=72) and hospitality accounts for 21.11% (n=61) of the respondents, while travel agencies are represented by 12.11% (n=35) of the respondents. The least represented sectors are museums/heritage sites at 5.19% (n=15), the category "other" 3.81% (n=11), government at 2.77% (n=8) and tourist information at 2.08% (n=6). The total number of respondents is 289 (N=289). The category "other" caters for respondents who do not classify themselves as belonging to any of the tourism sectors identified on the questionnaire.

4.2.2 Size of organisation

As indicated in Figure 4.2, the majority (38%) of respondents are from small enterprises employing between 10 to 49 employees, and 31% of the respondents from enterprises employing fewer than 10 people. The South African Small Business Act (1996) classifies businesses employing fewer than 50 people, operating within catering, accommodation and other trades as small businesses. The results indicate that the tourism industry is dominated by small businesses which is consistent with international trends reported by Haven-Tang (2008:354), Baum (2007:277) and Baum and Szivas (2007:786) in their studies on tourism employment.

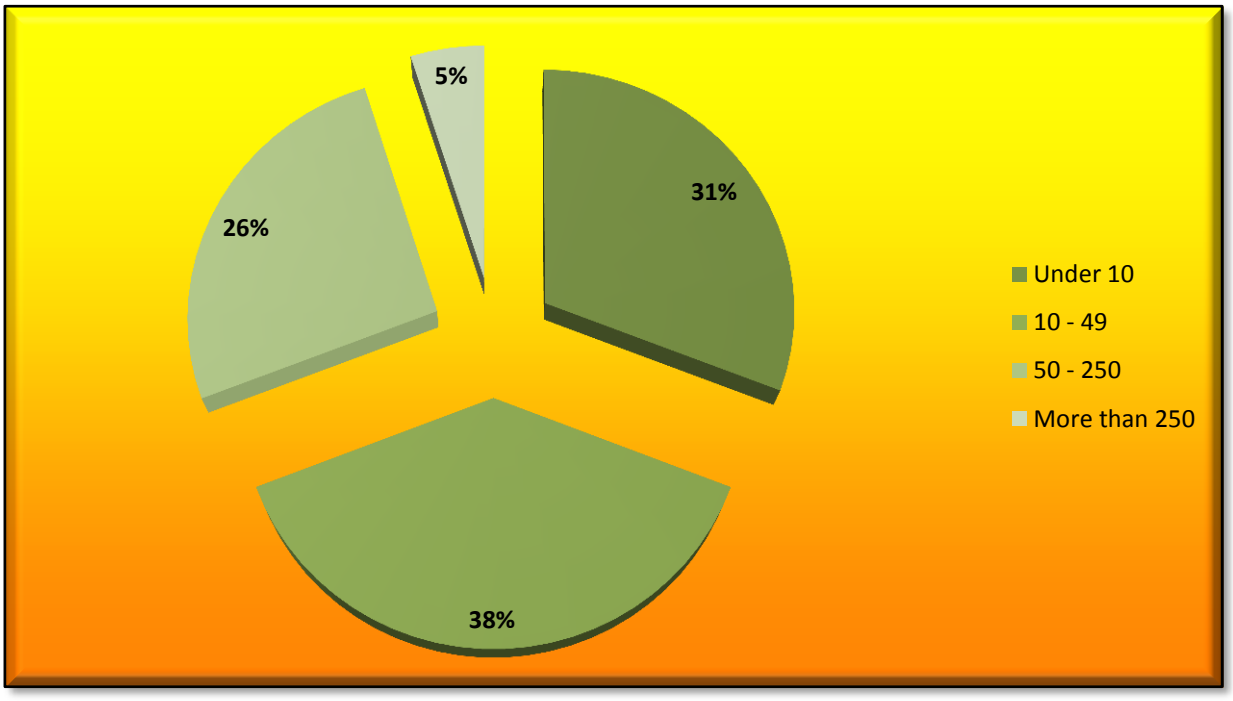

FIGURE 4.2: Size of organisation

The following section discusses the respondents' level of education.

4.2.3 Level of education

Figure 4.3 illustrates the distribution of respondents by level of education.

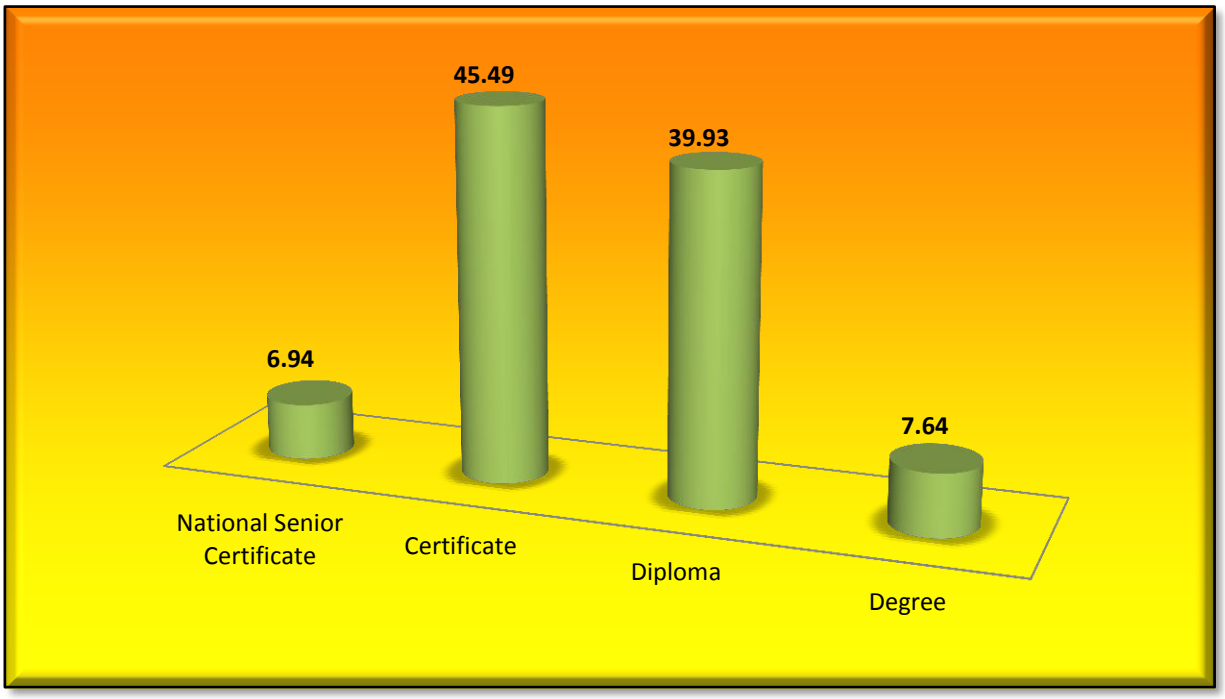

FIGURE 4.3: Level of education

Figure 4.3 indicates that the majority of respondents have certificates, 45.49% (n=131) and diplomas 39.93% (n=115). Respondents with degrees account for 7.64% (n=23) of the respondents. The least represented level of education is the National Senior Certificate at 6.94% (n=20) resulting in 289 respondents (N=289). The low percentage of respondents with a National Senior Certificate suggests that tourism employers consider educational qualifications for employment to be important for operating in a tourism business environment. The finding differs from international literature (Peacock and Ladkin, as quoted by Petrova and Mason, 2004:104; Petrova and Mason, 2004:100; and O'Leary and Deegan, 2005:422) which suggests that the majority of tourism employers do not value educational background for employment in the tourism industry.

4.2.4 Position in organisation

Figure 4.4 indicates a breakdown of respondents according to positions they occupy in the organisations that participated in this study. Respondents are more or less equally distributed between other 47.40% (n=137) and manager or supervisor only at 46.03% (n=133). The owner and manager or supervisor category is 5.88 % (n=17) and the owner only category is represented by 0.69% (n=2) of respondents resulting in 289 respondents (N=289).

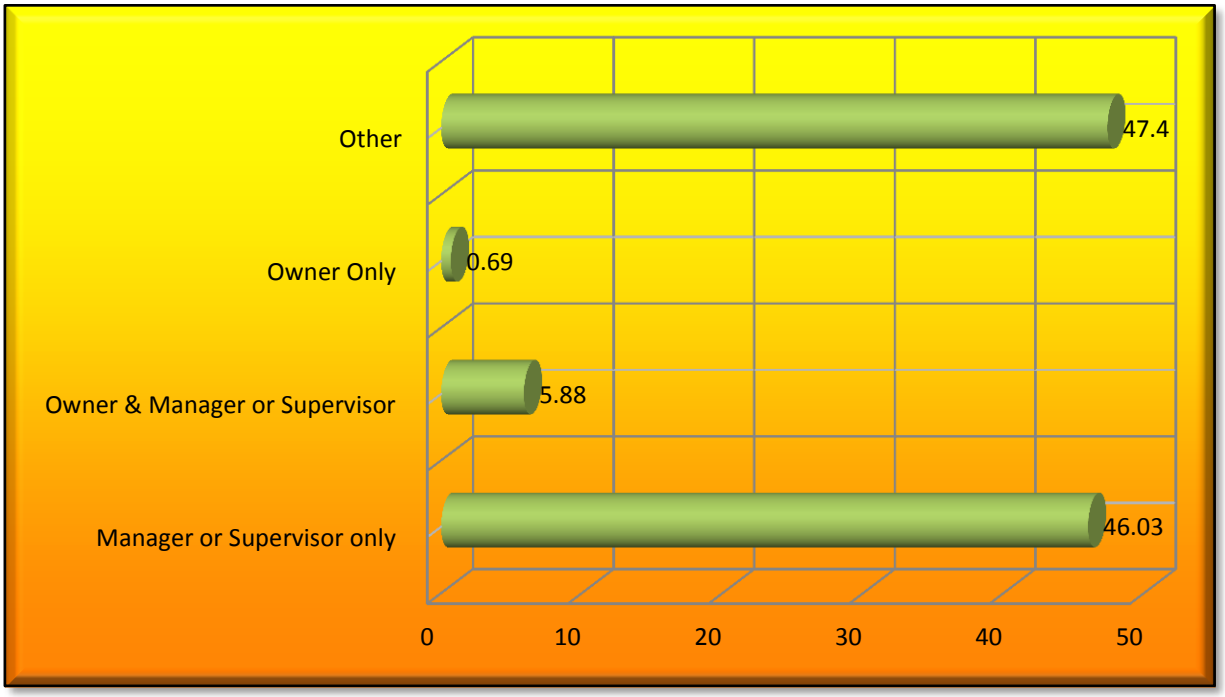

FIGURE 4.4: Position in organisation

In the next section, findings on the skills that are regarded as important for employment in the tourism industry will be discussed.

4.3 TOURISM SKILLS

Chapter 2 of the literature review (2.2.2.2) discusses the major studies that have informed tourism knowledge as it is known today. The current National Diploma: Tourism Management offered at TUT does exhibit some characteristics of tourism knowledge as in reflected in literature (c.f. 3.5). For this reason, Koh's study (1995:71) that concluded that tourism curriculum should comprise 26 elements classified under general education, business education, tourism education and experiential education was used as a guideline in formulating skills clusters for the questionnaire for Section C. Additionally, information technology was incorporated as an area of skills to indicate that this study recognises other studies as indicated in 2.2.2.2. The questionnaire was further structured using the current National Diploma: Tourism Management offered at TUT to incorporate information on industry courses used in the tourism industry as identified in Chapter 3 (3.5).

Based on the reasons provided above, the resultant skills related categories used in the questionnaire (section c) for this study are: general skills, language skills, information technology skills, business education skills, tourism specific knowledge, Work Integrated Learning and industry courses such as Galileo and Opera (Annexure A, Section C).

4.3.1 General skills

Participants were asked to rate the importance of the 18 general skills for employment in the tourism industry on a four point Likert scale. The Likert scale is discussed under 1.5.2.3.

The literature review conducted in Chapter 3, identified 18 general skills. As indicated in Chapter 3, researchers such as Burke *et al*. (2005:133), Singh-Lather et al. (2011:11), Yorke and Knight (2006:2), Griesel and Parker (2009:1), Ahmed and Crossman (2008:61), Wang et al. (2009:64), Zebrer and Mőssenlechner (2009:269) report that employers are increasingly placing an emphasis on general skills when recruiting for employment. At TUT, the National Diploma: Tourism Management has embedded these skills in the qualification as Critical Cross Field Outcomes as indicated in Chapter 3 (3.4). The ranking of the general skills by tourism employers is summarised in Table 4.1 in a descending order, where the most crucial skills are listed at the top of the table and the skills with the lowest score appear at the bottom of the table.

According to Table 4.1, the importance attributed to the 18 general skills by tourism employers ranged from 2.71 to 3.64 with the mean value of 3.202 (*M = 3.202).*

TABLE 4.1: General Skills

Skills	Level of importance Mean Score	Std. Deviation
Customer service skills	3.64	0.596
Attention to detail	3.56	0.648
Confidence	3.51	0.641
Adaptability at work	3.45	0.661
Critical thinking	3.45	0.671
Computer literacy	3.37	0.686
Social skills	3.29	0.767
Organisational skills	3.26	0.814
Written communication skills	3.25	0.767
Creativity	3.23	0.811
Interpersonal skills	3.19	0.802
Oral communication	3.12	0.881
Negotiation skills	3.03	0.781
Ethical/social responsibilities	2.98	0.962
Arithmetical skills	2.93	0.783
Cultural sensitivity	2.84	0.92
Natural resource use and related issues	2.83	0.974
Cultures of the world	2.71	0.952
Total Average Score	**3.202**	**-**

Table 4.1 suggests that, according to tourism employers' views, the top three general skills for tourism employment are customer service skills (*m* = 3.64, *SD* = 0.596) attention to detail (*m* = 3.56, *SD* =0.648) and confidence (*m* = 3.51, *SD* = 0.641). It was surprising to see that written communication (*m* = 3.25, *SD* = 0.767) is viewed to be more important than oral communication (*m* = 3.12, *SD* = 0.881) in a service oriented industry. It is further surprising to see that least important skills

were perceived to be the cultures of the world (*M* = 2.71, *SD* = 0.952) in an industry that deal with people from different parts of the world.

By and large, Table 4.1 suggests that employers consider all general skills evaluated as important for employment in the tourism industry. This result is consistent with findings by Koh (1995:71) and Wang et al. (2009:65) as discussed in Chapters 2 and 3 respectively.

An open–ended question prompted respondents to add any other General Skills that were not listed on the questionnaire that employers considered to be important. The majority of respondents did not answer this question. Those who did answer indicated that they would like to see more computer operations, professionalism, telephone skills and using office technology such as photocopiers included as important general skills. Computer operations are covered in the subject End–User Computing.

4.3.2. Language skills

Table 4.2 indicates that employers value proficiency in English the highest (*M* = 3.94, *SD* = 0.27) as a language skill. The expectation for employees to be proficient in the language of business in South Africa is not surprising.

TABLE 4.2: Language Skills (*n*=289*)*

Language Skills	Level of importance Mean Score	Std. Deviation
English	3.94	0.27
Indigenous languages	1.88	0.953
Foreign languages	1.67	0.884
Total Average Score	2.50	-

Additionally, Table 4.2 indicates that foreign languages (*M* = 1.67, *SD* = 0.884) were perceived as less important when compared to English (*M* = 3.94, *SD* = 0.27) and indigenous languages (*M* = 1.88, *SD* = 0.953). This finding corroborates the views of industry representatives who are members of the Advisory Committee for the Department of Tourism Management regarding the inclusion of foreign languages and indigenous languages in the qualification. At an Advisory Committee Meeting on the 3rd of June 2013, members were of the opinion that students must be proficient in the language of business in South Africa (English). Currently, basic German, Spanish and French are included for one year in the National Diploma: Tourism Management. According to members of the Advisory Committee, one year is not sufficient for a student who is taking any language for the first time to become proficient in that language.

Additionally, Table 4.2 indicates that indigenous languages are regarded as less important than English, although they were more valued when compared to foreign languages. The following section discusses information technology skills.

4.3.3 Information technology skills

Table 4.3 summarises the importance of information technology skills for tourism employment.

TABLE 4.3: Information Technology (*n*=289)

Skills	Level of importance Mean Score	St. Deviation
Microsoft Packages (MS Word, Excel, Power Point, MS Project)	3.69	.651
On-line marketing	2.11	1.089
E-commerce	2.11	1.082
Total Average Score	**2.64**	**-**

The highest information technology skill is associated with Microsoft Packages (*M* = 3.69, *SD* = 0.651) and the lowest rated information technology skills are associated with online marketing and e-commerce (*M* = 2.11, *SD* = 1.089 & M=2.11, SD=1.082).

Table 4.3 indicates that employers rate the ability to use Microsoft Packages as extremely important. All students are exposed to Microsoft Packages through a compulsory subject, End-User Computing in their first year of the National Diploma: Tourism Management at TUT.

4.3.4 Business Education

The current National Diploma: Tourism Management offered at TUT offers Tourism Management as a subject for levels I to III and Marketing for Tourism I and II. Details of subjects are discussed in Chapter 3 (Table 3.10). Table 4.4, below, summarises tourism employers' views on the importance of business education for tourism employment.

TABLE 4.4: Business Education (*n*=289)

Skills	Level of importance Mean Score	Std. Deviation
Business management theory	2.99	0.898
Financial management	2.89	0.918
Human resources management	2.83	0.96
Economics of tourism	2.83	0.94
Entrepreneurship and innovation	2.77	0.939
Accounting	2.76	0.899
Marketing theories	2.62	0.942
Total Average Score	**2.84**	

Table 4.4 indicates that employers perceive business management theory (*m* = 2.99, *SD* = 0.898) as the most important business education skill while marketing theory (*m* = 2.62, *SD* = 0.942) was ranked as the least important business education skill. The mean scores for business education skills as indicated in Table 4.4 suggest that tourism employers perceive all business skills identified to be important for tourism employment.

4.3.5 Tourism-specific knowledge

In addition to Koh's study (1995:71) tourism specific knowledge for this study was compiled from the current National Diploma: Tourism Managements' curriculum offered at TUT. The curriculum is described in Chapter 3. Tourism knowledge required to work in the tourism industry was condensed into the major subjects offered in the current National Diploma: Tourism Management offered at TUT, namely Tourism Development (skills to plan and develop different types of tourism destinations, taking into account the different types of tourists in a sustainable manner), and Travel and Tourism Practice (ability to perform operational and technical skills in the travel and hospitality sub sectors of the tourism industry).

The importance attributed to tourism-specific knowledge by tourism industry employers is highlighted in Table 4.5.

TABLE 4.5: Tourism-Specific Knowledge (*n*=289)

Skills	Level of importance Mean Score	Std. Deviation
Product knowledge	3.43	0.768
Tourism geography	3.18	0.78
Passenger transport	3.15	0.89
The Structure of the Tourism Industry	3.06	0.834
The Significance and Impact of Tourism	3.06	0.852
Tour operations	3.05	0.899
Tourism development policies	3.02	0.807
Special events, meeting and conferences	3.02	0.908
Sustainable Tourism Planning and Development	3.01	0.794

Conducting tours	3.01	0.905
Sustainable tourism	2.99	0.893
Dynamics and significance of the tourism industry	2.96	0.884
Principles of tourism planning/design	2.96	0.839
Tourist guiding	2.94	0.945
Tourism law	2.91	0.969
Tourist safety and security issues	2.91	0.965
Up selling	2.9	0.463
Integrating case studies	2.88	0.435
Contemporary issues in tourism	2.86	0.827
Risk management	2.83	0.932
Facility planning	2.8	0.866
Front office management	2.43	1.102
Advance Research Methods and Tourism Forecasting	2.43	1.025
Hospitality management	2.35	1.135
Statistics for tourism research	2.28	1.049
Night audits	2.17	1.146
Mini dissertation	2.12	1.02
Yield management	2.08	0.98
Total Average Score	**2.81**	-

According to Table 4.5, product knowledge (*M* = 3.43, *SD* = 0.768), tourism geography (*M* = 3.18, *SD* = 0.78), passenger transport (*M* = 3.15, *SD* = 0.89), the structure of the tourism industry (*M* = 3.06, *SD* = 0.884) and the significance and impact of tourism (*M* = 3.05, *SD* = 0.0.899) were perceived to be the most important tourism-specific knowledge. The least important skills were perceived to be the night audits (*M* = 2.17, *SD* = 1.146), mini dissertation (*M* = 2.12, *SD* = 1.02) and yield management (*M* = 2.08, *SD* = 0.98).

Overall, Table 4.5 suggests that employers perceive all tourism-specific skills as important based on the mean scores ranging from 2.08 to 3.43, with 2.81 as the mean value. The findings are consistent with recommendations that are made in tourism education literature by researchers such as Koh (1995:71), Holloway (1995:2), Busby (2001:38), Hunter-Jones (quoted by Busby, 2001:31), Bukart and Medlink (quoted by Airey, 2005:20) Wang et al. (2009:65) and Ring et al. (2009:109) who point to the importance of the identified tourism-specific knowledge for tourism education leading to tourism employment.

An open-ended question prompted respondents to suggest other tourism specific skills that are necessary for employment in the tourism industry. Most respondents did not answer this question. Those who did answer indicated refunds and basic travel information. The suggestions come from the travel sector of the industry. This was a surprising result because refunds are part of the content for the industry course Within Africa Fares and travel agents are expected to have this information as it forms part of their training.

4.3.6 Industry courses

Table 4.6 provides an indication of how respondents rated the importance of including tourism industry courses as content in a three year Diploma in Tourism Management. The list of industry courses is the result of analysing the current TUT National Diploma: Tourism Management, as discussed in Chapter 3.

TABLE 4.6: Industry Courses (*n*=289)

Industry course	Level of importance Mean Score	Std. Deviation
Galileo	3.41	1.002
Amadeus	2.97	1.057
Opera	2.57	1.114
Back office accounting (e.g. Quicktrav)	2.23	1.04
Tourplan	2.41	1.07
Travel Agency Operations	2.51	1.112
Summit	1.87	0.958
GIS	2.07	1.022
GPS	2.9	1.007
Pastel accounting	1.9	1.074
Within Africa Fares	1.75	1.028
Total Average Score	**2.42**	**-**

The general response for industry courses indicates that employers rate them as important with some skills rated less important as indicated in Table 4.6. Galileo (*M* = 3.41, *SD* = 1.002) and Amadeus (*M* = 2.97, *SD* = 1.057) are rated the top two industry courses, while Pastel accounting (*M* = 1.9, *SD* = 1.074) and Within Africa Fares *(M* = 1.75, SD = 1.028) are rated as the least important industry courses. The Within Africa Fares result is surprising, considering that it forms the basis for training Galileo and Amadeus which are rated as the top two industry courses.

In addition to this, respondents were asked to list other industry courses that they considered to be important but which did form part of the survey list. Most respondents did not answer this question. Respondents who answered this

question suggested Basic Guiding, Provincial Guiding, First Aid Level 1, Micros Point of Sale, Opera Sales and Catering, Fares Rules, SA Host and Foreign Currency.

4.3.7 Work Integrated Learning

More than half (53%) of the respondents (n = 152) indicated that it was important to include WIL (experiential learning) in the three year National Diploma: Tourism Management. However, they differed in terms of when WIL should take place. A small group of respondents (3%, n = 9) indicated that students will benefit from exposure to the industry from the first year of study, while more than half (56%, n =164) indicated that students must undergo WIL training at the end of their studies. The weakness of this question was to leave it as an open-ended question. It would have provided conclusive evidence if it was a closed question, followed by an open-ended question, like the rest of the questions.

Data for this study was subjected to further statistical testing. The following section discusses the results of statistical tests that were performed for this study commencing with the results of an exploratory factor analysis.

4.4 FACTOR ANALYSIS

According to Field (2009:731) factor analysis is a technique used to identify whether the correlation between a set of observed variables stems from their relationship to one or more latent variables in the data. Field (2009:731) further

suggests that factor analysis is useful for investigating construct validity. Furthermore, Babbie and Mouton (2007:472) advise that the exploratory factor analysis (EFA) is generally used to discover the factor structure of a measure and to examine its internal reliability. By performing EFA, the number of constructs and the underlying factor structure are identified. Moreover, Field (2009:647) suggests that EFA is often recommended when researchers have no hypotheses about the nature of the underlying factor structure of their measure. In this study it was appropriate to perform an EFA as there was no hypothesised factor structure of the observed data. The EFA was performed to gather information about the interrelationship among the observed variables to identify latent constructs. The investigation of the constructs aimed to produce results that were more meaningful by grouping similar skills sets together that might reflect latent variables or constructs, which are easier to understand and quantify by the various tourism sectors for employment in the tourism industry.

The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy (KMO) was used to justify that there is enough intercorrelation between the variables to justify the factor analysis. This measure quantifies the degree of intercorrelation among the observed variables entered into the analysis. According to Field (2009:647) the KMO statistic varies between 0 and 1. A value of 1 indicates that the variable can be perfectly predicted without error by the other variables and a value of 0 indicates that the variable cannot be predicted by the other variables. A high degree of intercorrelation is needed in a factor analysis in order to obtain reliable constructs, therefore, the higher the KMO the better. The overall KMO for items in question 5 of section B of the questionnaire (Annexure A) is 0.897; therefore,

these items have a high level of intercorrelation and can thus produce reliable constructs. Likewise, question 12 items of the questionnaire produced an overall KMO = 0.911 suggesting a high degree of inter correlation that can produce reliable constructs as advised by Field (2009:647).

The factor extraction was performed using Kaiser's criterion (Field, 2009:640) which recommends retaining factors with eigenvalues greater than 1 as significant. Field (2009:640) further proposes that all factors with eigenvalues of less than 1 are considered insignificant and disregarded. The rationale is that any individual factor should account for the variance of at least a single variable if it is to be retained for interpretation. The decision to use Kaiser's criterion instead of a scree plot for factor extraction was directed by Field's (2009:641) advice that Kaiser's criterion is accurate when the sample size is more than 250 and the average communality is greater than or equal to 0.6. This study worked with an effective sample of 289 observations which is more than sufficient for the required analysis. Factor loadings were rotated using the orthogonal (VARIMAX) rotation method which produced the rotated factor loadings as indicated in Table 4.7 and Table 4.8. Factor loadings between 0.5 and more were regarded as significant and therefore only variables with factor loadings greater than 0.5 were retained in determining the factors. These variables are highlighted in the rotated factor loading tables in each section. The rotated factor loadings are used since the goal of any rotation is to obtain some theoretically meaningful factors with the simplest factor structure.

Section C of the questionnaire comprises questions 7 to 18 addressing skills as described in 1.5.2.3. Out of the twelve (12) questions, only two questions, general skills and tourism-specific knowledge, comprised sufficient items to be used for a factor analysis. To keep the two questions independent, two separate factor analysies were conducted for the general skills and tourism-specific knowledge. No factor analysis was conducted on the other skills sets namely: languages, information technology, business education and industry courses, as none of these questions had sufficient items to support a factor analysis.

The following section discusses the factor analysis for general skills and tourism-specific knowledge.

4.4.1 General skills

For general skills, three factors were retained. The cumulative percentage of the variance extracted by the three retained factors is 71.53% (12.8746/18 = 0.71525). Therefore, almost 72% of the variation in the original data set is retained by reducing the number of observed variables from 18 to three latent variables or factors.

TABLE 4.7: Pattern coefficients: general skills

	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3
Constructs	**Cultural awareness Skills**	**Cognitive abilities**	**Information literacy and communication skills**
Cronbach's Alpha	**0.9228**	**0.891987**	**0.901555**
Cultures of the world	**0.89832**	0.12343	0.14601
Cultural sensitivity	**0.89029**	0.12972	0.15235
Natural resource use	**0.85952**	0.06806	0.14574
Ethical/social responsibility	**0.79264**	0.29281	0.24883
Presentation skills	**0.58162**	0.30823	0.49099
Adaptability at work	0.15386	**0.86045**	0.17223
Critical thinking	0.30063	**0.78208**	0.26645
Attention to detail	-0.09173	**0.77613**	0.29438
Confidence	0.29960	**0.77383**	0.28916
Creativity	0.40121	**0.67039**	0.15881
Customer service skills	0.02321	**0.57918**	0.49149
Computer literacy	-0.07419	0.27887	**0.77569**
Arithmetical skills	0.32795	0.18638	**0.65697**
Written communication	0.46820	0.19752	**0.64445**
Negotiation skills	0.45250	0.32150	**0.58485**
Organisational skills	0.40454	0.40994	**0.57473**
Social skills	0.45262	0.47359	**0.55305**
Interpersonal skills	0.46741	0.49666	**0.53775**

Table 4.7 depicts the rotated factor loadings where factor loadings between 0.5 and more were regarded as significant. In Table 4.7, the highlighted factor loadings indicate the three retained factors.

4.4.2 Tourism-specific knowledge

Four factors were retained for tourism-specific knowledge, explaining 73.63%, which is almost 74% of variance. The dataset was reduced from 28 to four latent variables.

TABLE 4.8: Pattern coefficients: tourism-specific knowledge

	Factor 4	Factor 5	Factor 6	Factor 7
Constructs	**Tourism knowledge Skills**	**Research skills**	**Tour operating and guiding**	**Accommodation skills**
Cronbach's Alpha	**0.950368**	**0.940405**	**0.934795**	**0.787026**
The structure of the tourism industry	**0.86258**	0.05174	0.14534	0.00446
The significance and impact of tourism	**0.84807**	0.15534	0.21265	-0.00116
Dynamics and significance of the tourism industry	**0.80588**	0.01251	0.14590	-0.02166
Tourism geography	**0.79184**	0.00715	0.11198	-0.14496
Contemporary issues in tourism	**0.78593**	0.16741	0.27783	-0.01148
Tourism development policies	**0.77465**	0.22402	0.31338	0.13385
Product knowledge	**0.75231**	0.06107	0.21274	0.05067
Sustainable tourism planning and development	**0.75223**	0.18823	0.34862	0.21802
Principles of tourism	**0.75013**	0.22002	0.31564	0.25543

planning/design				
Passenger transport	**0.65675**	-0.04736	0.23933	0.10735
Special events, meeting and conferences	**0.62498**	0.02049	0.30806	0.24586
Sustainable tourism	**0.62186**	0.14707	0.38098	0.34802
Facility planning	**0.60846**	0.09709	0.45277	0.31538
Mini dissertation	0.04664	**0.94190**	0.10674	0.09548
Yield management	0.03467	**0.92095**	0.14016	0.14362
Integrating case studies	0.02252	**0.91993**	0.15213	0.15682
Up selling	0.06946	**0.88889**	0.06588	0.13715
Statistics for tourism research	0.13473	**0.76994**	0.22625	0.19203
Advance research methods and tourism forecasting	0.31268	**0.67488**	0.21216	0.15855
Conducting tours	0.29876	0.08874	**0.85977**	0.03211
Tourist guiding	0.35113	0.17202	**0.82301**	0.02579
Tour operations	0.38636	0.10664	**0.78133**	0.12718
Tourism law	0.43467	0.29389	**0.75959**	0.05558
Tourist safety and security issues	0.46468	0.30275	**0.65451**	0.09501
Risk management	0.50263	0.39339	**0.52101**	0.10305
Night audits	0.03865	0.25491	0.14332	**0.77718**
Hospitality management	0.12661	0.31514	0.07462	**0.76070**
Front office management	0.09096	0.57978	-0.07775	**0.58954**

Table 4.8 depicts the rotated factor loadings where factor loadings between 0.5 and more were regarded as significant. In Table 4.8, the highlighted factor loadings indicate the four retained factors.

Table 4.7 and Table 4.8 further indicate the Cronbach's Alpha that was conducted on extracted factors to measure internal consistency or reliability on the constructs (factors) proposed by the factor analysis. The Cronbach's Alpha is a measure based on the correlations between different items on the same scale (Field, 2009:673). A Cronbach's Alpha between 0.6 and 0.7 is regarded as acceptable reliability, and 0.8 or higher indicates good reliability (Field, 2009:675). In this study, the Cronbach's Alpha value suggests that all factors are reliable as indicated in Table 4.7.and Table 4.8. The following section will discuss the results of different factors uncovered in Table 4.7 and Table 4.8.

4.4.3 Retained factors

The following section provides a detailed discussion of factor 1 to factor 3 which relate to General Skills while factors 4 to 7 relate to Tourism Specific Knowledge.

4.4.3.1 Factor 1: Cultural awareness skills

Factor 1 as indicated in Table 4.7, has a Cronbach's Alpha value of 0.9228. The following items constitute factor 1:

- Cultures of the world
- Cultural sensitivity
- Natural resource use

- Ethical/social responsibility
- Presentation skills

The first observation made with regards to factor 1 is that it supports the Critical Cross Field Outcomes adopted by SAQA (S.a:18). The attributes are embedded in TUT's National Diploma: Tourism Management as Critical Cross Field Outcomes. The skills included in factor 1 can be associated with the following Critical Cross Field Outcomes:

- be culturally and aesthetically sensitive across a range of social contexts in managing and interacting with diverse people in the workplace,
- identify and solve problems and make responsible ethical decisions within own limit of authority, and
- demonstrate an understanding of the world as a set of related systems.

The second observation regarding factor 1 is that the module Destinations which forms part of the subject Travel and Tourism Practice (see Table 3.9, exit level outcome 3) includes cultures of the tourism destinations that are incorporated as part of the curriculum of the National Diploma: Tourism Management offered at TUT. Surprisingly, Table 4.1 indicates that tourism employers do not place much importance on the cultures of the world.

Thirdly, natural resource use can be linked to the subject Tourism Development (see Table 3.9, exit level outcome 1 and 2). In the last place, social responsibility can be associated with the subject Tourism Management and presentation skills (see Table 3.9) which are embedded in the curriculum through oral presentations

from subjects such as Tourism Management, Marketing for Tourism, and Tourism Development.

4.4.3.2 Factor 2: Cognitive abilities skills

Factor 2 has a Cronbach's Alpha value of 0.891987 relating to good reliability as depicted In Table 4.7. This factor consists of the following items:

- Adaptability at work
- Critical thinking
- Attention to detail
- Confidence
- Creativity
- Customer service skills

Factor 2 ties in well with the Critical Cross Field Outcome: Collect, organise and critically evaluate information which is a higher order thinking skill. Wang et al. (2009:65) identify the same attributes in factor 2 as important for tourism education and employment in their study on tourism education.

The content analysis of the curriculum content of the National Diploma: Tourism Management (discussed in chapter 3) reveals that factor 2 which deals with higher order thinking skills is addressed in the assessment statements of the Department of Tourism Management at TUT provided in their study guides. Therefore, it can be concluded that creativity, attention to detail and confidence are incorporated

through assessment methods used that include tests, assignments and oral presentations.

Additionally, factor 2 includes customer service skills and adaptability at work which are skills that do not appear clearly on any of the learning subjects that are offered in the National Diploma: Tourism Management. It is important to note that customer service skills and adaptability at works mean scores of employers' importance rating were among the highest scores as indicated in Table 4.1 (ranking mean scores of 3.46 and 3.45 respectively on a scale of 1 to 4).

4.4.3.3 Factor 3: Information literacy and communication skills

Factor 3 has a Cronbach Alpha value of 0.901555 relating to good reliability as indicated in Table 4.7. Factor 3 consists of the following items:

- Computer literacy
- Arithmetical skills
- Written communication
- Negotiation skills
- Organisational skills
- Social skills
- Interpersonal skills

Factor 3 relates to with the Critical Cross Field Outcome: Communicate effectively using visual, mathematics and language skills in the modes of oral and or written

presentations. The attributes addressed by this factor are also identified by Wang et al. (2009:65) as important for tourism employment.

The National Diploma: Tourism Management offered at TUT incorporates End-User Computing and Communication English 1 as subjects. In addition, the subject Tourism Management incorporates elements of organising and finance. The students' mathematical ability is further cultivated in the subject Travel and Tourism Practice in the module Travel Agency Operations. Skills that are not clearly catered for within the curriculum at TUT's National Diploma: Tourism Management are negotiating skills and interpersonal skills. An analysis of Table 4.1 indicates that tourism employers consider these skills as very important, with mean scores of 3.19 and 3.03 respectively.

4.4.3.4 Factor 4: Tourism Knowledge Skills

The skills identified in factor 4 in Table 4.8, can be described as tourism knowledge skills. These skills set out a range of tourism competencies as posited by Airey (2005:21), Holloway (1995:2), Busby (2001:38) and Ring et al. (2009:109). A detailed discussion of the core body of tourism knowledge can be found in chapter 2 of this study. Factor 4 comprise of the following items:

- The Structure of the Tourism Industry
- The Significance and Impact of Tourism
- Dynamics and Significance of the Tourism Industry
- Tourism Geography
- Contemporary Issues in Tourism

- Tourism Development Policies
- Product Knowledge
- Sustainable Tourism Planning and Development
- Principles of Tourism Planning/Design
- Passenger Transport
- Special Events, Meeting and Conferences
- Sustainable Tourism
- Facility Planning

Table 4.8 portrays that this construct has a Cronbach Alpha value of 0.950368 suggesting a good reliability between the items used to form this construct.

The topics “Structure of the Tourism Industry, the Significance and Impact of Tourism, Dynamics and Significance of the Tourism Industry, Tourism Development Policies, Sustainable Tourism Planning and Development, Principles of Tourism Planning/Design, Contemporary issues in Tourism and Sustainable Tourism” are incorporated into the subject Tourism Development I, II and III which is a major subject in the National Diploma: Tourism Management offered at TUT. Table 4.5 indicates that employers perceive these skills as very important for tourism employment.

Additionally, the subject ‘Travel and Tourism Practice I, II & III includes Passenger Transport, Special Events, Meeting And Conferences, Tourism Geography, Facility Planning and Product Knowledge as topics in the National Diploma:

Tourism Management offered at TUT. Table 4.5 indicates that employers perceive these skills as very important for tourism employment.

4.4.3.5 Factor 5: Research Skills

Factor 5 can be linked to Research Skills identified by Wang et al. (2009:65) as indicated in chapter 3. The items for factor 5 include:

- Mini dissertation
- Integrating case studies
- Up selling
- Statistics for tourism research
- Yield management
- Advance research methods and tourism forecasting.

The Cronbach Alpha value for this factor is 0.940405 which suggests good reliability. The employers' rating of the importance of the skills included in factor 5 on Table 4.5 range from 2.90 to 2.08 indicating that the skills are important. The two highest rated skills within factor 5 are up selling (2.90) and yield management (2.88) and these skills are covered as topics in Travel and Tourism Practice II under the module Front Office Management.

4.4.3.6 Factor 6: Tour operating and guiding skills

The Cronbach Alpha value for factor 6 is 0.934795 as indicated in Table 4.8. This indicates a good reliability. Items included in factor 6 are:

- Conducting tours
- Tourist guiding
- Tour operations
- Tourism law
- Tourist safety and security issues
- Risk management.

George (2007:132-136) and Lubbe (2000:287-317) list the majority of the skills identified in factor 6 as skills utilised in the tour operating environment. The employers' rating of the importance of the skills included in factor 6 on Table 4.5 range from 3.05 to 2.83 indicating that the skills are important. With the exception of tourist guiding and risk management, skills included in factor 6 are covered in subjects Travel and Tourism Practice and Law for Tourism.

4.4.3.7 Factor 7: Hospitality operations skills

Table 4.7 indicates that this factor has a Cronbach Alpha of 0.787026 which is an acceptable reliability. The items included in this construct are unequivocally hospitality-related, including:

- Night audits
- Hospitality management
- Front office management.

Woods et al, (2007:110-115) identify the skills outlined in factor 7 as important to operate in the hospitality environment. The topics are covered under a module of Front Office Management within the subject Travel and Tourism Practice.

The following section investigates whether observations/respondents can be grouped based on the characteristics they possess in terms of the 7 factors identified using a clustering algorithm. In order to calculate the seven factor scores, the mean score across all the relevant items per factor was calculated for every respondent. These mean scores were used in the subsequent cluster analysis.

4.5 CLUSTER ANALYSIS

A cluster analysis groups respondents across a set of meaningful characteristics. For this study, a cluster analysis was conducted to determine whether observations/respondents could be grouped based on the characteristics they possess emanating from the 7 retained factors from the factor analysis. The main aims of this chapter as identified in 4.1 principally address skills and knowledge requirements to work in the tourism industry, the gaps between the curriculum content of TUT's National Diploma: Tourism Management, and the skills and knowledge requirements of tourism industry employers. The literature review and questionnaire produced an abundance of data that was not manageable. The factor analysis condensed the data into manageable groups. Based on the results of the factor analysis, it was deemed important to further identify specific sectors of the industry that attach importance to the skills sets identified by the factor

analysis. The aim of this identification was to assist the study in making inferences based on the grouped skills, the apparent gaps that exist between the content of TUT's National Diploma: Tourism Management, and the skills and knowledge requirements of the industry employers.

By performing a cluster analysis, the resulting groups should show a high internal (within-group) homogeneity and high external (between-group) heterogeneity based on the proposed set of characteristics. From the cluster analysis the research aimed to establish whether there are different groups within the tourism industry who attach different levels of importance to the following seven characteristics, namely cultural awareness skills, cognitive abilities skills, information literacy and communication skills, tourism knowledge skills, research skills, tour operating and guiding skills, hospitality operations skills.

Ward's method was used as clustering algorithm as an example of a hierarchical clustering algorithm. By using Ward's method the distance between two clusters is the sum of squares between the two clusters summed over all variables. At each stage in the clustering procedure the within-cluster sum of squares is minimised over all the partitions obtainable by combining two clusters from the previous stage. Based on the results of the clustering algorithms it was decided to retain 2 clusters as seen in Figure 4.5.

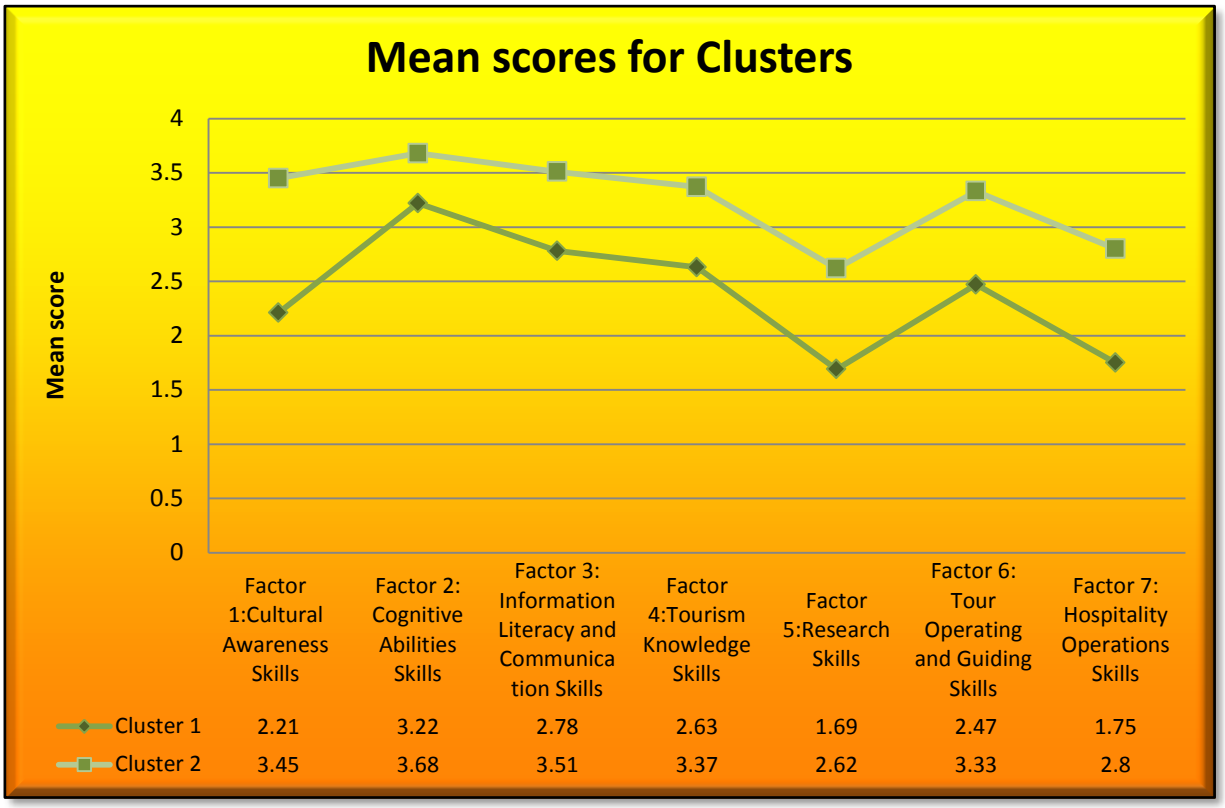

FIGURE 4.5: Cluster analysis

From Figure 4.5 it can be seen that the clusters differ in rating the importance of the seven factors as skills that are perceived to be important for employment in the tourism industry. In cluster 1/group 1 the mean scores for respondents range from 3.22 (cognitive skills) to 1.69, with the lowest mean scores for research skills and hospitality operations (1.69 and 1.75 respectively). In cluster 2/group 2 the mean scores for respondents range from 3.68 (cognitive skills) to 2.62, with the lowest mean scores for research skills and hospitality operations (2.62 and 2.8 respectively). It can be seen that the respondents in cluster 2 attached a higher importance to the different skills sets compared to those of cluster 1, since the mean scores associated with each skill was significantly higher in cluster 2 compared to cluster 1. The seven factors retained from the factor analysis were further subjected to statistical testing using the Kruskal-Wallis test. The results of

these findings are discussed in section 4.6 where the Kruskal-Wallis results are presented.

In order to understand the profile of typical respondents in cluster 1 and cluster 2 the chi-square tests were conducted on the following demographic variables:

- tourism sector represented,
- the size of organisation,
- highest qualification, and
- position in organisation of the respondents.

4.5.1 Chi-square test: tourism sector represented

A chi-square test for independence was conducted for the two clusters and the tourism sector represented. An alpha level of 0.05 was used, where a significance p-value of less than or equal to 0.05 ($p \leq 0.05$) shows that the cluster into which a respondent is grouped is dependent on the tourism sector of the respondent at 95% confidence level. A p-value greater than or equal to 0.05 ($p \geq 0.05$) suggests that the cluster into which a respondent is grouped in, is not dependent on the tourism sector of the respondent. The p-value for the chi-square test between the clusters and the tourism sectors is $p<.0001$. From this the conclusion follows that the cluster into which a respondent is grouped is dependent on the tourism sector of the respondent.

4.5.2 Chi-square test: the size of organisation and highest qualification.

An alpha level of 0.05 was used, where a significance p-value of less than or equal to 0.05 ($p \leq 0.05$) shows that the size of organisation and the highest qualification of the respondent is dependent on the tourism sector at 95% confidence level. A p-value greater than or equal to 0.05 ($p \geq 0.05$) suggests that the cluster into which a respondent is grouped is not dependent on the tourism sector of the respondent. Comparing $p<.0001$ for the size of organisation and $p<.0001$ for the highest level of education to the level of significance of 0.05, it can be seen that the p-value is less than the level of significance. The conclusion therefore is, there is enough statistical evidence to suggest that the cluster into which a respondent is grouped is dependent on the size of organisation and education level in which the respondent works.

4.5.3 Chi-square: the position held in an organisation

Again, a chi-square test for independence was conducted for the two clusters and the position held in an organisation. An alpha level of 0.05 was used, where a significance p-value of less than or equal to 0.05 ($p \leq 0.05$) shows that the cluster into which a respondent is grouped is dependent on the position held in an organisation by the respondent at 95% confidence level. A p-value greater than or equal to 0.05 ($p \geq 0.05$) suggests that the cluster into which a respondent is grouped is not dependent the position held in an organisation by the respondent. The p-value for the chi-square test between the clusters and the tourism sectors is $p – 0.3056$. Hence, concluding that the cluster into which a respondent is grouped is not dependent on the position held in an organisation by the respondent.

To understand the skills needs of the two identified clusters, Table 4.9 highlights the differences in the clusters by indicating which sectors of the industry are represented the most in each cluster. Table 4.9 depicts cluster representation by tourism sector represented.

TABLE 4.9: Cluster representation by tourism sector

	Hospitality	Car/Coach hire	Heritage sites/ Museums	Tour Operators	Travel Agents	Other
Cluster 1	7.20	44.00	00.00	30.40	16.00	2.40
Cluster 2	35.14	11.49	10.14	28.38	10.14	4.37

Table 4.9 indicates that the majority of respondents from cluster 1 are represented by the travel sector of the tourism industry (car/coach rental sector at 44% and tour operators at 30.40%). This result justifies an inference that cluster 1 represents the travel sector of the tourism industry. Furthermore, the low mean score of 1.69 rated for the hospitality operations by cluster 1 indicated in Figure 4.5 can justify the exclusion of the hospitality sector from cluster 1 when grouping skills requirements to work in the travel sector of the industry.

According to Table 4.9, cluster 2 presents challenges in as far as it represents a clearly delineated sector. Table 4.9 indicates that hospitality is represented by 35.14% of respondents, followed by 28.38% of respondents representing tour operators. From this result, it can be deduced that skills requirements for cluster 2 need to consider both tour operators and the hospitality sector. The extent of this

consideration is beyond the scope of this research. Table 4.10 depicts cluster representation by level of education.

TABLE 4.10: Cluster representation by level of education

	National Senior Certificate	Certificate	Diploma and Degree
Cluster 1	6.25	55.47	38.28
Cluster 2	7.50	37.50	55.00

Table 4.10 indicates that the majority of respondents from cluster 1 and cluster 2 have qualifications that are higher than a National Senior Certificate.

Table 4.11 depicts cluster representation by position in the organisation.

TABLE 4.11: Cluster representation by position in the organisation

	Owner only	Owner and Manager	Manager or supervisor	Other
Cluster 1	0.00	3.34	48.82	47.24
Cluster 2	1.25	7.50	43.13	48.12

Table 4.11 indicates that the majority of respondents from cluster 1 and cluster 2 are not owners in the organisations represented by the respondents. Cluster 1 has a smaller representation of owners and managers within the organisations that are represented in comparison with cluster 2. Another notable difference is that cluster 2 does have representation of the owner only category, albeit insignificant, while cluster 1 has no representation of the owner only category.Table 4.12 depicts cluster representation by size of organisation.

TABLE 4.12: Cluster representation by size of an organisation

	Under 10	10 - 49	50 – 250	More than 250
Cluster 1	40.31	41.86	12.40	5.43
Cluster 2	23.08	35.26	37.18	4.48

Table 4.12 indicates that the majority of respondents from cluster 1 and cluster 2 have very little representation in the over 250 employees' category. The following section discusses the results of the Kruskal-Wallis test.

4.6 KRUSKAL-WALLIS TEST

Kremelberg (2011:436) posits that the Kruskal-Wallis test is a non-parametric equivalent of the parametric one-way independent ANOVA test which does not assume that data is normally distributed. Since the sample data suggest that the normality assumption is violated, the Kruskal-Wallis test can be used to test whether the populations of interest are identical to or different from one another (Field, 2009:559).

The Kruskal-Wallis test statistic is based on the sum of ranks for each of the samples and this statistic is used to decide whether the null hypothesis can be rejected or not. An alpha level of 0.05 was used, where a significant p-value is less than or equal to 0.05 ($p \leq 0.05$) shows that there is a significant difference between populations (or clusters in this application) at 95% confidence level. When this happens, the null hypothesis can be rejected. A p-value greater than or

equal to 0.05 (p ≥ 0.05) suggests that there is no significant difference between the clusters. Where the p-value is less than or equal to an alpha value, the null hypothesis is rejected. In all cases, the hypotheses were the following:

- H_0: All populations/clusters are identical.
- H_a: Not all populations/clusters are identical.

The following section reports on the Kruskal-Wallis tests to identify whether differences in tourism employers in terms of skills requirements exist. The general skills, tourism knowledge, information technology, business skills and industry courses were tested. This exercise was undertaken to assist the process of identifying the skills that are best suited for the various tourism employers or sectors.

The following section discusses the Kruskal-Wallis test for differences on skills expectations of sub-sectors on general skills.

4.6.1 Skills expectations of general skills

The data was further subjected to a Kruskal-Wallis test to determine whether there are significant differences in skills expectations of sub–sectors: hospitality, car/coach hire, government, heritage site/museum, tour operators, tourist information and travel agencies on general skills.

TABLE 4.13: Kruskal-Wallis test for differences in skills expectations of different sub-sectors on general skills

Questionnaire item	Chi-Square	Pr > Chi-Square/Significance
Attention to detail	1.325	**0.8571**
Adaptability at work	8.5447	**0.0735**
Creativity	15.4637	0.0038
Confidence	20.4101	0.0004
Critical thinking	20.9665	0.0003
Customer service skills	**7.8494**	**0.0973**
Computer literacy	**5.3284**	**0.2552**
Arithmetical skills	**8.0849**	**0.0885**
Written communication skills	15.0257	0.0046
Negotiation skills	25.1106	<.0001
Presentation skills	31.1278	<.0001
Interpersonal skills	23.4629	0.0001
Social skills	21.0234	0.0001
Organisational skills	22.5249	0.0001
Ethical/social responsibilities	58.791	<.0001
Cultures of the world	65.5489	<.0001
Cultural sensitivity	85.3115	<.0001
Natural resource use and related issues	63.9155	<.0001

Table 4.13 exhibits that there is enough statistical evidence to suggest that different tourism sub-sectors have varying expectations in terms of the importance of general skills. The p-values that are ≤ 0.05 demonstrate the skills that reject the null hypothesis, i.e. all populations are identical. The variables that accept the null hypothesis are: attention to detail, adaptability at work, customer service skills computer literacy, and arithmetical skills.

The following section discusses the Kruskal-Wallis test for differences on skills expectations of sub-sectors on tourism knowledge.

4.6.2 Skills expectations of tourism knowledge

Table 4.14 portrays the result of the Kruskal-Wallis test on differences in skills expectations of different sub-sectors on tourism knowledge. Table 4.14 illustrates that all p-values, except passenger transport, are less than the level of significance. Therefore, the null hypothesis can be rejected at a 5% level of significance. There is enough statistical evidence to suggest that the expectations of the different tourism sub-sectors differ regarding tourism-specific knowledge that is necessary for employment in the tourism industry. The only variable that accepts the null hypothesis that all populations/clusters are identical, is passenger transport.

TABLE 4.14: Kruskal-Wallis test for differences in skills expectations of different sub-sectors on tourism knowledge

Questionnaire item	Chi-Square	Pr > Chi-Square/Significance
Dynamics and significance of the tourism industry	33.5808	<.0001
The structure of the tourism industry	33.5808	<.0001
The significance and impact of tourism	25.7567	<.0001
Contemporary issues in tourism	32.152	<.0001
Tourism geography	50.4871	<.0001
Product knowledge	29.9384	<.0001
Tourism development policies	22.9573	0.0001
Sustainable tourism planning and	27.0023	<.0001

Questionnaire item	Chi-Square	Pr > Chi-Square/Significance
development		
Principles of tourism planning/design	48.4542	<.0001
Facility planning	56.7184	<.0001
Sustainable tourism	36.4428	<.0001
Passenger transport	**8.5671**	**0.0729**
Special events, meeting and conferences	19.8986	0.0005
Hospitality management	77.3536	<.0001
Front office management	80.3925	<.0001
Night audits	65.5767	<.0001
Tour operations	52.0333	<.0001
Conducting tours	50.3963	<.0001
Tourist guiding	54.2085	<.0001
Tourism law	61.0667	<.0001
Tourist safety and security issues	57.0307	<.0001
Risk management	53.4077	<.0001
Advance research methods and tourism forecasting	35.7977	<.0001
Statistics for tourism research	33.2601	<.0001
Mini dissertation	46.4965	<.0001
Yield management	46.7894	<.0001
Integrating case studies	57.0394	<.0001
Up selling	52.3287	<.0001

The following section discusses the Kruskal-Wallis test for differences on skills expectations of sub-sectors on information technology skills.

4.6.3 Skills expectations of information technology skills

Table 4.15 portrays the Kruskal-Wallis test results for differences in skills expectations of different sub-sectors on information technology skills.

TABLE 4.15: Kruskal-Wallis test: differences in skills expectations of different sub-sectors on information technology skills

Questionnaire item	Chi-Square	Pr > Chi-Square/ Significance
e-commerce	48.5425	<.0001
Microsoft Packages (MS Word, Excel, Power Point, MS Project)	19.6891	0.0006
On-line marketing	52.1426	<.0001

Table 4.15 illustrates that all p-values are less than the level of significance. Therefore, the null hypothesis can be rejected at a 5% level of significance. There is enough statistical evidence to suggest that the expectations of the various tourism sub-sectors differ regarding information technology skills that are necessary for employment in the tourism industry.

The following section discusses the Kruskal-Wallis test for differences on skills expectations of sub-sectors on business skills.

4.6.4 Skills expectations of business skills

Table 4.16 illustrates that all p-values ($p < 0.0001$) are less than the level of significance. Therefore, the null hypothesis can be rejected at a 5% level of

significance. There is enough statistical evidence to suggest that the expectations of the different tourism sub-sectors differ regarding tourism specific business skills that are necessary for employment in the tourism industry.

TABLE 4.16: Kruskal–Wallis test for differences in skills expectations of different sub-sectors on business skills

Questionnaire item	Chi-Square	Pr > Chi-Square/Significance
Business management theory	43.2472	<.0001
Financial management	68.0873	<.0001
Human resources management	59.9665	<.0001
Economics of tourism	26.1406	<.0001
Entrepreneurship and innovation	34.374	<.0001
Accounting	45.1148	<.0001
Marketing theories	46.078	<.0001

The following section discusses the Kruskal-Wallis test for differences on skills expectations of sub-sectors on industry courses.

4.6.5 Skills expectations of industry courses

According to Table 4.17 all $p < 0.05$ values are less than the level of significance except for GPS. Therefore, the null hypothesis can be rejected at a 5% level of significance. There is enough statistical evidence to suggest that the expectations of the different tourism sub-sectors differ regarding tourism specific knowledge that is necessary for employment in the tourism industry.

TABLE 4.17: Kruskal–Wallis test for differences in skills expectations of different sub-sectors on Industry Courses

Questionnaire item	Chi-Square	Pr > Chi-Square/Significance
Galileo	59.1569	<.0001
Amadeus	29.6176	<.0001
Opera	91.755	<.0001
Back office accounting (E.g. Quicktrav)	38.0794	<.0001
Tourplan	27.445	<.0001
Travel Agency Operations	38.7345	<.0001
Summit	28.1475	<.0001
GIS	23.15518	<.0001
GPS	8.3261	0.0803
Pastel Accounting	21.457	0.0003
Within Africa Fares	59.9272	<.0001

4.6.6 Kruskal-Wallis test between clusters on the seven retained factors

Table 4.18 provides details of the Kruskal-Wallis test that was conducted to test for differences between the clusters identified in Figure 4.5.

TABLE 4.18: Kruskal-Wallis test for differences in skills expectations of different clusters across the 7 constructs

Factors	Chi-square	p-value
Factor 1: cultural awareness skills	161.3478	<.0001
Factor 2: cognitive abilities skills	44.1543	<.0001
Factor 3: information literacy and communication skills	93.3309	<.0001
Factor 4: tourism knowledge skills	78.2581	<.0001
Factor 5: research skills	65.4798	<.0001
Factor 6: tour operating and guiding skills	78.1290	<.0001
Factor 7: hospitality operations skills	74.4290	<.0001

Table 4.18 indicates p-values less than 0.05 for the two clusters on all the factors. Therefore, the null hypothesis is rejected. The results as depicted on Table 4.18 demonstrate that the two clusters attach different levels of importance to specific skills sets required in order to work in the tourism industry.

The results of the Kruskal-Wallis test were expected based on the explanation of the two clusters indicated in Figure 4.5 which represents significantly higher scores for all 7 constructs for respondents in cluster 2, compared to those of cluster 1.

4.7 CONCLUSION

This chapter discussed the methodology used to conduct the study. A detailed discussion on the items of the questionnaire and method used to collect the data

for the study was provided. Following this, the results of the study that emerged from the data collected by means of a questionnaire were presented.

The results provided a clear profile of the respondents and detailed reporting of the level of importance attached to the various skills by tourism employers. Three types of statistical analysis were conducted and the results are presented in this chapter. The factor analysis produced 7 major areas of skills under general skills and tourism knowledge. The cluster analysis found that the respondents may be grouped into two clusters. Cluster 1 was clearly represented by the travel sector of the tourism industry, while Cluster 2 could not be clearly identified with a specific tourism sector due to the high representation of the hospitality and travel sectors. The Kruskal-Wallis test produced results that indicated that the clusters had varying skills expectations for the identified skills. This result confirmed that the two clusters are not similar in their skills needs. The conclusions arising from the results of the study presented in this chapter will be discussed in chapter 5.

CHAPTER 5

CONLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 INTRODUCTION

The aim of this chapter is to draw conclusions, make recommendations and state the contributions of the study. The primary objective of this study was to find out whether students with a National Diploma: Tourism Management from Tshwane University of Technology (TUT) meet the Human Resource requirements of tourism employers in South Africa. To address the primary research objective, the following secondary research objectives were addressed:

- To conduct a literature review on the international and South African tourism higher education landscape. This objective was achieved in Chapter 2 of the study through the literature review.
- To identify the jobs that students with a National Diploma: Tourism Management are employed in. This objective was achieved in Chapter 3 of the study through the literature review.
- To identify the skills and knowledge that are required to effectively perform these jobs. This objective was achieved in Chapter 3 of the study through the literature review.
- To analyse the curriculum content of current National Diploma: Tourism Management offered at TUT. This objective was achieved in Chapter 3 and Chapter 4 of the study. The Literature review was used in Chapter 3.

Chapter 4 used a questionnaire and statistical tests to explore the perspectives of tourism industry employers regarding knowledge and skills that are required for employment in the tourism industry and to match that with the content of the current National Diploma in Tourism Management.

- To identify the gaps between the curriculum content of TUT's National Diploma: Tourism Management and the skills and knowledge requirements by the tourism industry employers. This objective was achieved in Chapter 4 of the study through the comparison of the questionnaire responses and content analysis conducted in Chapter 3.

This chapter will be presented in the following sequence: Firstly, the conclusions drawn from literature and the empirical research will be presented. Secondly, recommendations for the study will be presented. Thirdly, contributions of the study to tourism higher education will be presented. Fourthly, recommendations for further research will be identified. Finally, the limitations of the study will be discussed.The following section addresses the conclusions drawn from the study.

5.2 CONCLUSIONS

The following conclusions regarding the research can be drawn:

- conclusions with regard to biographical profile of the sample;
- conclusions with regard to the literature review on the international and South African tourism higher education landscape;
- conclusions pertaining to jobs that students with a National Diploma: Tourism Management are employed in;

- conclusions with regard to the skills and knowledge that are required to effectively perform the jobs where students with a National Diploma: Tourism Management are employed in;
- conclusions with regard to the curriculum content of current the National Diploma: Tourism Management offered at TUT; and
- conclusions with regard to gaps between the curriculum content of TUT's National Diploma: Tourism Management and the skills and knowledge requirements by the tourism industry employers.

The conclusions based on the biographical profile will be followed by conclusions drawn from this study based on the secondary objectives of this study.

5.2.1 Respondent profile

The tourism sub-sectors, size of the organisation, level of education and position held in the organisation were the four key biographical variables measured by the questionnaire. While the main objective of this study was not to investigate whether any relationship exists between the biographical variables and the skills that are deemed important for employment in the tourism industry, it was judged necessary to place the skills identified as important for employment in the tourism industry in context. The following are regarded as main conclusions regarding the biographical profile of the respondents:

- The majority of the respondents represent the travel sector of the tourism industry (see Figure 4.1) (cf. 4.2.1).

- The majority of the respondents belong to organisations that are classified as Small, Medium and Micro Enterprises (SMMEs) representing 69% of the respondents (see Figure 4.2) (cf. 4.2.2).
- Of the total 69% SMME responses, 31% employ fewer than 10 people (see Figure 4.2). This finding is consistent with the assertion of the Culture, Arts, Tourism, Hospitality, Sport, Sector Education and Training Authority (CATHSSETA) in South Africa (see Table 2.1) and international literature (Haveng-Tang, 2008: 354; Baum, 2007:277) who assert that the tourism industry is dominated by SMMEs (cf. 4.2.2).
- The majority of the respondents have certificate and diploma qualifications in comparison to degrees (see Figure 4.3). This finding is contrary to international literature which suggests that employers do not value education when employing for tourism positions (cf. 4.2.3). It is important to note that the finding may be affected by the unrepresentative nature of the sample. Furthermore, the position occupied in the organisation by the respondents may have influenced this result as represented in Figure 4.4.
- The majority of the respondents are almost equally distributed between manager or supervisor category and other, with a very low percentage of owner only and owner and manager or supervisor categories. The high percentage of employees depicted in Figure 4.4 indicates a high percentage of employees who are not business owners. This finding suggests that the majority of business owners employ managers and supervisors to manage their businesses. This finding is contrary to literature (cf. 4.2.4). The high presence of employees than owners in this study may

be associated with the high percentage of respondents who represent the travel sector. Working in the travel sector requires specialised skills.

- In summary, it can be concluded that the profile of the majority of respondents represent SMMEs in the travel sector, who have certificate and diploma qualifications and they are employees in the tourism industry.
- A cluster analysis revealed that the respondents can be classified into two clusters (cf. 4.5):
    - Cluster 1 clearly represents the travel sector and Cluster 2 has a high representation for both travel and hospitality sectors (cf. 4.5).
    - The two clusters attach different levels of importance to specific skills sets required in order to work in the tourism industry (cf. 4.5).

5.2.2 Higher education landscape

The following are regarded as the main conclusions for secondary objective 1 (see 1.4.2):

- Identification of tourism as a global tool for economic development has resulted in plethora of tourism education and training programmes at various levels (cf. 2.1).
- As a growing sector of economic activity, tourism has been linked with good employment opportunities prompting educational institutions to offer courses that will groom students for employment in the tourism industry (cf. 2.2.1.1).
- Tourism as an industry is fragmented and multi-faceted, presenting a challenge in identifying what exactly comprises tourism (cf. 2.2.1.2).

- Diversity of the tourism industry drives learning content beyond very specific training and presents challenges for the identification of learning content necessary within higher level courses (cf. 2.2.1.2). This might indicate that TUT's National Diploma: Tourism Management is on the right track by offering specialised industry courses in this undergraduate programme.
- Demand for human resources in the tourism sector will continue to be very intense, as tourism is an exceptionally competitive industry relying heavily on professionalism, level of skill and innovation as key determinants for a destination's success (cf. 2.2.1.2).
- The dramatic growth of tourism has created extensive knowledge for tourism, however, there is no certainty whether this truly represents tourism knowledge (cf. 2.2.2.2).
- Governments widely accept tourism for economic development due to the wide range of employment opportunities it provides (cf. 3.3).
- The poor image of the tourism sector as an employer, quality and availability of skilled staff and rewards are the main people-related concerns worldwide in the tourism industry (cf. 3.3.3.3).
- The poor image associated with the tourism industry results in high labour turnover for the industry (cf. 3.3.3.3).
- Low entry barriers to tourism entrepreneurship are linked to the high number of small businesses operating in tourism (cf. 3.3.3.1).
- SMMEs are accused of low level of investments in skills development (cf. 3.3.3.2).

- Tourism sector employment is experiencing increasing competition with sectors offering better pay and working conditions (cf. 3.3.3.3).
- The poor image of the tourism industry is a major contributory factor in high staff turnover and wastage of trained and experienced personnel (cf. 3.3.3.3).
- Employers are increasingly placing an emphasis on generic and behavioural competencies in the recruitment for employment (cf. 3.3.2).
- Employability skills are comparable with the Critical Cross Field Outcomes that are embedded in the National Diploma: Tourism Management curriculum of TUT (cf. 3.3.2).
- TUT is the sole public higher education institution in Gauteng that offers extensive compulsory industry recognised courses as part of the undergraduate tourism programme (cf. 3.5).

5.2.3 Tourism employment

The following are regarded as the main conclusions for objective 2 (see 1.4.2):

- Students from TUT with a National Diploma: Tourism Management are employed in the following sectors of the tourism industry in South Africa: travel agencies, tour operators, visitor attractions, destination management organisations and hospitality (cf. 3.3).

5.2.4 Tourism skills

Conclusions with regard to important skills for employment in the tourism industry will be divided into seven parts, namely general skills, language skills, information

technology skills, business education skills, tourism specific knowledge, work integrated learning and industry courses. The following are regarded as main conclusions for objective 3 (see 1.4.2):

5.2.4.1 General skills

- All General Skills evaluated are considered important by tourism industry employers (cf. 4.3.1).
- The top three General Skills for tourism employment are Customer Service Skills (*M* = 3.64, *SD* = 0.596) attention to detail (*M* = 3.56, *SD* =0.648) and confidence (*M* = 3.51, *SD* = 0.641) (cf. 4.3.1).
- The least important general skills were perceived to be the cultures of the world (*M* = 2.71, *SD* = 0.952) (cf. 4.3.1).
- The factor analysis for the general skills reduced the number of observed variables from 18 to 3 latent variables or factors, namely: cultural awareness skills, cognitive abilities and information literacy and communication (cf. 4.4.1).
- The factor analysis revealed that general skills are addressed in the National Diploma: Tourism Management offered at TUT as Critical Cross Field Outcomes which are embedded in the curriculum (cf. 3.4).
- With the exception of professionalism, telephone skills and using office technology (cf. 4.3.1) which were indicated as lacking skills by employers, the 3 retained factors perfectly match the Critical Cross Field Outcomes. Therefore, it may be concluded that the National Diploma: Tourism

Management offered at TUT meets the requirement of general skills that are important for employment in the tourism industry (cf. 4.4.1).

- The Kruskal-Wallis test reveals that the different tourism sub-sectors have varying expectations in terms of the importance of general skills. The only General Skills whose importance for employment in the tourism industry is shared between the sub-sectors include: attention to detail ($p = 0.8571$), adaptability at work ($p = 0.0735$), customer service skills ($p = 0.0973$), computer literacy ($p = 0.2552$) and arithmetical skills ($p = 0.2552$) (cf. 4.6.1).

5.2.4.2 Languages

- The most important language skill is English (*M* = 3.94, *SD* = 0.27) (cf. 4.3.2).
- Foreign languages and indigenous languages were ranked as less important when compared to English (cf. 4.3.2).
- English is included in the National Diploma: Tourism Management offered at TUT (cf. 3.4). The conclusion therefore is that the National Diploma: Tourism Management offered at TUT meets the language requirement for employment in the tourism industry.

5.2.4.3 Information technology skills

- The most important information technology skill is associated with the use of Microsoft Packages, while online marketing and e-commerce were regarded as less important (cf. 4.3.3).

- Information technology skills are addressed by means of the subject End-User Computing in the National Diploma: Tourism Management offered at TUT (cf. 3.4). The conclusion therefore is that the National Diploma: Tourism Management offered at TUT meets the information technology requirement for employment in the tourism industry.
- The Kruskal-Wallis test reveals that the different tourism sub-sectors have varying expectations in terms of the importance of information technology skills (cf. 4.6.3).

5.2.4.4 Business education skills

- While all business education skills are important for tourism industry employers, the highest value is attached to business management theory (*M* = 2.99, *SD* = 0.88), while marketing theory (*M* = 2.62, *SD* = 0.942) was ranked as the least important business education skill (cf. 4.3.4). The finding that marketing theory is less important than business management theory may be associated with the position occupied by respondents in an organisation. An inconclusive assumption may be that respondents view the marketing function as a specialised skill that has to be a preserve for pure marketing students.
- Business education skills are addressed by means of the subject Tourism Management I, II and III in the National Diploma: Tourism Management offered at TUT (cf. 3.4). The conclusion therefore is that the National Diploma: Tourism Management offered at TUT meets the business education skills requirement for employment in the tourism industry.

- The Kruskal-Wallis test reveals that the different tourism sub-sectors have varying expectations in terms of the importance of business education skills (cf. 4.6.4).

5.2.4.5 Tourism-specific knowledge

- Employers perceive all tourism-specific knowledge as important (cf. 4.3.5).
- The highest ranked tourism-specific knowledge include product knowledge (*M* = 3.43, *SD* = 0.768), tourism geography (*M* = 3.18, *SD* = 0.78), passenger transport (*M* = 3.15, *SD* = 0.89), the structure of the tourism industry (*M* = 3.06, *SD* = 0.884) and the significance and impact of tourism (*M* = 3.05, *SD* = 0.0.899) (cf. 4.3.5).
- Night audits (*M* = 2.17, *SD* = 1.146), mini dissertation (*M* = 2.12, *SD* = 1.02) and yield management (*M* = 2.08, *SD* = 0.98) were ranked as the least important tourism-specific knowledge (cf. 4.3.5).
- Employers further indicated that dealing with refunds and basic travel were important tourism-specific knowledge that was not made available for rating (cf. 4.3.5). It was surprising to see this recommendation from the travel agencies. The expectation from the researcher was that travel agencies are familiar with the contents of fares courses that include refunds and basic travel.
- The Kruskal-Wallis test reveals that the various tourism sub-sectors differ regarding tourism-specific knowledge necessary for employment in the tourism industry. (cf. 4.6.2). The various sub-sectors do not differ for passenger transport (p= 0.0729) (cf. 4.6.2).

5.2.4.6 Industry courses

- It is encouraging to see that industry courses were generally rated as important. Galileo (*M* = 3.41, *SD* = 1.002) and Amadeus (*M* = 2.97, *SD* = 1.057) were rated as the top two industry courses, while Pastel Accounting (*M* = 1.9, *SD* = 1.074) and Within Africa Fares *(M* = 1.75, SD = 1.028) were rated as the least important industry courses (cf. 4.3.6). The National Diploma: Tourism Management is the only qualification offered at a public higher education institution in Gauteng that offers Industry Courses as part of the qualification (cf. 3.6).
- Employers recommended Basic Guiding, Provincial Guiding, First Aid Level 1, Micros Point of Sale, Opera Sales and Catering, Fares Rules, SA Host and Foreign Currency as additional industry courses that were not included in the questionnaire (cf. 4.3.2.6).
- The Kruskal-Wallis test reveals that the various tourism sub-sectors differ regarding industry courses necessary for employment in the tourism industry. (cf. 4.6.5). The exception is the GPS skill (p= 0.0803) (cf. 4.6.5), all sectors seem to believe that the GPS skill is important. At this point it is not clear why all the sectors believe that they need this skill.

5.2.4.7 Work Integrated Learning (WIL)

- More than half (53%) of the respondents (n = 152) indicated that it was important to include WIL (experiential learning) in the three year National Diploma: Tourism Management (cf. 4.3.7).

- WIL is included in the National Diploma: Tourism Management offered at TUT (cf. 3.4).

5.2.5 Content evaluation of the National Diploma: Tourism Management

The following are regarded as main conclusions for objective 4 (see 1.4.2):

- General skills are addressed in the National Diploma: Tourism Management offered at TUT as Critical Cross Field Outcomes which are embedded in the curriculum (cf. 3.4).
- Language skills are addressed in the National Diploma: Tourism Management offered at TUT (cf. 3.4).
- Information technology skills are addressed by means of the subject End-User Computing in the National Diploma: Tourism Management offered at TUT (cf. 3.4).
- Business education skills are addressed by means of the subject Tourism Management I, II and III and Marketing for Tourism I and II in the National Diploma: Tourism Management offered at TUT (cf. 3.4).
- Tourism-specific knowledge is addressed by means of the subject Tourism Development I, II and III and Travel and Tourism Practice I, II and III in the National Diploma: Tourism Management offered at TUT (cf. 3.4).
- The National Diploma: Tourism Management is the only qualification offered at a public higher education institution in Gauteng that offers industry courses (cf. 3.6).
- WIL is included in the National Diploma: Tourism Management offered at TUT.

To conclude, the National Diploma: Tourism Management offered at TUT makes provision for the majority of skills that were identified as important by tourism industry employers. The following section provides a summary of gaps between the curriculum content and important skills for employment in the industry.

5.2.6 Gaps between the curriculum content and the skills and knowledge requirements

The following are regarded as main conclusions for objective 4 (see 1.4.2):

- Gaps relating to general skills were considered to be professionalism, telephone skills and the use of office technology (cf. 4.3.1).
- Gaps relating to business skills were considered to be in the area of sales and how to get and retain clients (cf. 4.3.4).
- Gaps relating to industry courses were considered to be in the area of Basic Guiding, Provincial Guiding, First Aid level 1, Micros Point of Sale, Opera Sales and Catering, SA Host and Foreign Currency (cf. 4.3.6).

5.3 RECOMMENDATIONS

The aim in using TUT's National Diploma: Tourism Management as a case study was to investigate how well does the programme respond to the Human Resources needs of tourism employers in South Africa. Identification of gaps between the programme and what the employers expect, was key in making recommendations that will ensure that the programme responds to the Human Resources requirements of tourism employers.

Table 5.1 provides a summary of skills and courses that were identified by respondents as important that are not included in the National Diploma: Tourism Management offered at TUT.

TABLE 5.1: Summary of skills gaps

Skill category	Skill/ Course
General Skills	• Professionalism • Office technology • Telephone skills
Business Education	• How to get and retain clients • Dealing with corporate clients
Industry Courses	• Basic Guiding • Provincial Guiding • First Aid level 1 • Micros Point of Sale • Opera Sales and Catering • SA Host • Foreign Currency

Table 5.1 demonstrates that there are three key areas that may be identified as gaps in the National Diploma: Tourism Management offered at TUT. In an attempt to ensure responsiveness of the National Diploma: Tourism Management offered at TUT to tourism employers' Human Resources requirements.

The recommendations for this study take into consideration three major elements. Firstly, the recommendations are a culmination of the conclusions of the study as presented in 5.2. This is followed by the summary of skills gaps presented in Table

5.1. In the final instance it will address policy issues as presented in the Higher Education Qualifications Sub Framework (HEQSF) (SAQA, 2013:41-48).

Table 5.1 identifies telephone skills, professionalism and using office technology as general skills that are lacking. While these general skills need not be the core of the Tourism management programme, they may not be ignored. Investing large amounts of money in office technology for a programme whose core objective is not based on training office administrators may not be justifiable. A possible recommendation may be that these general skills must be appropriately planned and assessed during the Work Integrated Learning (WIL) component of the programme. Opportunely, the HEQSF makes provision for programmes that incorporate WIL in the form of workplace-based learning to be appropriately structured, properly supervised and assessed.

The business skills identified as lacking in Table 5.1 may be addressed in class as part of the subject, Marketing for Tourism, which addresses sales. These skills have an opportunity to further permeate subjects such as tourism development and travel and tourism practice. Furthermore, applied competence in these skills could be assessed through the WIL component of the programme by industry employers.

Industry courses as identified in Table 5.1 are invaluable for operating in the travel sector of the tourism industry. TUT is already offering a number of industry courses as part of the National Diploma: Tourism Management as compulsory offerings in the programme. Without unnecessarily burdening students who are not

planning to pursue a career in the travel sector, the guidelines provided by the HEQSF may be used to make provision for these industry courses. The HEQSF makes provision for all higher education programmes to have a core component, as well as a fundamental and or an elective (SAQA, 2013:44). Students who desire to pursue a career in the travel sector may be provided an opportunity to take any of the identified industry courses on Table 5.1 as elective components.

The Kruskal-Wallis tests revealed that the expectations of the different tourism sub-sectors in terms of information technology, business education skills, industry courses and tourism-specific knowledge varies. While it is possible to offer electives in a programme, too much variation may present a logistical nightmare. It is once again in this area where WIL can be resourcefully utilised in responding to the needs of the tourism employers. According to the HEQSF, institutions that structure WIL as part of a qualification have a responsibility for placing the students in appropriate workplaces (SAQA, 2013:49). Based on this provision, the level of intensity for the various skills will be pre-planned to suit the specific workplace. Furthermore, industry employers may be involved in planning activities that will be structured for their specific environment.

A disturbing finding from the travel sector pertains to the issue of refunds. This finding suggests that some industry players are not familiar with the content of the various subjects and industry courses that are offered as part of tourism management programmes. The recommendation therefore, is that institutions of higher learning need to forge robust relationships with the industry to ensure that

they are familiar with the content of the programmes. These relationships may be fostered through industry associations and the CATHSSETA.

Recommendations presented in this study provide a starting point for addressing the concerns of the tourism employers while taking the new legislation into consideration. The following section discusses the contributions of this study to tourism higher education.

5.4 CONTRIBUTION OF THE STUDY

The study has made the following contributions to tourism higher education:

- The literature review provides a useful basis for further investigation into tourism higher education in South Africa.
- The skills identified as important by employers have provided clear skills groups through the use of a factor analysis.
- The factors derived from the factor analysis may be further useful in the creation of a model for analysing tourism subjects in higher education.
- The skills groups derived from the factor analysis can be further useful to determine curriculum content when enriching the existing tourism curriculum.
- This study has uncovered that there is no significant gap between the skills that are valued by employers for employment in the tourism industry and what is included in the National Diploma: Tourism Management offered at TUT.

- Based on the previous point, the study provides a starting point for investigating the real problem in terms of shortages in tourism skills that are continuously reported by tourism employers.

The following section provides recommendations regarding further research to contribute to tourism higher education in South Africa.

5.5 RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

This study has provided some evidence that further research may be useful in the following areas:

- A South African (context-related) model for grouping tourism skills to be packaged into tourism qualifications to meet varying industry needs in South Africa.
- A study that outlines employer requirements in terms of WIL. This study revealed that some employers indicated varying preference for when students should be exposed to WIL (cf. 4.3.7).
- An investigation on whether tourism graduates enter tourism employment after graduation.

The following section discusses the limitations of the study.

5.6 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

Although the study produced useful results, it did have the following limitations:

- The absence of a public database of tourism employers made it difficult to verify the sample and distribute the survey. The researcher had to create a database from travel information sources (cf. 1.5.2.2). Furthermore, the researcher had to rely on associations and organisations to distribute the survey on behalf of the researcher. This factor limited the possibility of following sound sampling method, which directly impacts upon the generalisability of the study (cf. 1.5.2.2).
- Due to the absence of a database, a convenience sample was used resulting in the inability to assess the response rate for the entire survey.
- The absence of a database affects the generalisability of the study as the sample is not representative of the tourism industry employers in South Africa.

5.7 CONCLUSIONS

In general, the South African tourism industry seems to have the perception that tourism higher education in South Africa does not meet the needs of industry. However, the result of this study are contrary to the claims made by industry employers.

This study has clearly demonstrated that the National Diploma: Tourism Management offered at TUT meets the human resources requirements of the

industry. A conclusion may therefore be reached that it is an unfair practice to generalise that higher tourism programmes are not in synchrony with the needs of the tourism industry. Additionally, this study raises the question of whether tourism graduates do enter tourism employment upon graduation if the situation is as bleak as reported by employers.

A positive contribution is that gaps identified in the study are a starting point in the process for bridging the skills gaps between what employers expect and what is offered by educational institutions. Going forward, the results of this study and recommendations made in this study for future research will provide further solutions in the attempts of synchronisation of tourism higher education and the needs of tourism employers.

REFERENCES

ACTS **see** SOUTH AFRICA

AGARAJ, X. and MURATI, M. 2009. *Tourism an important sector of economy development*. Constatin Brancusi University of Targu Jiu Annals-Economy [Online] Series 1. Available from: [http://www.utgjiu.ro/revista/ec/pdf/2009-01/6_XHILIOLA_AGARAJ.pdf] [Accessed: 01/03/2014].

AHMED, J. and CROSSMAN, J. 2008. Significance of employability factors: Bangladesh perspectives. *Journal of Bangladesh studies*, 10(1):61-66.

AIREY, D. 2005. Growth and development. In: AIREY, D. and TRIBE, J. (Ed.). *An international handbook of tourism education.* United Kingdom: Elsevier: 12-24.

AIREY, D. 2008. In search of a mature subject. *Journal of hospitality, leisure, sport and tourism education*, 7(2):101-103.

AIREY, D. 2008. *Tourism Education: Life begins at 40*. [Online]. University of Surrey. Available from: http://epubs.surrey.ac.uk/tourism40. [Accessed: 20/02/2010].

AMOAH, V.A. and BAUM, T. 1997. Tourism education: Policy versus practice. *International journal of contemporary hospitality management,* 9(1):5 -12.

ARCHER, W. and DAVISON J. 2008. Graduate Employability: what do employers think and want? London: The Council for Industry and Higher Education.

ARCHER, W. and DAVISON, J. 2011. Graduate Employability: what do employers think and want? [Online]. Available from: http://www.cihe.co.uk/category/themes/key/skills/ [Accessed: 2/3/2012].

ARNOLDS, C.A., STOFILE, R.N. and LILLAH, R. 2013. *Assessing the outcomes of the higher education mergers in South Africa: implications for strategic management* [Online]. Available from: http://www.dx.doi.org/10.4102/ac.v13i1.175 [Accessed: 01/03/2014].

AYIKORU, M., TRIBE, J. and AIREY, D. 2009. Reading tourism education: neoliberalism unveiled. *Annals of tourism research,* 36(2):191-221.

AYRES, H. 2006. Career Development in Tourism and Leisure: An Exploratory Study of the Influence of Mobility and Mentoring. *Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Management*, 13 (2):113-123.

BABBIE, E. and MOUTON, J. 2006. *The practice of social research*. Cape Town: Oxford University Press.

BAUM, T. 1997. Human resource development in tourism: developing a training strategy for increasing employability. *International journal of contemporary hospitality management,* (9)1:5-12.

BAUM, T. 2007. Human resources in tourism: still waiting for change. *Tourism management,* 28:1383–1399.

BAUM, T. and SZIVAS, E. 2008. HRD in tourism: a role for government? *Tourism management,* 29:783-794.

BETCON, S. and GRAETZ, B. 2001. Small business- small minded? Training attitudes and needs of the tourism and hospitality industry. *International journal of tourism research,* 3:105-113.

BURKE, V., JONES, I. AND DOHERTY, M. 2005. Analysing student perceptions of transferable skills via undergraduate degree programmes. *Active learning in higher education,* 6 (2), 132-144.

BUSBY, G. 2005. Work experience and industrial links. In: AIREY, D. & TRIBE, J. (Ed.). *An international handbook of tourism education.* United Kingdom: Elsevier:

BUSBY, G. and FIEDEL, D. 2001. Review of tourism studies degree courses. *Journal of further and higher education,* 53(4):501-522.

BUSBY. G. 2001. Vocationalism in higher level tourism courses: The British perspective: *Journal of further and higher education,* 25(1):29-43.

BUSBY. G. 2003. Tourism degree internships: a longitudinal study. *Journal of vocational education and training,* 55(3):319-334.

CHURCHWARD. J and RILEY. M. 2002. Tourism Occupations and Education: An exploratory study. *International Journal of Tourism Research*. 4:77-86.

COOPER, R. and SCHINDLER, P.S. 2003. *Business Research Methods.* USA: McGraw Hill.

COOPER, C., FLETCHER, J., FYAL, A., GILBERT, D. and WANHIL, S. 2005. *Tourism principles and practice.* 3rd Ed. England: Pearson: Education Limited.

COOPER, C., SHEPERD, R. and WESTLAKE, J. 1997. *Educating the educators in tourism: a manual of tourism and hospitality education*. Surrey: World Tourism Organisation.

Council of Higher Education. 2009. Higher Education Monitor 8: The State of Higher Education Report. [Online]. Available from:http://www.che.ac.za/sites/default/files/publications/Higher_Education_Monitor_8.pdf. [Accessed: 03/06/2014].

Culture Arts, Tourism, Hospitality and Sport Sector Education and Training Authority. S.a. Tourism and Travel. [Online]. Available from: http://www.cathsseta.org.za/index.php/about-us/departments/tourism-and-travel/ [Accessed: 15/01/2014].

Department of Economic Development **see** SOUTH AFRICA. Department of Economic Development.

Department of Education **see** SOUTH AFRICA. Department of Education.

Department of Environmental Affairs and Tourism **see** SOUTH AFRICA. Department of Environmental Affairs and Tourism

Department of Higher Education and Training **see** SOUTH AFRICA. Department of Higher Education and Training.

ENSOR, P. 2004. Contesting discourses in higher education curriculum restructuring in South Africa. *Higher education,* 48:339-359.

ESSENHIGH, R.B. 2000. *A few thoughts on the difference between education and training*. Letter from Robert H. Essenhigh, Ohio State University. [Online].

Available from: http://www.uamont.edu/facultyweb/ gulledge/Articles/ [Accessed: 20/03/2011].

EVANS, N. 2001. The development and positioning of business related university tourism education: a UK perspective. *Journal of teaching in travel & tourism,* 1(1):17-36.

FIDGEON, P.R. 2010. Tourism education and curriculum design: a time for consolidation and review? *Tourism management,* 31(6) Dec.:699-723.

FIELD, A. 2009. *Discovering statistics using SPSS*. 3rd ed. London: Sage Publications.

FLICK, U. 2011. *Introducing research methodology: a beginner's guide to doing research project*. London: Sage Publications.

GELDENHUYS, S. 2009. Career opportunities for ecotourism. In: Saayman, M. (Ed.). *Ecotourism: getting back to basics*. Potchefstroom: Ons Print: 252-273.

GEORGE. R. 2007. *Managing tourism in South Africa*. Cape Town: Oxford.

GOELDNER, J.R. and RITCHIE, J.R.B. 2009. *Tourism: principles, practices, philosophies.* 11 Ed. New Jersey: John Wiley & Sons.

GRIESEL, H. and PARKER, B. 2009. Graduate attributes: a baseline study on South African graduates from the perspective of employers. [Online]. Available from: http://www.saqa.org.za/docs/genpubs/2009/graduate_attributes.pdf [Accessed: 25/03/2012].

GRUBB, W.N. and LAZERSON, M. 2005. Vocationalism in higher education: the triumph of the education gospel. *Journal of higher education*, 76(1), Jan.:1-25.

HAVEN-TANG, C. 2008. Tourism and related sectors in Wales. I*nternational journal of tourism research,* 10:353–363.

HAVEN-TANG, C. and JONES, C. 2008. Labour market and skills needs of the tourism related sectors in Wales. *International journal of tourism research,* 10:353-363.

HEATON, N. MCCRACKEN, M. and HARRISON, J. 2008. Graduate Recruitment and Development: sector influence on a local market / regional economy. *Education Training*, 50(4):276–288.

HJALAGER, A. and ANDERSEN, S. 2000. Tourism employment: Contingent work or professional career? *Employee relations,* 23(2):115-129.

HODGES, D. and BURCHELL, N. 2003 Business graduates competence: Employer's views on importance and performance. *Asia journal of cooperative education,* 4(21):16-22.

HOLLOWAY, J.C. 1995. Towards a core curriculum for tourism. A discussion paper. London: National liaison group for higher education in tourism.

HORNG, J. T. C, TENG. and BAUM, T. 2009. Evaluating the quality of undergraduate hospitality, tourism and leisure programmes. *Journal of hospitality, leisure, sport & tourism,* 8(1):37-54.

HUDSON, S. 2005. North America. In: AIREY, D. & TRIBE, J. (eEd). *An international handbook of tourism education.* United Kingdom: Elsevier: 223- 239.

INTERNATIONAL LABOUR ORGANISATION. S.a. International standard classification of occupations. [Online]. [Available from: http://www.ilo.org/public/en] [Accessed: 04/08/2011].

INUI, Y., WHEELER, D. and LANKFORD, S. 2006. Rethinking tourism education: what should schools teach? *Journal of hospitality, leisure, sport and tourism education,* 5(2):25-36.

JENNINGS, G. 2010. *Tourism research*. 2nd Ed. Milton (Australia): John Wiley and Sons.

JIANG, B., and TRIBE, J. 2009. "Tourism jobs–short lived professions": student attitudes towards tourism careers in China. *Journal of hospitality, leisure, sports and tourism education, 8*(1):4-19.

JONES, C. and HAVEN-TANG, C. 2005. Tourism SME's, services, quality and destination competitiveness. In: JONES, C. & HAVEN-TANG, C. (Ed.). *Tourism SME's, services, quality and destination competitiveness.* Cardiff: CAD publishers: 1-24.

JORDAN, F. 2008. Internationalisation in hospitality, leisure, sport and tourism higher education: a call for further reflexivity in curriculum development. *Journal of hospitality, leisure, sport and tourism education, 7*(1): 99-103.

KOH. K. 1995. Designing the four- year tourism management curriculum: a marketing approach. *Journal of travel research,* 34(68):68-72.

KORSTANJE, E. 2013. Creating a new epistemology for tourism and hospitality disciplines. *International journal of qualitative research in services*, 1(1), Jun.:13-34.

KREMELBERG, D. 2011. *Practical Statistics: A Quick and Easy Guide to IBM SPSS Statistics, STATA, and Other Statistical Software.* London: Sage Publications.

KUSLUVAN, S., KUSLUVAN, Z., ILHAN, I. & BUYRUK, L. 2010. The human dimension: a review of human resources management issues in the tourism and hospitality. *Cornell hospitality quarterly,* 51(2):171-214.

LADKIN, A. 2005. Careers and employment. In: AIREY, D. & TRIBE, J. (Ed.). *An international handbook of tourism education.* United Kingdom: Elsevier: 437-450.

LEAL, S. and PADILHA, M.A. 2005. Brazil and Latin America. In: AIREY, D. & TRIBE, J. (Ed.). *An international handbook of tourism education.* United Kingdom: Elsevier: 123 -131.

LEE, K. M., LEE, M. J. and KIM, H. J. 2009. A comparison of student and industry perceptions of the event management curriculum in Korea. *Journal of hospitality, leisure, sport & tourism education,* 8(2):60-73.

LEEDY, P.D. and ORMROD, J.E. 2013. *Practical Research: planning and design*. 10th Ed. New Jersey: Pearson Education Inc.

LEIPER, N. 2007. Why 'the tourism industry' is misleading as a generic expression: the case for the plural variation, 'tourism industries'. *Tourism management,* 29(2):237-251.

LESLIE, D and RICHARDSON, A. 2000. Tourism and cooperative education in the UK undergraduate courses: are benefits being realised? *Tourism management .21 (489-498).*

LIN, P.L., FERGUSON, J. and EGART, K. 2004. Career exploration via cooperative education and lifespan occupational choice. *Journal of vocational behavior,* 65:430–447.

LUBBE, B. 2000. *Tourism distribution: managing the travel intermediary.* Cape Town: Juta.

MANCINI, M. 2000. *Conducting tours*. 3rd ed. United States: Delmar.

MAJOR, B. and EVANS, N. 2008. Reassessing employer expectations of graduates in UK travel services. *International journal of tourism research,* 2008:409-422.

MAYAKA, N. 2005. East Africa. In: AIREY, D. & TRIBE, J. (ed.). *An international handbook of tourism education.* United Kingdom: Elsevier:161-171.

MAYAKA, A. AKAMA, J.S. 2007. Systems approach to tourism training and education: the Kenyan case study. *Tourism Management,* 28(1), Feb.:298-306.

MCDONALD, R. and VAN DER HORST, H. 2007. Curriculum alignment, globalization, and quality assurance in South African higher education. *Journal of curriculum studies.* 39(1):1–9.

MENESES, O.A.M. and TEIXEIRA, A.A.C. 2009. The innovative behavior of tourism firms. *Economics and management research: An international journal,* 1(1):25-35.

MUNAR, A.M. and MONTANO, J.J. 2009. Generic competencies and tourism graduates. *Journal of hospitality, leisure, sports and tourism education,* 8(1), Apr.:70-85.

MUNAR, A.M. and MONTANO, J.J. 2009. Generic competencies and tourism graduates. *Journal of hospitality, leisure, sports and tourism education,* 8(1), Apr.:70-85.

National Department of Tourism **see** SOUTH AFRICA. National Department of Tourism.

NDT **see** SOUTH AFRICA. National Department of Tourism.

NUFFIC **see** NERTHERLANDS ORGANISATION FOR INTERNATIONAL COOPERATION IN HIGHER EDUCATION.

NUFFIC. 2010. Evaluation of foreign degrees and qualifications in the Netherlands. Country module–South Africa. 1st Ed. International Recognition Department. The Hague.

NZIMANDE, B. 2010. *Speech by Dr. Blade Nzimande, minister of higher education and training, during the occasion of the national assembly's debate on the president's state of the nation address, South African Parliament, Cape Town, February 15, 2010* [Online]. Available from: http://www.anc.org.za/caucusphp?id=61833 [Accessed: 20/02/2010]

O'LEARY, S. and DEEGAN, J. 2005. Career Progression of Irish Tourism and Hospitality Management Graduates. *International journal of contemporary hospitality management*, 17(5): 421-432.

PAGE, S.J. and CONNELL, J. 2009. Tourism: A modern synthesis. 3rd Ed. Andover: Cengage learning.

PETROVA, P. and MASON, P. 2004. How valuable are tourism degrees? the views of the tourism industry. (Paper read at the Conference of the Association for Tourism in Higher Education, December 1-3, Missenden Abbey, Buckinghamshire UK). Unpublished.

RAJ, A. 2008. Human capital needs and challenges for the tourism sector. *South Asian journal of tourism and heritage,* 1(1):39-45.

RICHARDSON, S. 2008. Undergraduates' perceptions of tourism and hospitality as a career choice. *International journal of hospitality management,* 28(3):382-388.

RILEY, M., LADKIN, A. and SZIVAS, E. 2001. *Aspects of tourism. Tourism employment: analysis and planning.* Edited by COOPER, C. & HALL, and M. Clevedon. Channel view publications.

RING, A. DICKINGER, A. & WÖBER, K. 2009. Designing the ideal undergraduate program in tourism: expectations from industry and educators. *Journal of travel research,* 48(1) Aug.:106-121.

SA **see** SOUTH AFRICA

SAAYMAN, M. 2005. South Africa. In: AIREY, D. & TRIBE, J. (Ed.). *An international handbook of tourism education.* United Kingdom: Elsevier: 257-269.

SAQA. 2000. The National Qualifications Framework and curriculum development. [Online]. Available from: http://www.saqa.org.za/docs/pol/2000/curriculum_dev.pdf [Accessed: 13/05/2012].

SAQA. 2010a. National Qualifications Framework Act 67 of 2008 *[Online]. Available from: [www.saqa.org.za/docs/legislation/acts/2010/act67.pdf*] [Accessed: 01/03/2014].

SAQA. 2010b. *Migration of qualifications from 8-level to 10-level NQF on track* [Online]. Available from: http://www.saqa.org.za/news/migration/html [Accessed: 7/04/2010]

SAQA. 2013. *Publication of the General Further Education and Training Qualifications Sub-Framework and Higher Education Qualifications Sub-Framework of the National Qualifications Framework.* [Online]. Available from:http://www.che.ac.za/sites/default/files/publications/GG-%20Publication%20of%20the%20GFETQSF%20and%20HEQSF%20of%20the%20NQF%202%20August%202013_0.pdf. [Accessed: 02/06/2014].

SAQA. S.a. *All qualifications and unit standards: NQF Level 6* [online]. Available from: http://allqs.saqa.org.za/showQualification [Accessed: 15/04/2011].

SAQA. S.a. *Frequently asked questions on higher education qualifications framework* [Online]. Available from: http://www.saqa.org.za/docs/policy/heqf-faqs.pdf [Accessed: 16/04/2011].

SAQA. S.a. *South African NQF level descriptors* [Online]. Available from: http://www.saqa.org.za/show.asp?include=focus/ld.htm [Accessed: 15/04/2011].

SAQA. S.a. Registered qualifications and unit standards. [Online]. Available from: http://regqs.saqa.org.za/search.php?cat=qual# [Accessed: 13/05/2012].

SCHEIDEGGER, E. 2006. Can state promote innovation in tourism? Should it? In: OECD (Eds.). *Innovation and growth in tourism.* Paris. OECD.

SEDGWICK, R. 2004. *Institutions of higher education in South Africa after the mergers. (Ed.). World Education News and Reviews*. [Online]. Available from: http://www.wes.org/ewenr/04may/Feature.htm [Accessed: 01/02/2011].

SIMKINS, C. S.a. *Higher education*. [Online]. Available from: http://www.econrsa.org/papers/p_papers/pp05.pdf [Accessed: 25/03/2011].

SINGH-LATHER, A., GARG, S. and VIKAS, S. 2011. Training practices of selected multinational travel conglomerates in India. *Krishna international research and educational consortium,* 2(1), Jan.:229-4848 [Online]. Available from: http://www.skirec.com [Accessed: 04/10/2012].

SMITH, G and COOPER, C. 2000. Competitive Approaches to Tourism and Hospitality Curriculum Design. *Journal of travel research,* 39(1): 90-95.

SMITH, P.J. 2003. Workplace learning and flexible delivery. *Review of educational research, 73*(1):53-88.

SOLNET, D., ROBINSON, R. COOPER, C. 2007. An Industry partnerships approach in tourism education. *Journal of hospitality, leisure, sport and tourism education,* 6(1):66-70.

SOUTH AFRICA. Department of Economic Development. 2009. *The New Growth Path: framework.* [Online]. Available from: http://www.economic.gov.za/communications/publications/new-growth-path-series. [Accessed: 02/03/2014]

SOUTH AFRICA. Department of Education. 1997. Education White Paper 3: Programme for transformation of higher education [Online]. Available from: http://www.che.ac.za/media_and_publications/legislation/education-white-paper-3-programme-transformation-higher-education [Accessed: 01/03/2014]

SOUTH AFRICA. Department of Education. 2005. *Minimum admission requirements for Higher Certificate, Diploma and Bachelor's Degree Programmes requiring a National Senior Certificate*. Pretoria. Government Printer.

SOUTH AFRICA. Department of Education. 2008. National Qualifications Framework Act, No. 67 of 2008. *Government Gazette*, 524(31909), FEB. 17:1-12.

SOUTH AFRICA. Department of Education. 2008. Higher Education Amendment Act, No. 39 of 2008. *Government Gazette*, 1286(31651), Nov. 27:1-4.

SOUTH AFRICA. Department of Environmental Affairs and Tourism. 2008. *A human resources development strategy for the tourism sector.* Pretoria. Government Printer.

SOUTH AFRICA. Department of Environmental Affairs and Tourism. 2009. *Annual report 2009/10*. [Online]. Available from: https://www.environment.gov.za/sites/default/files/reports/annual_report_2009_2010.pdf [Accessed: 03/04/2011].

SOUTH AFRICA. Department of Higher Education and Training. 1997. *General Policy for Technikon Instructional Programmes, Report 150 (97/01), January 1997*. ISBN: 0-7970-3395-5 [Online]. Available from: http://www.dhet.gov.za/LinkClick.aspx?fileticket=33Gk9qO2gPs%3D&tabid [Accessed: 02/04/2014]

SOUTH AFRICA. Department of Higher Education and Training. 2011. *Register of private higher education institutions*. [Online]. Available from: http://www.che.ac.za/documents/d000212/Register_of_Private_Higher_Education. [Accessed: 02/02/2014].

SOUTH AFRICA. National Department of Tourism. 2011. National Tourism Sector Strategy. [Online]. Available from: http://www.tourism.gov.za/AboutNDT/Publications/National%20Tourism%20Sector%20Strategy%20Executive%20Summary.pdf. [Accessed: 02/04/2014].

SOUTH AFRICA. National Department of Tourism. 2013. Skills development - essential to a successful and robust tourism sector. http://www.tourism.gov.za/AboutNDT/Branches1/Knowledge/News/Pages/Skills-Development.aspx. [Accessed: 02/04/2014].

SOUTH AFRICA. National Department of Tourism. 2014. *Bojanala: Tourism Edition 01 2014* [online]. Available from: http://www.tourism.gov.za/AboutNDT/Publications/Bojanala%20Jan_March%

SOUTH AFRICAN TECHNOLOGY NETWORK. 2008. *Final report on the project pertaining to the development of performance indicators for universities of technology and related parts of comprehensive universities*. Available from:

http://www.satn.co.za/wp-content/uploads/2012/10/FINAL-EDITED-VERSION-REPORT-ON-PI-PROJECT-Revised_251108.pdf [Accessed: 01/03/2014].

SUE, V. M. and RITTER, L.A. 2007. *Conducting online surveys*. London: Sage Publications.

TAVAKOL, M. & DENNICK, R. 2011. Making sense of Cronbach‟s alpha. *International journal of medical education*, 2:53-55.

Tourism Queensland. 2013. Tourism Environmental Indicators: FACT SHEET. [Online]. Available from: http://www.tq.com.au/fms/tq_corporate/industrydevelopment

THE PEDAGOGY FOR EMPLOYABILITY GROUP. 2004. Pedagogy for employability. [Online]. Available from: http://www.heacademy.ac.uk/assets/documents/employability/id383_pedagogy_for_employability_357.pdf [Accessed: 29/12/2011].

TOURISM, HOSPITALITY & SPORT EDUCATION. 2008. *Sector skills plan 2010-2011.* [Online]. Available from: http://www.restaurant.org.za/pdf/theta.pdf. [Accessed: 06/04/2011].

TRAVEL INDUSTRY CAREERS ASSOCIATION. 2008. Careers in travel industry. [Online]. Available from:http://www.travelindustrycareers.org/industry-sector/travel-agent. [Accessed: 14/06/2011].

TRIBE, J. 1997. The indiscipline of tourism. *Annals of tourism research*, 24:628-657.

TSHWANE UNIVERSITY OF TECHNOLOGY. 2005a. Institutional operating plan (2005 -2009). Internal document.

TSHWANE UNIVERSITY OF TECHNOLOGY. 2005b. TUT strategic plan (2005 - 2009). Internal document.

UNIVERSITY OF JOHANNESBURG. School of Tourism and Hospitality. 2014. Diploma Tourism Management. [Online]. Available from: http://www.uj.ac.za/EN/Faculties/management/departments/sth/coursesandprogrammes/TourismManagement/Pages/NationalDiplomaTourismManagement. [Accessed: 02/03/2014].

UNIVERSITY OF PRETORIA. Faculty of Economic and Management Sciences. Department of Tourism. S.a. Undergraduate Faculty brochure. [Online]. Available from: http://web.up.ac.za/Default.asp?ipkCategoryID=1035&subid=1035 [Accessed: 02/03/2013].

UNIVERSITY OF SOUTH AFRICA. S.a. A new education framework and the impact on vocational qualifications offered by South African comprehensive universities and universities of technology. Internal document.

VAAL UNIVERSTIY OF TECHNOLOGY. Faculty of Humanities. Department of Hospitality, Tourism and PR Management. S.a. Tourism Management NDip at Vaal University of Technology. [Online]. Available from: http://gostudy.mobi/Institutions/Qualifications/View.aspx?imobi=Vaal+University+of+Technology+(Vanderbijlpark)+(Ekurhuleni)+(Secunda)+(Upington)&InstTpe=1&faculty=Humanities&qid=41549&InstitutionId=14. [Accessed: 02/03/2013].

VAN SCHALKWYK, M. 2006. Ministers' opening address. (Conference on National Tourism Skills Development, October 19 – 20, Mogale City, Muldersdrift). Unpublished.

WANG, J. 2008. A gap analysis between tourism curriculum and industry needs and expectations: a case of THE-ICE institutions in Australia. Master of Art in Tourism thesis, Australia, University of Canberra.

WANG, J. HUYTON, J. GAO, X. and AYRES, H. 2010. Evaluating undergraduate courses in tourism management: A comparison between Australia and China. *Journal of hospitality, leisure, sport and tourism education,* 9(2):46 – 62.

WANG, J., AYRES, H. and HUYTON, J. 2009. Job ready graduates: a tourism industry perspective. *Journal of hospitality and tourism management,* 16:62-72.

WANG, J., AYRES, H. and HUYTON, J. 2009. Job ready graduates: a tourism industry perspective. *Journal of Hospitality and tourism management,* 16:62–72.

WEAVER, D. and LAWTON, L. 2010. *Tourism management*. 4th Ed. Australia: John Wiley & Sons.

WOODS, R.H., NINEMEIER, J.D., HAYES, D.K and AUSTIN, M.A. 2007. *Professional front office management*. New Jersey: Pearson education Ltd.

WORLD TRAVEL TOURISM COUNCIL. 2014a. *Economic impacts of Travel and Tourism 2014 Annual Update: summary* [Online]. Available from: http://www.wttc.org/site_media/uploads/downloads/Economic_Impact_Summary_2014_2ppA4_FINAL.pdf [Accessed: 01/03/2014].

WORLD TRAVEL TOURISM COUNCIL. 2014b. *Travel and Tourism Economic Impact: world data and forecasts: world key facts at a glance.* [Online]. Available from: http://www.wttc.org/site_media/uploads/downloads/world2014.pdf.

YORKE, M & KNIGHT, P.T. 2006. *Embedding employability into the curriculum*. London: RoutledgeFalmer

ZAGONARI, F. 2009. Balancing tourism education and training. *International journal of hospitality management,* 28(1):2-9.

ZEHRER, A and MÖSSENLECHNER. 2009. Key Competencies of Tourism Graduates: The Employers' Point of View. *Journal of teaching in travel & tourism*, 9, 266-287.

ANNEXURE A

QUESTIONNAIRE

ANNEXURE B

COVER LETTER

Department of Tourism Management
Tshwane University of Technology
Private Bag X680
Pretoria
0084

02 December 2012

Dear Tourism Stakeholder

Thank you for agreeing to participate in this study. The attached survey is aimed at identifying subjects that must be included in a three year Tourism Management diploma. The results of this survey will assist the department of Tourism Management at Tshwane University of Technology to serve the tourism industry better by providing graduates that best meet the human resources requirements of the tourism industry.

The questionnaire consists of closed and open– ended questions and it is completely confidential. The questionnaire is designed to take approximately 15 minutes to complete. To access the questionnaire, click the hyperlink provided below and complete the questionnaire online and click on done once complete. The questionnaire will be automatically transmitted to the sender.

https://www.surveymonkey.com/s/SKILLSCONTROL

Thank you in advance.

Philisiwe Lorraine Molefe
Tshwane University of Technology
Faculty: Management Sciences
Department: Tourism Management
Offfice: 30 -297D
Tel: 012 382 3531/5561
Cell: 0822021930
molefepl@tut.ac.za