

University of Pretoria etd –Tsela, P J (2005)

**EMPLOYMENT PATTERNS AND OPPORTUNITIES IN THE HOSPITALITY INDUSTRY OF  
SWAZILAND**

**BY**

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**Submitted in partial fulfilment of the requirement for the degree of**

**M. Inst. Agrar**

**in the**

**Department of Agricultural Economics, Extension and Rural Development  
Faculty of Natural & Agricultural Sciences  
University of Pretoria  
Pretoria**

**November 2004**

## **DECLARATION**

I declare this research to be my own work and that all references used are accurately reported. It is being submitted as partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree M. Inst. Agrar in Rural Development and Ecotourism at the University of Pretoria. It has not been submitted before for any degree or examination at any other University.

## **ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS**

I wish to express my profound gratitude to the following persons and institutions who assisted me in diverse ways to bring this study to a successful end.

1. My creator and heavenly father for giving me the strength and will-power to complete the dissertation.
2. My supervisor, Mr. C.V. Francis, who motivated me throughout the study and devoted time and effort to see to the completion of the study.
3. My co-supervisor, Professor C.L. Machethe, for his assistance and guidance.
4. The managers and employees of the selected accommodation establishments in Swaziland for assisting with the data required for the study.
5. My family and friends, especially my daughters Nokuncoba and Zona Simelane, for their forbearance during the many years that I devoted much of my time to the completion of this study.

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## **Abstract:**

This study investigates the extent of employment opportunities and patterns in the hospitality industry of Swaziland. Unemployment is a universal problem with which the political leadership of almost every country has to wrestle.

Swaziland is a developing country faced with high unemployment, especially among the youth and women. In addition, high poverty levels, high population growth rate and the HIV/AIDS pandemic prevail in the country.

A cross-sectional survey using questionnaires was conducted to collect the data. The respondents selected for this study were seventeen managers and 80 employees from the seventeen stratified randomly selected accommodation establishments (seven hotels, seven guesthouses and three lodges).

Descriptive statistics such as the mean, percentages, standard deviation and cross-tabulation were used to analyse the data. Frequency tables, pie charts and bar charts are used to display the results.

The results of the study revealed that the hospitality industry of Swaziland does generate adequate employment opportunities. People who are skilled

or unskilled, young or old, male or female, with or without experience are found in this sector and most of them are employed on a permanent basis.

The results also showed that there are more female than male employees and that most employees are Swazis. However, with regard to managerial positions, there are more males than females and the majority are non-Swazi.

Seasonality, low pay and a low level of employee skills affect the hospitality sector. The staff turnover rate is low even though young and mobile people dominate the industry.

The government of Swaziland is faced with the challenge of reducing the high unemployment figures. This is possible through the support and development of tourism-related projects.

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## CHAPTER ONE

### INTRODUCTION

This chapter describes the background of the study, and gives reasons for its undertaking. The problem statement and objectives give an indication of where the problem lies. Figure 1 is used to explain the sequence of the study and to enable the reader to understand the basis of the study.

Employment is of vital importance in the life of a modern man, since it not only serves as a means of subsistence but also has an impact on the development of man's personality (Federal Institute for Employment, 2002). Unemployment is a universal problem with which the political leadership of almost every country has to wrestle. The contribution of tourism to a country's economic development may be examined according to the share of tourism in national income, export earnings, tax revenues and employment.

Tourism is one of the biggest contributors to global economic and employment growth in both developed and developing economies (World Travel and Tourism Council, 2001). In all developing countries, tourism has shown itself to be a highly labour-intensive activity that opens up opportunities for the small businesses that are engaged in or provide products and services to the tourism industry (Frangialli, 2002).

Tourism provides exceptionally fertile ground for private initiative. It serves as a basis from which the market economy can expand and flourish. Above all, it creates many jobs: jobs in small- and medium-sized enterprises, as well as work for the self-employed; jobs for the poor, for women, for indigenous communities, for unskilled as well as highly skilled workers. It creates jobs at resorts as well as in isolated rural areas, in handicrafts and in ecotourism (Frangialli, 2002).

The tourism industry comprises many components, including hotels, restaurants, tourist lodges, curios trading, travel agents, airlines, etc. These components interact to deliver the final product, to consequently receive economic benefits, and to generate employment. The hospitality sector of the

tourism industry is the biggest operational component of the industry. The number of jobs per accommodation room represents a clear and easily determined measurement of tourism's ability to create direct employment opportunities (Lockwood & Guerrier, 1999).

Accurate assessment of the scale and nature of tourism-related employment is largely dependent on the ability to identify a tourist (Futter & Wood, 1999). For example, what sets apart a tourist visiting a local restaurant from a regular customer? This study adopts the definition used by the World Tourism Organisation (WTO), which has traditionally been the lead agency responsible for standardised tourism definitions.

WTO (1999:6) defines tourism as: 'the set of activities of a person travelling to a place outside his or her usual environment for less than a year and whose main purpose of travel is other than the exercise of an activity remunerated from within the place visited.'

The phrase 'usual environment' means that the trips within the person's place of residence and routine commuting trips are excluded. The phrase 'exercise of an activity remunerated from within the place visited' excludes migration for temporary work paid for by an agent resident in the place visited. Business-related travel, where the traveler's employer is located somewhere other than the place visited is, however, included.

The tourism industry is affected by seasonality, long working hours, insecurity as well as low wages. A high rate of staff turnover is another characteristic of employment in the hospitality sector.

Worldwide, employment within the tourism sector is estimated at 192.2 million jobs (one in every 12.4 jobs in the formal sector) and the figure is expected to grow to 251.6 million jobs by 2010 (one in every eleven formal sector jobs) (International Labour Organization, 2001). This includes employment created by fixed capital formation activities and by providers to the tourism industry. Direct employment for tourist consumption amounts to about 3 per cent of total employment worldwide (ILO, 2001).

## 1.1 Background

### 1.1.1 Tourism and employment in Swaziland

Swaziland has the potential to emerge as a popular international tourist destination. Support of the tourism sector, which possesses particularly attractive investment opportunities, is aimed at raising the industry to a position of being a leading contributor to the national economy, as well as promoting social upliftment.

Following the major restructuring of most companies in the 1990s, in response to globalisation, a number of employees lost their jobs and joined the informal sector (Thompson, 2002). Further pressure on employment creation emanated from sluggish economic growth, coupled with the closure of a number of major companies during the year 2001. The informal sector remains an important source for job creation and the promotion of Swazi-owned businesses is a priority for relieving unemployment.

The average annual growth rate of employment in the private sector stood at 0.7 per cent for the period 1994 to 1999, while during the same period public sector employment grew at an average annual rate of 1.4 per cent (Vieta, 2000).

The annual growth rate for the private sector employment in the period 1999 to 2000 was 4.5 per cent. The private sector grew faster in terms of employment than the public sector, which had an annual growth rate in employment for the same period of about 1.4 per cent (Employment Statistics Report, 2000).

Preliminary data indicated that during 2000 and 2001, 802 new jobs were created in the formal sector and overall employment stood at 11,578 - an increase of less than one per cent over the previous year. It is expected that this will improve for the year 2002, given the investment potential in the wings (Thompson, 2002). In the private sector, which is the largest employer, there

was an insignificant increase of 0.2 per cent in employment during the same period.

Employment again increased in the transport industry, as well as in sugarcane production and forestry. The increase was undermined by reduced jobs in the manufacturing, mining, distribution and service sectors, where redundancies were necessary (Thompson, 2002).

Total formal sector employment in Swaziland was estimated at 92,888 in 2001, indicating a decline of 0.8 per cent from 93,597 people employed the year before (Central Bank of Swaziland, 2002).

The low rate of growth in the economy can be attributed to a number of factors, including, the pressure on domestic producers to remain competitive in a fast-changing global environment, which has resulted in many firms being forced to implement cost reduction strategies in order to improve efficiency and profitability. This has resulted in a number of job losses.

According to the Employment Statistics Report (2000), in general, more locals (96.6 per cent) are employed than non-Swazis both at ordinary and managerial positions. Swazi female employees occupy most of the managerial positions. But with hotels and restaurants, the inverse is true because there are more male employees than female employees (Employment Statistics Report, 2000). The report further revealed that on average, male employees earn more than female employees do per month (E1485.00 and E1285.00 respectively).

As an industry that possesses the potential to realise long-term economic, social and environmental benefits, tourism in Swaziland is seen as a vehicle to enhance economic development and create employment. The Swaziland Tourism Authority (STA), received a grant of 5 million Emalangeni from the European Union to assist in the establishment of feasible tourism projects in community areas (Community Tourism Grants, 2003).

The potential contribution that tourism can make towards the citizens of Swaziland may be as follows:

*Social*

- Generates foreign exchange to support community facilities and services that otherwise might not be developed.
- Encourages civic involvement and pride.
- Provides cultural exchange between hosts and guest.
- Facilities developed for tourism can also benefit residents.

*Economic*

- Creates local jobs and business opportunities.
- Contributes to state and local tax base.
- Diversify and stabilize the local economy.
- Helps to attract additional businesses and services to support the tourist industry.

*Environmental*

- Fosters conservation and preservation of natural, cultural and historical resources.
- Encourages community beautification and revitalization.

## **1.2 Research problem**

Unemployment is a universal problem more especially for developing countries. Unemployment has an impact on the individual and on the economical well-being of the country. The holding back of the people not to indulge in the hospitality industry services could be ascribed to them not being skilled, knowledgeable and exposed to the industry itself.

This will, however, have a detrimental effect on community life and development at local levels. The political leadership of every country has to deal with the unemployment problem since unemployment leads to poverty, low quality of life, social, political and economic ills.

### 1.2.1 Problem Statement

The Swaziland government estimated that since 1999 there has been little new employment generated, and yet the population has increased by five per cent during that period. The large-scale industrial and commercial sectors of the economy cannot absorb the growing labour force due to constraints on their own growth prospects (Mayer, 2001).

Some estimate that up to 40 per cent of the working age population in Swaziland is unemployed. This is exacerbated by only 20 per cent of about 10,000 school-leavers being absorbed into the job market each year (Employment Statistics Report, 2000).

Apart from the high unemployment rates in Swaziland, it seems the present employed labour has a limited scope of knowledge with regard to the hospitality industry. Moreover, poor working conditions (long working hours, low wages, insecurity, seasonality, etc.) seem to prevail within the industry.

Swaziland is currently faced with high poverty levels, high population growth rate and the HIV/AIDS pandemic. The government of Swaziland is therefore faced with the challenge of reducing the unemployment figures and improving the working conditions within the hospitality industry. This would assist with solving the former problems, since there is a direct relationship between an individual's self-worth or dignity, his quality of life and his employment status.

### 1.2.2 Justification of the study

In Swaziland no study has been done to examine the extent of employment opportunities and patterns related to the tourism industry, particularly within the hospitality sector. Tourism products are said to provide jobs for everyone regardless of age, gender, race and level of education.

Therefore, a study of this nature is imperative, as it will provide valuable information to the Swaziland Government to enable the support of tourism-

related projects both in rural and urban areas in order to provide employment to the country's growing population. This will go a long way to improving the income of the people and, hence, their standard of living.

### 1.2.3 Objectives

#### *General*

To investigate the extent of employment opportunities as well as the employment patterns in the hospitality industry in Swaziland.

#### *Specific objectives*

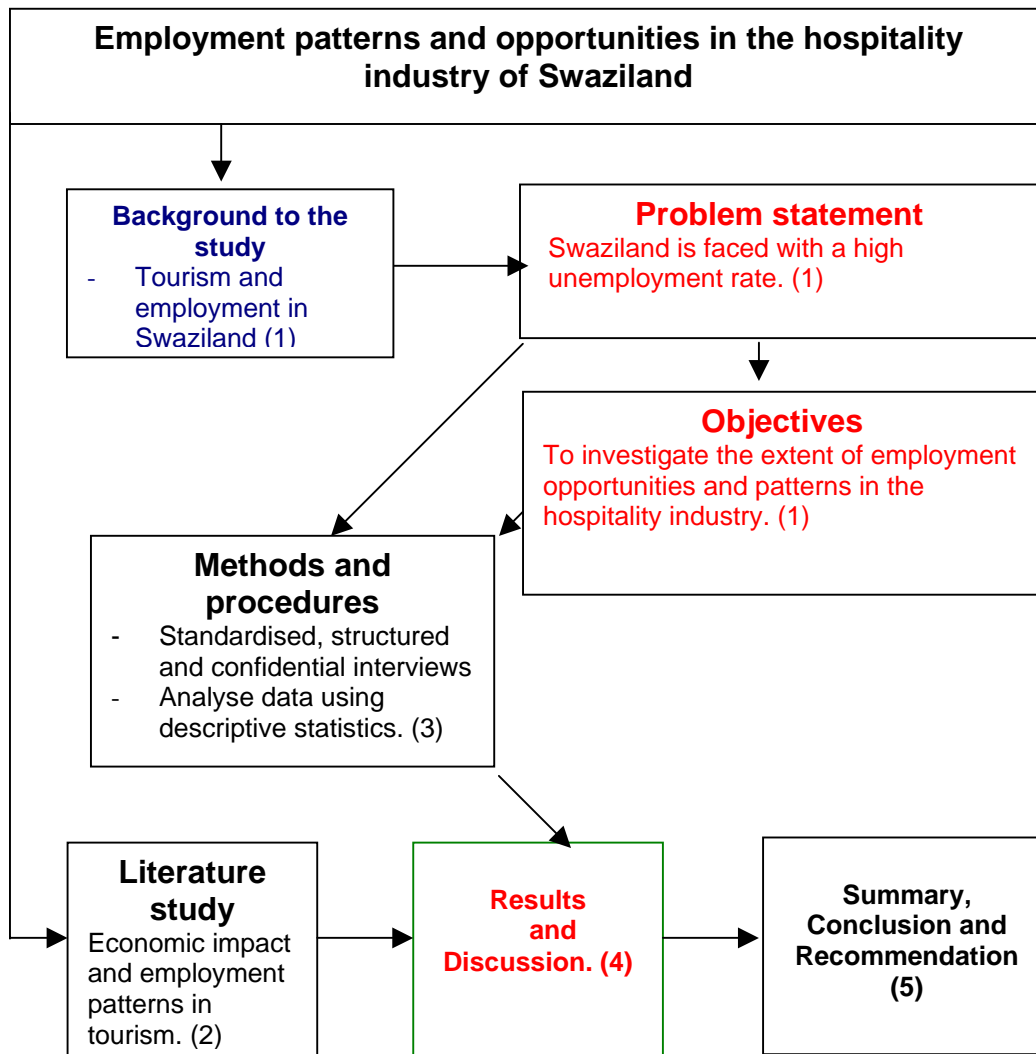
The study objectives are:

- a) To determine the size of employment opportunities that the hospitality industry generates in Swaziland.
- b) To identify the extent to which the locals, youth and women are employed.
- c) To examine if the hospitality industry does suffer from seasonality, low pay and low levels of skills.
- d) To determine job security (rate of turnover) and working conditions and
- e) To investigate gender differences within the industry.

### 1.3 Outline of subsequent chapters

A diagrammatical representation of the structure of the study is shown in Figure 1. It shows a brief overview of the study and how the various chapters are interrelated.

Figure 1: Research structure



Chapter 2 is the first and most extensive component of the literature study. It forms a theoretical base for the whole study. This chapter examines the economic impact of tourism by looking at the concepts of tourism, economic growth and foreign exchange, the impact of tourism on the poor, employment creation and the multiplier effect of tourism.

Furthermore, employment patterns in tourism are described according to the types of employment generated by tourism, training in tourism, composition

of labour force, job and income stability, staff turnover as well as seasonal variation.

Chapter 3 describes in depth the methods and procedures of the study. It explains the survey area (population), source of data collection, methods and instruments for data collection and data analysis.

Chapter 4 presents the results and a discussion of the empirical study. A summary of findings is also made in this chapter.

Chapter 5 comprises a summary of the study in which conclusions and recommendations regarding employment patterns and opportunities in the hospitality sector of Swaziland will be made. Problems encountered while carrying out the survey are also mentioned in this chapter.

## **CHAPTER TWO**

### **LITERATURE REVIEW**

This chapter presents a literature review, which covers the economic impact of tourism as well as employment patterns within the industry.

Unemployment is a universal problem that impacts especially on developing countries. It has a negative impact on the individual and on the economic well-being of the country.

Tourism generates different types of employment and utilises all kinds of people, regardless of their level of education age, race and gender. Low pay, high rate of staff turnover and seasonality affect the industry. Long working hours and shifts are also characteristics of tourism-related jobs. On-the-job training is widely used by management, since the industry employs people of different skill levels and in most cases they have no experience.

It also contributes to the economies of developing countries, particularly to foreign earnings and Gross Domestic Product (GDP). The tourism industry impacts positively on the poor, since the informal sector is often where the poor and women maximise benefits.

#### **2.1 Economic impact of tourism**

##### **2.1.1 Concept of tourism**

Tourism is one avenue for a more balanced development of a country, since it uses resources that are of little consequence to most other sectors of the economy (Gamble, 1989). For example, 'sunlust' tourism, because of its demand for a concentration of facilities and a lively atmosphere, has led to the development of towns with a specialist tourist zone of hotels and other amenities, thus creating job opportunities.

Tourism uses community-based natural resources such as mountains, rivers, waterfalls, etc. as tourist attractions. If these attractions are properly

managed, a decent life with job security and income is highly possible for the people in the area.

There is a wide range of service industries in the world, but there is often no need for the consumer to visit the place of production in order to consume the product. Tourism is a product that relies totally upon simultaneous production and consumption (Brohman, 1996). In effect, if the tourists do not visit a destination then there are no measurable outputs of the industry's activities.

This shows that tourism is a personal service and, as such, can only be consumed by the tourists visiting the destination. The implication of this for the destination's population is that they will come into contact with an alien population during the production process. This contact can be beneficial (create jobs) or detrimental (environmental degradation) to the host population, depending on the nature of contact. Measures to prevent a negative impact of tourism are therefore essential.

The other major economic argument for promoting tourism is that it creates jobs quickly, as tourism is a labour-intensive service industry. Tourism has the capacity to create jobs - jobs for the poor, jobs for women and young people, jobs in the indigenous communities, jobs requiring unskilled as well as highly qualified people, jobs in seaside resorts as well as in remote rural areas and in ecotourism activities. About 75 per cent of all those employed in the tourist industry are semi-skilled or unskilled (Gamble, 1989).

Tourism is a much more diverse industry than many others: it creates opportunities for the small entrepreneur; promotes awareness and understanding among different cultures; breeds a unique informal sector; helps to save the environment; creates economic linkages with agriculture, light manufacturing and curios (art, craft, souvenirs); creates linkages with the services sector (health and beauty, entertainment, banking and insurance); and provides dignified employment opportunities (Frangialli, 1999).

Tourism can also play a strategic role in dynamising other sectors of the economy - the agriculture sector that benefits from the tourism industry (increased demand for new agricultural products and services such as organic agriculture, farm tourism); the manufacturing sector (the supply of furniture and fittings, construction, linens, pots, pans, etc.) as well as crafts (wood-working, curios, fine art) (Department of Environmental Affairs and Tourism, 1996).

Apart from creating jobs, tourism can provide livelihoods for communities. It can also provide infrastructure and other services (roads, electricity, water, etc.) much to the benefit of both the tourists and local people.

The hospitality industry is a sector of the tourism industry and it comprises businesses that serve guests who are away from home (creating the 'home away from home' effect). This includes food and beverages services and lodging services (accommodation). Restaurants and hotels have two-fold purposes: to satisfy both the physical and psychological expectations of guests. They accomplish this through providing a good product and a good service (Chon & Sparrowe, 2002).

#### 2.1.2 Economic growth and foreign exchange

The tourism industry generates substantial economic benefits to both host countries and tourists' home countries. Especially in developing countries, one of the primary motivations for a region to promote itself as a tourism destination is the expected economic improvement (UNEP Tourism, 2002).

The tourism industry makes important contributions to the economies of developing countries, particularly to foreign exchange earning, employment, and Gross Domestic Product (GDP). On average, international tourism receipts account for around ten per cent of export revenues of developing countries (Bennett et. Al., 1999).

The World Travel & Tourism Council, (1996) estimated that tourism generated US\$4.4 trillion of economic activity (supply and demand) and 231

million jobs (direct and indirect) worldwide in 1998. It was estimated that in 1998 travel and tourism contributed 8 per cent to worldwide GDP. Forecasts suggest that the growth of world tourism will continue to outpace global economic growth to the year 2020.

Government revenues from the tourism sector can be categorised as direct and indirect contributions. **Direct** contributions are generated by taxes on incomes from tourism employment and tourism businesses, and by direct levies on tourists such as departure taxes. **Indirect** contributions are those originated from taxes and duties levied on goods and services supplied to tourists (UNEP, 2002)

The economic significance of tourism varies greatly from country to country, with those economies most highly dependent on tourism tending to be small island states. Tourism accounts for 2.8 per cent of total GDP in Swaziland, whereas elsewhere in South Africa tourism contributes 8.2 per cent of the total GDP (Dlamini, 2003).

Tourism's contribution to GDP in Southern Africa Developing Countries (SADC) (based on the tourism economy) is currently estimated at 7.1 per cent and is expected to increase to 8.1 per cent by the year 2010 (WTTC, 1999). South Africa is in the category of countries in which tourism plays a significant and increasing role and where a contribution of between ten per cent and 20 per cent over the next ten years is expected. Other countries that are in the same category are Tanzania (16.2 per cent), Botswana (12.3 per cent), Zimbabwe (11.1 per cent) and Swaziland (ten per cent).

According to the World Tourism Organisation (1999), 698 million people travelled to a foreign country in 2000, spending more than US\$478 billion. International tourism receipts combined with passenger transport currently total more than US\$575 billion - making tourism the world's number one export earner, ahead of automotive products, chemicals, petroleum and food.

The extent to which African's tourist industry and the general economy are mutually dependent is seldom fully appreciated. Yet, as a major source of

export earnings, tourism is also an important consumer of goods and services within the African economy. It is, therefore, one of the most important generators of new business opportunities (Gusafson, 2002).

For instance, in Africa:

- Every US\$100 spent by a tourist in a hotel generates a further US\$48 within the economy.

- Between full-time, part-time and seasonal employment, tourism provides the equivalent of 108,000 full-time jobs, equal to more than eight out of every 100 jobs in Africa. Hotels and guesthouses account for nearly half of these jobs.

- In 1996 alone an additional US\$160 million of overseas tourism revenue resulted in an increase of 5,000 people employed in the tourist industry. In other words, every US\$1 million of additional tourism revenue created extra 31 full-time jobs on the ground.

The hospitality sector as a whole, is one of the largest industries, and is expected to grow ever larger. In 1998 the hospitality sector generated US\$3.6 trillion of economic activity and supported over 230 million jobs. In 2010 it is expected to generate US\$10 trillion dollars of economic activity and employ 328 million individuals (Chon & Sparrowe, 2002).

Detailed analysis indicates that the relationship between consumer expenditure in hotels and job creation is even high, with the equivalent of 82 full-time jobs being created or sustained for every US\$1 million spent (World Tourism Organisation, 1999).

### 2.1.3 Employment creation

Employment is an important issue for countries in the sense that it not only impacts on economic strength, but also on social welfare and population morale (Kozak & Icoz, 1998). In that sense, unemployment compensation salaries and similar benefits do not have the desired effects on their

recipients, and these benefits place an enormous weight on the government's budget. Moreover, those who seek employment but cannot find the jobs they want often become demotivated and despondent.

Tourism employment is viewed as a positive way of integrating underprivileged subgroups into the mainstream economy (Levy & Lerch, 1991). In many developing countries, these jobs are rapidly generated at a relatively low cost; they are concentrated in small businesses and local communities; they provide significant opportunities for women and young people; they offer education training and skills development and protect and revitalise arts and crafts.

The rapid expansion of international tourism has led to significant employment creation (Riley, et.al., 2002). For example, the hotel accommodation sector alone provided around 13.4 million jobs worldwide in 1998. In order to estimate its labour productivity, the accommodation sector habitually uses, in addition to revenue per employee, the number of hotel rooms or beds per employee (ILO, 2001).

In the hotel industry in developing countries, there may be on average up to three people for each hotel bed, while in developed countries the inverse is true, with one person employed for up to three or even four hotel beds. Labour productivity in hotels has increased over the last ten years by about one per cent per year (ILO, 2001).

In the USA, about 45 percent of the 260, 000 new hotel jobs were created nationwide during the 1990s (Working for America Institute, 2003). Since the mid-1980s, hotel employment has grown faster than overall US employment, reflecting the expansion of the industry in the 1980s and late 1990s. In 2000, about 1.8 million people worked in hotels, 48.1 percent more than in 1984.

Between 1998 and 2000, hotel employment rose dramatically in a number of southern and western states, most notably in Mississippi and Nevada. In Mississippi, hotel jobs increased from 7,900 to 35,568 jobs, or 350 per cent.

In Nevada, during the same period, hotel jobs increased from 128,162 to 216,512, or 69 per cent (Working for America Institute, 2003).

In 1995, an estimated 83,400 full-time jobs were directly created by tourism in Zimbabwe (Koch, 1998). Of these, approximately 90 per cent were the result of foreign tourism. In Botswana, tourism is the third largest contributor of foreign exchange and a significant generator of employment. Forty per cent of all jobs in the north of the country can be attributed to tourism.

In South Africa tourism has now overtaken agriculture as a foreign exchange earner. It is estimated that in South Africa as a whole, 810, 000 people are directly or indirectly employed in tourism, representing just over one in 20 economically active people, including both formal and informal sector workers. If the expected growth in tourism materialises, this could create up to 350, 000 extra jobs (UNEP Tourism, 2002).

According to a 2001 study by the Department of Environmental Affairs and Tourism (DEAT), for every overseas tourist that visited South Africa in 2000, a value of about R66, 400 was generated for the GDP. According to the same DEAT research, it is estimated that, on average, one employment opportunity is created for every eight additional overseas visitors to South Africa.

Being a labour-intensive sector, development of tourism industry provides more job opportunities, compared to most of other sectors for each unit of investment (Orhan, 1999). The employment structure of the tourism industry is such that it utilises all kinds of people from different genders and age and ethnic groups, different backgrounds and education levels. For this reason, governments of many developing countries assume the responsibility of developing sustainable tourism products.

#### 2.1.4 Multiplier effect of tourism

Increased spending by tourist creates many jobs. This also results in employment multiplier (Icoz & Tavmergen, 1999). The magnitude of the

employment effects of tourism depends upon the absolute magnitude of primary tourism spending and also on the size of the employment multiplier. For instance, if the employment multiplier for a country is 2.23, this means that for every person directly involved in a tourism job (i.e., hotel receptionist, tour guide, etc.) an additional 1.23 jobs are created in other industries (Mill, 1990).

Tourism provides employment positions ranging from highly trained managers of five-star hotels, managers of gourmet restaurants, and general managers of travel agencies to bell boys, travel guides, handicrafts artists, waiters, cooks, transport workers, housekeepers, and animators. Additionally, those involved in management include a large number of staff specialists who work as accountants, human resources specialists, salespeople, representatives, and public relations specialists. These people in turn require help from a large number of semi-skilled labourers like porters, gardeners, chambermaids, etc. (Mill, 1990).

Indirect employment includes those involved in souvenir industries, furnishing and equipment industries, farming and food supply, and the construction industry. Sophisticated infrastructures such as airports, in addition to basic infrastructures such as roads, water supply, and other public utilities, and also construction of hotels, create jobs for thousands of workers-skilled and unskilled (Muir, 2001).

#### 2.1.5 Impact of tourism on the poor

Tourism's strong contribution to economic growth is evident. But development thinking increasingly recognises that growth is necessary, but not sufficient, to ensure poverty elimination. Tourism affects the livelihoods of the poor in multiple ways- economically, environmentally, socially and culturally (Bennett, et. Al., 1999).

Different segments and types of tourism can have substantially different impacts on the community. Limited evidence suggests that domestic/regional tourism and independent travel can create proportionally more local

economic opportunities than international packaged tourism (Bennett, et. Al., 1999). However, the latter can be economically significant because of its large scale. Within the tourism industry, the informal sector is often where the poor and women can maximise benefits.

The number of tourism jobs available to the poor is limited by their lack of skills, with the result that many jobs are taken by better-skilled outsiders (Bennett, et. Al., 1999). There are also a number of problems associated with the quality of employment in the industry, including low pay, poor working conditions, insecurity, seasonality and a high percentage of children in the work force – ten to fifteen per cent (ILO, 2001).

The poor are more vulnerable to the main negative impacts, such as conflicts with other livelihood strategies through loss of natural resources, and local inflation. They face the greatest barriers to seizing the economic opportunities created by tourism. Therefore, net direct gains are more likely to be experienced by the 'masses' than the poorest.

## **2.2 Employment patterns in tourism**

### **2.2.1 Types of employment generated by tourism**

There are three types of employment that are generated by tourism, namely, direct, indirect and induced employment (Kontogeorgopoulos, 1998).

Direct employment refers to those occupations directly derived from and dependent upon tourism and includes employment in accommodation establishments, shops, restaurants, nightclubs, bars, government tourism administrations, and transport and tour companies.

Indirect employment occurs in the sectors supplying the industry where tourism results in a great demand for souvenirs, food products and other such items. An increase in the demands for tourism goods and services consequently translates to increased employment in the agricultural, food

processing, handicrafts, light manufacturing, construction, and capital goods industries.

Lastly, induced employment is an additional employment that results from the spending and circulation of local tourism income in the local economy. Indirect and induced jobs are created as the tourism industry businesses purchase goods and services from local suppliers or as tourism employees spend their salaries on local goods and services.

### 2.2.2 Composition of labour force

The accommodation sector employs mostly young people, and indeed for many of them it provides the point of entry into the world of work. The industry is also perceived as an easy entry point to the labour market for many first-time employees and those with low skills levels (Futter & Wood, 1999).

It is noted that up to half of the workers in the industry are younger than 25 years old and up to 70 per cent are women, although women are under represented in management jobs (ILO, 2001). Women may find flexible arrangements convenient as a means of balancing family obligations and work.

The prevailing patterns of the hospitality sector workforce are illustrated by the following statistics:

-In Austria in 1995, women accounted for between 60 and 70 per cent of total hospitality sector employment, depending on the subsector, the proportion of women being particularly high in food services and accommodation. In the same country, 14.5 per cent of workers in the industry were under 20 years old.

-In the Netherlands, the average age of workers in the industry is 23 years. In Denmark, 50 per cent of all the employees are under 30 years old. In

Spain, over 50 per cent of all employees are under 34 years old, and the 16-24 years age represents 20.4 per cent of total employment in the sector.

-Some 58 per cent of workers in the hospitality sector in Australia are women.

-In Denmark, the industry is 62 per cent female.

-In Italy, there is a 50 per cent split between men and women.

-In the Netherlands, 52 per cent of employees are women.

-In Spain the figure is 42.5 per cent, although the number of women employed in the sector is increasing.

Compared to US workers overall, hotel workers are younger, have less formal education, are more likely to be women, are more likely to be immigrants, and are less likely to be white. In 2000, about 21.8 per cent of hotel workers were under age 25, 24 per cent did not have a high school diploma, 57.9 per cent were women, 28.4 per cent were immigrants and 45.6 percent were non-white (Working for America Institute, 2003).

### 2.2.3 Job and income stability and staff turnover

Human capital is a concept that can apply to jobs but in theoretical terms is generally applied to individuals. Human capital theory suggests that the pay of an individual be primarily determined by individual attributes such as education, experience in the job and accumulated experience in the labour market. Those who invest in education should earn more than those who do not. Similarly, the more experienced worker should earn more than the less experienced one (Riley, et. Al., 2002).

Labour problems in the industry include high staff turnover, irregular working hours, low levels of unionisation (generally less than ten per cent), and intense pressure on human and environmental resources as tourism

becomes increasingly competitive and reaches into far-flung destinations where institutional resources are weak or inadequate (ILO, 2001).

Staff turnover figures vary from region to region within countries. In the USA, annual turnover in 1997 was running at 51.7 per cent for line-level employees, 11.9 per cent for supervisory levels, and 13.5 per cent for property managers. The study shows that the turnover rate for the managerial levels is far lower than for the line employees (ILO, 2001).

In Asia, a turnover rate of around 30 per cent annually is quoted, rising to more than 50 per cent in Hong Kong, China (ILO, 2001). In the United Kingdom, a study carried out by the Institute of personnel and development in 1997, found a national turnover rate in the sector of 42 per cent, second only to the retail trade, with a rate of 43.5 per cent and far in advance of construction, where the rate was 25 per cent (ILO, 2001).

#### 2.2.4 Seasonal variations

In most recreational tourism destinations, seasonality means at least two labour markets exist: one for permanent workers throughout the year, and a second market for peak season workers. As with casual work, seasonal employment way draw in 'marginal workers', and if demand pressure is high enough, wages may increase (Icoz & Tavmergen, 1999).

The popular conception of the tourism industry is that it employs a higher proportion of part-time and seasonal workers than other industries, and offers mainly unskilled or low-skilled jobs. Most businesses in the sector, both large and small, employ only a core of permanent and full-time staff. Other staff are employed as part-time, seasonal and occasional workers (Futter & Wood, 1999).

Seasonality occurs not only in direct tourism employment but also in indirect work generated by tourism activity. In free labour markets, the result is often attraction of a substantial number of temporary immigrant workers, with consequent shifts of regional income and induced expenditure.

In the context of a considerable overall increase in the hospitality sector's work force, seasonal employment and part-time work have also grown substantially. In Austria, there is a 26 per cent seasonal variation in employment in the sector; in Spain the figure is 47 per cent; in Italy it is more than 50 per cent, while in Denmark the number of employees in the sector doubles during the summer season (ILO, 2001).

#### 2.2.5 Training in tourism

In the hotel and restaurant sector, the skills needed are those which women obtain naturally outside of their jobs in their roles as wives and mothers, therefore women can generally join the industry for certain occupations without any formal training.

Tasks like serving meals, working in the kitchen and making beds are similar to those undertaken in the household and similar jobs in hotels are traditionally regarded as female occupations (Shaw & William, 1994). This view is largely capitalised on in the developing countries with low levels of education and large numbers of women outside the formal labour market.

According to ILO (2001), the wage differential is due to the high proportion of unskilled workers. Workers in the hotel, catering and tourism sectors earn on average at least 20 per cent less than workers in other economic sectors.

The nature of skills in tourism is such that they can be easily learnt 'on-the-job' and, consequently, employers often take unskilled workers and rely on 'on-the-job training'. This means that not only is entry into the industry comparatively easy, but there is also a promise of skills development within the industry. Skill creates pay differentials both between industries and between occupations within an organisation (Kontogeorgopoulos, 1998).

The tourism industry in South Africa directly and indirectly employed an estimated 480,000 persons in 1996, a figure which was expected to double by the year 2000 (WTTC, 1996). At the tertiary level, training in tourism and hospitality services is offered at a limited number of public and private

institutions. Skill training at the lowest levels (e.g. barmen, cleaners, porters) is mainly done on an in-house basis.

With a total training capacity of some 10,000 and an industry expected to require 100,000 additional persons per year in the next five years, training capacity falls far short of the needs (DEAT, 1996). This is not to mention the general need for community-wide tourism awareness programmes as well as the urgent need for a wide range of basic skills among persons who are the first line of contact with the customer. The data also suggest that South Africa is not capable, with present output, of satisfying more than ten per cent of its training needs (DEAT, 1996).

Improving the quality of employment in these sectors will require large investments in training, including continuous training for workers at all levels, beyond initial vocational instruction, in order to prepare them for rapidly changing skill requirements.

In Swaziland, tourism-related courses have not been offered by most of the learning institutions. The Swaziland College of Technology (SCOT) has been offering catering courses until recently, when it introduced other tourism-related courses. Other learning institutions offering tourism-related courses are now mushrooming, for example the Boston College in Mbabane. For so long, Swazis interested in tourism training have relied on learning institutions offering tourism-related courses outside the country.

### 2.3 Swaziland as a tourist destination

Tourism is a vital component of Swaziland's economic performance and is a valuable potential source of foreign earnings. Swaziland has the potential to emerge as a popular international attraction. Support of this sector, which possesses attractive investment opportunities, is aimed at raising the industry to a position of being a leading contributor to the national economy, as well as promoting social upliftment (Swaziland Review, 2002).

Swaziland offers a unique experience for tourists and visitors, with considerable interest shown by both regional and international visitors. Against a backdrop of outstanding scenic beauty and incredible variety, the country's drawcards include its cultural traditions, quality accommodation, and opportunities to view the abundant fauna and flora in the wild.

The tourism industry offers major opportunities to develop the country's private sector, particularly among local communities where partnerships could be established (Swaziland Review, 2002). Enticing investment areas include the Maputo and Lubombo spatial development initiatives, Maguga Dam and proposed tourism and biodiversity corridors.

Swaziland is a popular weekend and conference venue and the tourism industry is characterised by short stays of one or two nights. Swaziland relies heavily on South African visitors and on 'spillover' from tourists to the region, as Swaziland is too small to stand alone as an international tourist destination (Thompson, 2002).

Swaziland is a member of the Regional Tourism Organisation of Southern Africa, the tourism-marketing arm of the Southern African Development Community, which promotes Southern Africa as the world's leading ecotourism destination.

Swaziland is represented in tourism and travel fairs and exhibitions, including the world's largest tourism fair held in Berlin, the World's Travel Market in London, and South Africa's 'Indaba', while new markets have been tapped in Scandinavia and Sweden.

In Swaziland, tourism is poised to benefit from substantial forethought and hard work by both the public and private sectors in the industry. Tourism has been long considered an effective catalyst of rural socio-economic development and regeneration. Tourism has been widely promoted and relied upon as a means of addressing the social and economic challenges facing peripheral rural areas, primarily those associated with the decline of agrarian industries (Hussey, 2001).

### 2.3.1 Location

The landlocked Kingdom of Swaziland covers an area of just over 17,000 square kilometers - about the same size as Wales, and is the smallest country in the southern hemisphere. It is situated between the Republic of South Africa and Mozambique at a latitude of 31 degrees, 30 minutes east of Greenwich and a longitude of 26 degrees, 30 minutes south of the equator (Thompson, 2002).

Swaziland is divided from north to south into four distinct geographical regions (See Addendum 1).

The highveld is forested with indigenous and exotic trees, endless peaks, rushing waterfalls and cool, crisp, champagne air. The middleveld drops gently in altitude to fertile valleys where fruits, crops and vegetables thrive in the balmy climate. The lowveld, still and hot, is where the dense bush of the national parks meets the sugar cane and cotton crops of the eastern region. Finally, the mountainous region of Lubombo, divides Swaziland from Mozambique and the sea; here the three great rivers, the Umbuluzi, the Usuthu and the Ngwavuma, flow out of the kingdom towards the Indian Ocean. Within a small area, Swaziland contains diverse geographical phenomena which can be explored without the need to travel far.

Bound to the north, south and west by the Republic of South Africa and to the east by Mozambique, Swaziland is well situated as a tourist destination. International airlines fly regularly to neighbouring countries such as South Africa and Botswana- and the visitor may continue his journey on Swazi Airlink into Swaziland.

### 2.3.2 Swazi culture and history

The Kingdom of Swaziland is an independent monarchy fiercely proud of its traditions and heritage. King Mswati III is the executive head of the people of Swaziland and his laws and customs are prescribed through parliament and the constitution. It is important for the visitors to know that Swaziland is a

sovereign state completely independent from South Africa politically, ideologically, culturally and in practice.

Swazi customs are conservative (Motsa, 1996), based upon the stability of the extended family and always taking their lead from the traditional practice and ancient example. Modern technology is also present in the Kingdom: large industrial companies operate and prosper. This is partly due to efforts by Swaziland's government to attract international investment and to the stable political climate existing within the Kingdom, which attracted western interest and capital.

The Kingdom of Swaziland remains a stable and easily accessible country, rich in scenic beauty and traditional values (Hussey, 2001). The attraction of a young monarch and a rich cultural heritage fostered each year at the annual *Incwala* and *Umhlanga* ceremonies, act as a natural magnet to those seeking the unspoiled, the unusual and the very spirit of old Africa.

### 2.3.3 Tourist areas and attractions

The four distinct geographic regions, with their varying climates and characteristics, may be seen as the main tourism areas, providing year-round enjoyment of a country that exhibits political stability and a low crime rate.

#### *Mbabane, Ezulwini Valley, Lobamba and Manzini*

Many opportunities exist to visit handicraft centres that offer exclusive decoration items. Mbabane market offers opportunities for bargains while modern shopping complexes provide every requirement. The royal area of Lobamba is a source of great interest for visitors, while Manzini, is situated in the centre of the Kingdom, making it an ideal base from which to explore.

The Ezulwini Valley, known to tourists as 'the playground' of the Kingdom, is the home of several luxurious hotels and a casino. Exciting tours may be arranged and opportunities for sports enthusiasts abound. Also located here is the oldest and most frequented game park in the Kingdom, the Mlilwane

Wildlife Sanctuary. The Matenga Nature Reserve and the Swazi Cultural Village are also found in this area.

*Pigg's Peak and the north*

In the highveld, rivers cut deep gorges in the dramatic landscape to traverse the mountains. The popular resort of Pigg's Peak is located here. The largest game reserve in the north is an unspoilt area of Africa with low shrubland and dense bush. Two of Swaziland's highest mountains as well as waterfalls may be found in the north.

*Nhlangano and the south*

A picturesque route in this pretty district takes visitors through a magical area ideal for picnics. A well-structured wildlife sanctuary provides game-viewing opportunities, while white-water rafting is popular on the Great Usutu River.

*Eastern Swaziland*

The Lubombo area, in the far eastern section along the border, is made up of mountain ridges broken by the gorges of three rivers. The rugged countryside contains a reserve that is 18, 000 hectares in extent.

There are several golf courses, among them the outstanding 18-hole championship course at the Royal Swazi Sun Hotel, and those at clubs in major centres. Tennis, squash and bowls facilities are available, and horseriding trails are being developed in scenic areas. The Sand River Dam near Tshaneni is a popular venue for sailing and waterskiing, and watersports are also available at Van Eck Dam near Big Bend. Fishermen can enjoy fishing after obtaining a permit from the Ministry of Agriculture. There are also a number of thermal springs in Swaziland.

A variety of craft indigenous to the Swazi people can be seen in production, ordered and purchased. Breathtaking scenery, which nearly overwhelms the visitor in its variety and beauty, contributes to the theory that Swaziland is the 'Switzerland of Africa'. Among Swaziland's unique attractions are the colourful cultural ceremonies such as the Reed Dance in August/September

and the *Incwala* in December/January, as well as the traditional *Sibhaca* dance.

#### 2.3.4 *Accommodation in Swaziland*

The hospitality industry is proving to be one of the most successful venues for professional opportunities in the 21<sup>st</sup> century, especially for young college graduates (Campell, 2003). Employment opportunities abound in response to the booming economy as well as the need to build bigger hotels, establish more up-scale restaurants, and provide additional means of entertainment for the public.

The hospitality industry in its most general sense implies businesses whose principle mission is to cater for guests. It is a multi-trillion dollar industry that touches nearly every facet of commerce daily. Lodging, travel, and food service are the primary divisions comprising the hospitality industry. Swaziland's accommodation facilities, with a broad spread of standards, size and location, cater for all tastes -from luxury international hotels with sports facilities, to homely lodges and guesthouses specialising in personal service, and rustic, traditional-style establishments.

There is effectively something to suit all requirements within the leisure and business categories and because of the close proximity of business venues to places of interest, it is feasible to combine a working trip with a holiday (Thompson, 2002). Sun International's four hotels in Swaziland are part of the Sun International Group in Southern Africa. Three of these are in the scenic Ezulwini Valley, the country's main tourist area, and within easy reach of most attractions.

The Royal Swazi Sun, which has a to five-star rating, is the flagship of the local group, with facilities such as shops, a nightclub, restaurants and banking services. The 149-room hotel also offers a fully-equipped conference and banqueting centre, which caters for up to 500 people in the auditorium and 650 in the banqueting room. The hotel's casino was the first in Southern Africa. Sporting facilities include tennis, squash, swimming, bowls and an 18-hole international golf course (Thompson, 2002).

The adjacent Lugogo Sun, whose 202 rooms were refurbished during 2000, provides a pleasant, more informal ambience with a restaurant and bar, plus banqueting and conference facilities, as well as a boutique and a book shop. Across the road is the Ezulwini Sun, which, on a smaller scale, offers the same informal elegance as the Lugogo. 60 of the 120 rooms have been converted into 20 time-share apartments that fall under the Vacation Club. Together the three hotels provide international standards in the spectacular setting of the 'heavenly valley'.

The fourth hotel in the group is the Nhlangano Sun, located near the southern town of the same name. This comprises 47 pleasant chalets built around the self-contained complex that incorporates a restaurant, bar, small casino, nightclub and cinema. There are also conference facilities for up to 100 people and various sporting activities, including tennis and golf.

### 2.3.5 *Swaziland's tourism policy*

In the year 2002, tourism policies have been put in place which will map the future for tourism regarding finances, projects, joint cooperation agreements and the improvement of infrastructure, training and marketing of this important industry (Hussey, 2001). The overall objective of the policy is to establish, support and promote a sustainable, efficient and diversified tourism industry, based on the integrated cultural and ecological attraction of Swaziland.

The Tourism Authority Act of 2001 has set out the establishment of the Swaziland Tourism Authority. The objectives of this authority lie in the coordinating and facilitating the development, monitoring and marketing mechanism of the country's tourism industry. Intrinsic to its role is the promotion of local and foreign investment in this industry. In addition, a tourism board has been established, comprising members from public and private sectors, to steer the fledging tourism industry successfully forward.

## **CHAPTER THREE**

### **METHODS AND PROCEDURES**

This chapter describes how the study was carried out in order to achieve the stated objectives. Knowing the problem statement and objectives, the researcher was able to come out with suitable methods and procedures for the study.

The empirical survey was undertaken by means of an interview using a well-structured questionnaire. This enabled the researcher to explain the purpose of the study to the interviewee and clarify individual items. From an economic point of view, this was the cheapest way of collecting data from a large group since the researcher was faced with financial constraints.

The survey was cross-sectional since data was collected at one point in time. For instance, data from all the selected seventeen establishments were collected over a period of one month. The cross-sectional method was also used because of its advantage of being able to study larger groups.

#### **3.1 Survey area/population**

The study was conducted in Swaziland. The target population for the study was the managers and employees of the hospitality industry (hotels, guesthouses and lodges).

#### **3.2 Source of data collection**

Data for this study came from primary sources. It was collected from the selected accommodation establishments' managers and employees through interviews and the administration of questionnaires.

### **3.3 Methods and instruments of data collection**

#### **3.3.1 Sample selection and size**

Respondents were selected from a population of 55 accommodation establishments based on the latest accommodation list of Swaziland. The study involved stratification of the population before selecting the sample. The population was stratified according to hotels, guesthouses and lodges.

Stratified sampling is the process of selecting a sample in such a way that identified subgroups in the population are represented in the sample in the same proportion that they exist in the population (Gay, 1996). Used in this study, this method guarantees the desired representation of relevant subgroups (hotels, lodges and guesthouses) from the population (hospitality industry).

According to Babbie (1995), for descriptive research, the corresponding general guideline is to sample ten to 20 per cent of the population. Gay (1996) asserts that in reality, the appropriate sample size depends on a number of factors, such as the specific type of descriptive research involved, the size of the population or whether data will be analysed for the given subgroups.

Based on the size of the population, the researcher felt that 10 to 20 per cent of the population would not be sufficient, since only between five and eleven establishments would be involved in the study. A stratified random sample was then selected by taking 30 per cent of each of the establishment type, which resulted in a total of seventeen establishments being selected (seven hotels, seven guesthouses and three lodges).

#### **3.3.2 Data collection**

In order to achieve the objectives of the study, it was necessary to obtain primary data, which was collected by means of a well-structured interview schedule. The reasons for choosing this instrument are the following:

- A large volume and variety of information can be collected.
- Low response rates are avoided, such as when using the mail survey.
- Time and money are saved as there are no follow-ups made and unclear questions are explained on the spot.
- Since the tourism industry consists of employees with different levels of education, some of them can not read and write, and this method of data collection eliminates the chance of questionnaires being completed by skilled employees only.

The survey instrument used for this study dealt with several issues including employment opportunities, employment patterns, seasonality and staff turnover. Managers from the selected establishments formed the first group of the respondents. The second set of respondents consisted of employees of these sampled accommodation establishments.

Ten per cent of employees were randomly selected from hotels while 20 per cent were selected from guesthouses and lodges. This is because hotels have a larger number of employees compared to the other establishments.

The questionnaire was divided into two parts: one for the managers (Addendum 2a) and the other for the employees (Addendum 2b). The managers' questionnaire has 24 questions, while the employees' questionnaire has 22 questions. A very long questionnaire was avoided so that respondents would not be frustrated and exhausted when giving the necessary information. At the same time, all elements of the study objectives were covered.

The questionnaire consists of closed and sifting questions and a categorical scale was applied. The researcher used closed questions because they reduce the variability of responses, make fewer demands on interviewer skills, are less costly and they are much easier to code and analyse than open-ended questions.

Employees were asked to give information concerning their origin, level of education, income, work experience, training, hours worked, shifts, provision

of meals and personal data. Those who could not read and write were not excluded from the survey since the researcher was there to give any necessary assistance to everyone. Employees from the different departments of each establishment (i.e. kitchen, bar, laundry, reception, security, etc.) were involved.

Apart from providing personal data, managers were asked to give information concerning their income, work experience, training, number of staff, number of rooms and beds, age of their establishments, staff turnover, staff recruitment and seasonal variation.

One of each accommodation type (i.e. hotel, guesthouse and lodge) was randomly selected for the pilot study. A pilot study involves pretesting the interview guide, procedures and analysis procedures before the main study begins, using a small sample from the same population. Feedback was used to revise questions in the guide that were apparently unclear.

The pilot study was conducted in different accommodation establishments, and afterwards the necessary adjustments and changes were made to the questionnaire. The results of the pilot study helped the researcher to determine whether the resulting data could be quantified and analysed in the manner intended. Respondents from the pilot study were excluded from the later sample of the study.

Appointments for interviews were made by telephone calls. The researcher made a point of discussing the issue of appointments with the managers themselves of the accommodation establishments, and not with any other employee, for example, the secretary. For some accommodation establishments, several telephone calls were made until the researcher got hold of the manager. This was done in order to eliminate misunderstandings over the arrangements.

Face-to-face interviews were conducted using an interview schedule. According to Gay (1996), the administered questionnaire has some definite advantages over other methods of collecting data. It provides an opportunity

to establish a rapport with respondents, to explain the purpose of the study, and to clarify individual items. A questionnaire requires less time than a mail survey, is less expensive and permits collection of data from a much larger sample.

For some accommodation establishments, repeated visits were made since the management would not honour the appointment without notifying the researcher about the changes. All in all, the researcher was able to get information from all the selected accommodation establishments.

### 3.4 Data analysis

Gay (1996) asserts that analysis of the data is as important as any other component of the research process. Regardless of how well the study is conducted, inappropriate analysis can lead to inappropriate conclusions. The complexity of the analysis is not an indication of its 'goodness'; a simple statistic is often more appropriate than a more complicated one.

A total of 97 questionnaires, as many as expected, were completed by the respondents and then used for data analysis. This suggests that there was no response bias in this study, since the targeted number of questionnaires was reached. Questions were then coded numerically; for instance, in response to a question that asks for the identification of one's gender, the variables were coded 1 for male and 2 for female. Coding helped the researcher to reduce several hundred replies to a few categories containing the critical information needed for analysis.

Descriptive statistics, which measure central tendency (location), such as the mean and mode, were used to analyse the data for this study. The mean indicates the average performance of a group based on the measurement of some variables. The standard deviation (measure of spread) indicates how spread out a set of scores is. Scores can be relatively close together and clustered around the mean or spread out over a wide range.

Frequency tables are used as a means of tabulating percentages. Percentages translated the data into standard form, with a base of 100, for relative comparisons. Therefore, it was easy for the researcher to see the relative relationship between data elements and shifts in the data.

The responses to Questions 16 to 19 on the manager's questionnaire (Addendum 2b) helped the researcher to determine the size of employment opportunities that the hospitality industry generates in Swaziland (Objective a). The mean and staff-to-room ratio were calculated. A frequency table and a pie chart are used to display the results.

To address Objective b, which is the extent to which locals, youth and women are employed, responses from Questions 4, 6 and 7 on the employee's questionnaires (Addendum 2a) and 6, 8 and 9 on the manager's questionnaires (Addendum 2b) were used. Means and percentages were calculated and a frequency table shows the results.

To examine whether the hospitality industry does suffer from seasonality, low pay and low levels of skills (Objective c), responses from Question 10, 11, 13 and 14 on the employee's questionnaire (Addendum 2a) and Questions 11, 12, 14, 15 and 20 on the manager's questionnaire (Addendum 2b) were used. Means and percentages were calculated and frequency tables are used to display the results.

Objective d- to determine job security (rate of turnover) and working conditions)- was met by the calculation of means, percentages and standard deviation on the responses from Questions 21 and 23 on the employee's questionnaire (Addendum 2a) and 18 to 22 on the manager's questionnaire (Addendum 2b). Frequency tables display the results.

To investigate gender differences (Objective e), responses from Questions 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 10 and 17 on the employee's questionnaire (Addendum 2a) were used. Cross-tabulation which is used as a technique for comparing two classification variables, such as employees profiled by gender, was applied. Bar charts were then used to display the results.

## CHAPTER FOUR

### RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The research distinguishes between respondents who are managers and those who are regular employees.

Regular employment refers to primary labour that possesses no direct decision making authority, while managerial employment implies the vestige of some degree of decision-making power and operational responsibility.

This chapter presents the results and discussions of the study. Large employment opportunities are revealed by the results of the study. Swazi employees dominate the industry and most are employed on permanent basis. There are more young females than males, though females are under-represented in senior positions. Seasonality, low pay, long working hours and low levels of skills affect the industry but the rate of staff turnover is low. Gender differences, in terms of education and income, are evident in this study.

#### **4.1 Extent of employment opportunities**

It is often argued that the large number of jobs per accommodation establishment could be used as a proxy for the ability of the tourism industry to create direct opportunities. When there are several people employed for one room/bed, job opportunities are higher than when one person is employed for many rooms/beds. This study reveals that the ratio of the number of employees to the number of rooms is 0.496, which implies that for every 100 rooms, a total of 49.6 jobs are created (Table 4.1).

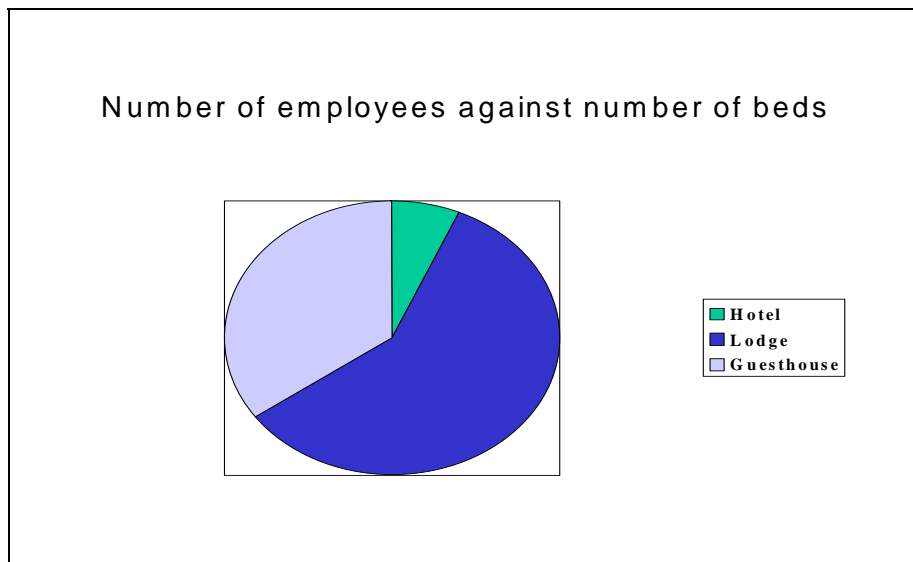
**Table 4.1: A profile of the number of rooms/beds, number of staff, and staff-to-room ratio**

Establish-ments	Number of establish-ments	Number of rooms	Number of beds	Number of employees	Number of employees per room*
Hotels	7	520	1009	192	0.369
Lodges	4	54	113	71	1.320
Guest-houses	6	86	171	64	0.744
Total	17	660	1293	327	0.496

\* Number of employees divided by number of rooms.

Figure 2 illustrates that the different accommodation establishments generate different job opportunities. The lodges have high job opportunities (1.32), followed by guesthouses (0.774) and lastly hotels (0.369). This difference in job creation capacity may be due to the fact that hotels (especially the large ones) have adopted new technologies, such as computers, dishwashing machines, vacuum cleaners etc, and therefore less labour is required.

**Figure 2: Employment by type of accommodation establishment**



In other words, the results show that the average number of employees per room (staff-to-room ratio) is 2:1, which means that there are two people

employed for one establishment room. This is clear evidence of employment opportunities in the hospitality industry of Swaziland.

## **4.2 The extent of employment patterns**

### **4.2.1 The extents to which locals are employed**

Table 4.2. presents the profile of respondents in this study. As expected, the results indicate that most of the regular employees in this industry are Swazis, (96.3 per cent) and most of them are employed on a permanent basis (85 per cent). On the management side, the results show that the majority (58.8 per cent) of the managers interviewed are not Swazis, and 90 per cent of them have college or university education compared to only 50 per cent of Swazis who have tertiary education.

This implies that most Swazis are not trained to the level that they require to assume senior positions. This suggests a big challenge to the Swazi people who aspire to take up senior positions in the hospitality industry. It is important for locals to understand and appreciate the importance of education if they hope to be managers in this industry.

Table 4.2: Profile of respondents

Respondents Item	Regular employees		Managers	
	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage
<b>Employment by race</b>				
Swazi	77	96.3	7	41.2*
Non-Swazi	3	3.7	10	58.8*
<b>Employment status</b>				
Permanent	68	85	17	100
Temporary	12	15	0	0
<b>Gender of respondents</b>				
Males	35	43.7	10	58.8
Females	45	56.3	7	41.2
<b>Age range of workers</b>				
20-30	30	37.5	3	17.6
31-40	30	37.5	6	35.3
41-50	19	23.75	7	41.2
50+	1	1.25	1	5.9
<b>Marital status</b>				
Married	31	38.8	12	70.6
Single	49	61.2	5	29.4

\* 90 per cent of the non-Swazis have college or university educations and 50 per cent of the Swazis have college or university educations.

#### 4.2.2 Extent to which women are employed

The results show that the industry is sensitive to gender equality, since it employs both men and women. However, the results indicate that there are more females (56.3 per cent) than males employed in the hospitality industry. This supports the theory that the tourism industry in general employs more females than males, with the reason being that women find flexible arrangements are convenient, as a means of balancing family obligations and work, which the industry provides.

Traditionally, women play an important role in the hospitality industry. However, their access to higher levels of the corporate structure remains problematic. Similar to the findings of the ILO (2001) in the USA, which found that 43.8 per cent of women are employed in managerial posts, this study found that less than half, 41.2 per cent, of all managerial posts in the sample of the hospitality sector in Swaziland are held by women.

#### 4.2.3 Extent to which youth is employed

The results show that most of the employees in the tourism industry are young and not married. The results in Table 4.2 reveal that 75 per cent of the respondents were younger than 40 years old, and most (61.3 per cent) of them were not married. This could be due to the fact that single persons can afford to work late hours without family worries and concerns, as compared to married people.

The results also show that most (41.2 per cent) of the managers' respondents are between the ages of 40 and 50 years and only six per cent are above 50 years old. The results also show that the majority (71 per cent) of the managers interviewed are married.

The results indicate that 80 per cent of the employees had dependents and two thirds (60.3 per cent) of those with dependents had either one or two children. This may be attributed to the fact that tourism is known as an industry that employs young people.

### **4.3 Levels of skills, income and seasonality**

#### **4.3.1 Levels of skills**

Table 4.3 presents the profile of education, training and experience for respondents in this study. All the respondents attended school, though some dropped out at different levels. Most of the regular employees (38.8 per cent) had a secondary level of education, 27.5 per cent had 'O' levels, 20 per cent had college education and 13.8 per cent had a primary level of education. The results show that none of the employees has a university degree. This could be attributed to the fact that there are no tourism courses offered at the University of Swaziland.

**Table 4.3: Profile of education, training and experience of respondents**

<b>Respondents</b>	<b>Regular employees</b>		<b>Managers</b>	
<b>Item</b>	<b>Number</b>	<b>Percentage</b>	<b>Number</b>	<b>Percentage</b>
<b>Level of education</b>				
None	0	0	0	0
Primary	11	13.8	0	0
Secondary	31	38.8	1	5.9
'O' level	22	27.5	3	17.6
College	16	20	8	47.1
University	0	0	5	29.4
<b>Tourism training</b>				
Did train	11	13.75	7	41.2
No training	69	86.25	10	58.8
<b>Experience</b>				
Worked before	14	17.5	7	41.2
Not worked before	66	82.5	10	58.2
<b>Position held by those who have worked before</b>				
Manager	2	14.3	5	71.4
Supervisor	1	7.1	2	28.6
Ordinary employee	11	78.6	0	0
<b>Reason for changing jobs</b>				
Poor working conditions	3	20	0	0
For better paying job	6	40	1	14.3
Start own business	4	26.6	4	57.1
No advancement opportunities	1	6.7	1	14.3
Other	1	6.7	1	14.3
<b>Years working</b>				
<1	29	23.8	9	52.9
1-5	29	36	4	23.5
6-10	15	18.8	1	5.9
11-15	6	7.5	1	5.9

16-20	4	5	1	5.9
21-25	6	7.5	0	0
25+	1	1.3	1	5.9

As expected, the results show that the majority of the manager respondents either have a college or university degree (47.1 and 29.4 per cent respectively), and they have all gone through their primary education.

The results show that most of the regular employees (86.3 per cent) had not done any tourism-related training and that 82.5 per cent of the employees' respondents had not worked in any other tourism sector before joining the present one. This suggests that the tourism industry employs mainly low-skilled and inexperienced people.

It is often argued that the high level of training and experience needed in managerial positions reduces the chance for local residents to assume managerial positions. In Swaziland, this could be intensified by the lack of tourism-related courses in the learning institutions.

The results further show that 58.8 per cent of the manager respondents have not done any tourism training, and those who have done it only account for 41.2 per cent and they have specialised in the hospitality sector. More than half (58.8 per cent) of the managers had not worked in any other tourism sector before joining the present one. This shows that there is a lack of training and experience among the managers.

The majority (78.6 per cent) of employees who had worked in other tourism sectors before joining the present one were working as ordinary employees. The results show that three quarters (75 per cent) of the employees in the hospitality industry left their previous jobs because they had found better-paying jobs elsewhere.

The results in Table 4.3 also indicate that most (36 per cent) of the respondents had been in their current establishment for fewer than five years, while, 23.8 per cent had been involved in the industry for less than a

year. This could be an indicator of employment opportunities in the tourism industry, as some theories argue that a firm with a large number of long-term employees (who have worked there for longer than five years) has few employment opportunities (Kontogeorgopoulos, 1998). In this case, there are quite a number of new employees, which indicates that more people are being employed within this industry.

The results show that about half (52.9 per cent) of the manager respondents had been working within the same accommodation establishments for less than five years. This may indicate a possibility of a high rate of turnover for employed managers.

Of those who worked in other tourism sectors before, 29.4 per cent, held managerial positions and the main reason cited for changing their jobs was to start their own businesses. As one would expect, they all started tourism-related businesses, such as guesthouses or lodges, as a result of the experience they had.

#### 4.3.2 Income of employee respondents

Table 4.4 presents the income for employee respondents. The results show that 45 per cent earn not more than E1000.00 per month. The reason behind these low wages could be that the tourism industry employs unskilled labour, as the human theory suggests that the pay of an individual is primarily related to the individual's attributes, such as education and experience (Riley, 2002). The results also show that fewer than half (35.3 per cent) of the managers earn not less than E5000 per month.

**Table 4.4: Income of employee respondents**

Income per month (E)	Number	Percentage
100-999	36	45
1000-1999	31	38.8
2000-2999	8	10
3000-3999	4	5
4000-4999	0	0
5000+	1	1.3

<b>Other source of income</b>		
Supplementary	7	8.8
None	73	91.3

The results further reveal that 91.3 per cent of the employees have no other sources of income, thus they rely solely on their monthly salaries/wages, and only 8.8 per cent supplement their income through hawking.

#### 4.3.3 Seasonal variation (seasonality)

Seasonality refers to certain periods when establishments receive more tourists while in other periods they receive fewer. Table 4.5 presents establishments affected by seasonality.

**Table 4.5: Seasonality in establishments**

<b>Item</b>	<b>Number</b>	<b>Per cent</b>
<b>Seasonality</b>		
Yes	12	70.6
No	5	29.4
<b>Contingencies during Seasonality</b>		
Employ part-timers	7	41.2
No part-timers	10	58.8

The results in Table 4.5 show that most establishments (70.6 per cent) in the sample are affected by seasonality. From discussions with all the managers in the sample, it was gathered that the peak season months for most establishments are usually August, September, November and December.

This increase in tourist numbers during these months is attributed to several cultural activities that are held every year, such as the *Umhlanga* (reed dance) and *Incwala* ceremonies. Some establishments receive even more tourists in March because of the Easter holidays.

In most cases, accommodation establishments need to increase their staff during the peak season to take care of the high demand for accommodation and other services. The results show that during the peak periods, more than half (59 per cent) of the respondents indicated that they managed without extra labour, while fewer than half (41.2 per cent) hired part-time workers to cope with the situation. The reason cited by managers for not hiring part-time workers is insufficient funds for extra wages.

#### 4.4 Staff turnover and other working conditions

##### 4.4.1 Staff turnover

Staff turnover is defined as the ratio of the number of organisational members who have left during the period being considered divided by the average number of people in that organisation during the same period (ILO, 1999). Table 4.6 shows the number of establishments with and without staff turnover while Table 4.7 shows the staff turnover ratio.

**Table 4.6: Establishments with and without staff turnover**

Staff turnover	Number	Per cent
Yes	2	11.8
No	15	88.2
Total	17	100

**Table 4.7: Staff turnover ratio**

Year	Total number of employees	Number of employees who left	Staff turnover ratio*
2001	44	8	0.18
2002	44	6	0.14

\*Number of employees who left divided by total number of employees currently in establishment

In an industry that employs a large proportion of young and mobile people, one would expect the turnover to be high. However, the results of this study indicate that the staff turnover rate is very low in the hospitality industry of

Swaziland. Most of the managers (88.2 per cent) reported that they experience very low rates of staff turnover. The staff turnover rate was, on average, 18 per cent in 2001 and 14 per cent in 2002.

#### 4.4.2 Staff recruitment

Table 4.8 presents staff recruitment and on-the-job training. It is often thought that the recruitment of qualified and experienced staff leads to high productivity in an industry (Riley, et.al., 2002). The results of this study show that most (70.6 per cent) of the establishments employ unqualified staff and provide them with on-the-job training.

**Table 4.8: Staff recruitment and on-the-job training**

Item	Number	Per cent
<b>Recruiting</b>		
Recruit qualified staff	5	29.4
Recruit unqualified staff	12	70.6
<b>On-the-job training</b>		
Provided	15	88.2
Not provided	2	11.8

#### 4.4.3 Accommodation of respondents

Table 4.9 displays the accommodation of respondents. The results indicate that about two thirds (60 per cent) of the employees rent flats, while one fifth (20 per cent) stay at their own homesteads. Most of those who rent flats pay less than E200 per month. This shows that the establishments employ both local residents and non-local residents because in most cases those who rent flats are non-locals, the remaining 15 per cent are provided accommodation by their respective companies as part of their benefits.

**Table 4.9: Accommodation of employee respondents**

Residents for employees	Number	Percentage
Home	20	25
Rent a flat	48	60

Offered by company	12	15
Total	80	100
<b>Payment for rent by employees (E)</b>		
100-199	27	33.8
200-299	9	11.3
300-399	7	8.8
400-499	4	5.0
500-599	1	1.3
500+	0	0
Total	48	60

#### 4.4.4 How employee respondents travel to work

Table 4.10 presents the means by which employee respondents get to their workplace and their working conditions. The results show that 46.3 per cent use public transport, while 33.8 per cent walk to work. Fourteen (17.5 per cent) are transported by their company and only 2.5 per cent use their own transport. Most respondents (32.5 per cent) who use public transport spend less than E5 per day on transport costs. The results further show that those who use their own transport to get to work spend not less than E20 per day on transport.

During a discussion with the respondents who use their own transport, they mentioned that they can afford to spend more on transport because they supplement their income through hawking.

**Table 4.10: Mode of travel to work, shifts and provision of meals**

Means of getting to work	Number	Percentage
Walk	27	33.8
Use public transport	37	46.2
Transported by company	14	17.5
Other	2	2.5
<b>Transport cost (E)</b>		
<5	26	32.5

6-10	8	10
11-15	2	2.5
16-20	1	1.3
21-25	2	2.5
<b>Working of shifts</b>		
Work shifts	49	61.3
No shifts	31	38.8
<b>Provision of meals</b>		
Provided with meals	76	95
No meals provided	4	5

Most (61.3 per cent) of the employee respondents work shifts. From discussions with the employee respondents, the researcher also gathered that those who are not provided with transport to work experience difficulties when they have to work late night shifts. This is because they have to organise private transport, which may be expensive compared to public transport.

On average, the employees of the hospitality industry work for 9.9 hours per day with a standard deviation of 2.3. This shows that there is a great variation in the number of hours worked by the hospitality sector employees. These hours are slightly above the normal eight working hours a day. As expected, almost all employee respondents (95 per cent) are provided with meals at work.

#### 4.5 Gender differences

Table 4.11 presents a comparison of employees' profiles by gender. As expected, the results for this study show that there are more young, single females employed in the hospitality industry of Swaziland than males.

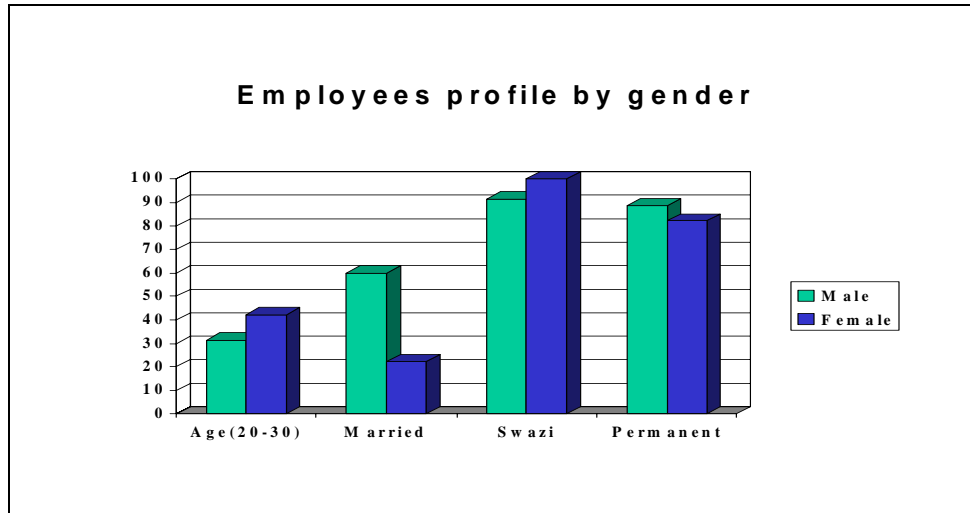
**Table 4.11: Comparison of employees' profile by gender (N=35M and 45F)**

<b>Gender</b>	<b>Male</b>		<b>Female</b>	
<b>Age</b>	<b>Number</b>	<b>Percentage</b>	<b>Number</b>	<b>Percentage</b>
20-30	11	31.4	29	42.2
31-40	10	28.6	20	44.4
41-50	14	40	5	11.1
50+	0	0	1	2.2
<b>Marital status</b>				
Married	21	60	10	22.2
Single	14	40	35	77.8
<b>Nationality</b>				
Swazi	32	91.4	45	100
Non-Swazi	3	8.6	0	0
<b>Employment status</b>				
Permanent	31	88.6	37	82.2
Temporary	4	11.4	8	17.8
<b>Level of education</b>				
Primary	4	11.4	7	15.6
Secondary	15	42.9	16	35.6
'O' level	11	31.4	11	24.4
College	5	14.3	11	24.4
<b>Income (E)</b>				
100-999	13	37.1	23	51.1
1,000-1,999	13	37.1	18	40
2,000-2,999	5	14.3	3	6.7
3,000-3,999	3	8.6	1	2.2
4,000 +	1	2.9	0	0

Figure 3 illustrates that most males (88.6 per cent) and females (82.2 per cent) are employed on a permanent basis. However, the results also indicate that all the female respondents are Swazis, and almost all (91.4 per cent) of

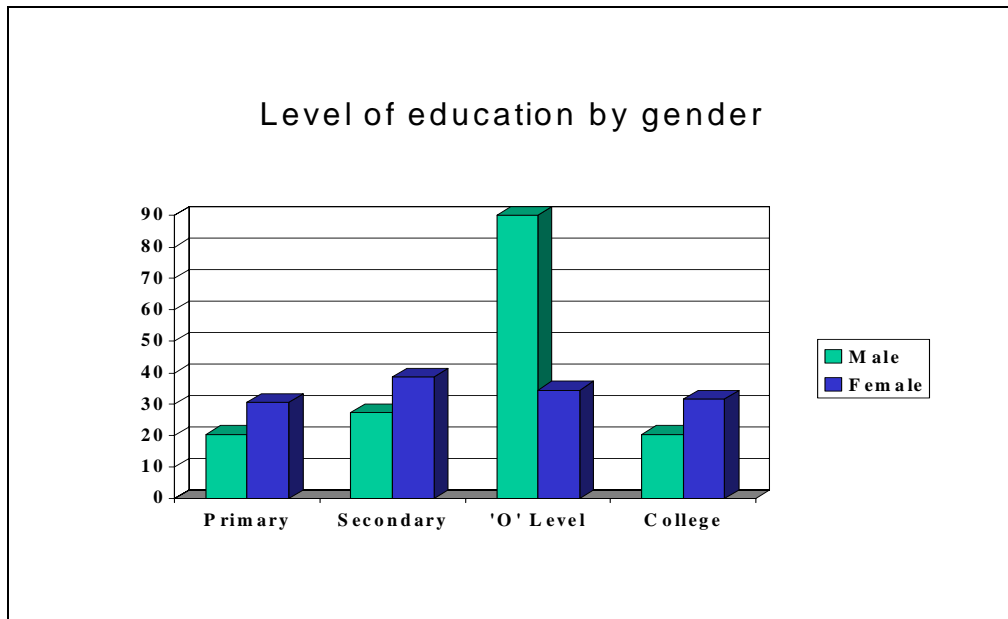
male respondents are Swazis, while the rest are non-Swazis. This structure of the male employment could be attributed to the fact that men can more easily migrate to other countries in search of jobs, compared to women who have to take care of their families as mentioned by Mayer (2001).

**Figure 3: Employees' profiles by gender**



Gender differences in access to education are observed in this study (Figure 4). The results show that there are more female respondents (15.6 per cent) with primary level of education than male respondents (11.4 per cent), but that more males go on to reach a tertiary level of education. This could be due to the fact that female students may drop out of school for several reasons, such as pregnancy, and the fact that, traditionally, Swazi families give educational preferences to boys over girls when they are faced with financial constraints.

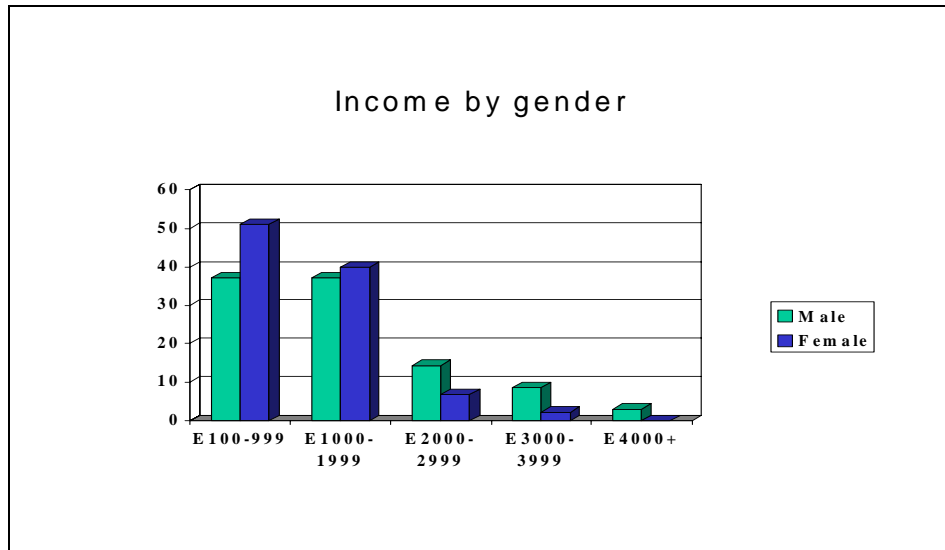
**Figure 4: Level of education by gender**



Most males were found to have secondary or 'O' level education. As expected, more female respondents (24.4 per cent) had a college degree than male respondents (14.3 per cent). 'Gender streaming' by field of study could have contributed in this issue since some courses are regarded as more suitable for females, such as home economics and catering. These fields of training are most required in the hospitality industry.

Lastly, Figure 5 illustrates that most female respondents earn in the lower brackets of income, while most male respondents earn in the higher brackets of income. This is in line with the theory that work done by women is seen as natural and in most cases not remunerated or given status, thus wages paid to women are typically about 60 to 70 per cent of those paid to men. Also observed in Figure 5 is that as the wages increase, the number of employees decreases.

**Figure 5: Income by gender**



## 4.6 Summary of findings

### 4.6.1 Employment opportunities

The results of this study revealed that there are many job opportunities in the hospitality industry of Swaziland, as shown by the ratio of employees to accommodation rooms, for every 100 rooms (49.6 jobs are created).

### 4.6.2 Employee respondents

Most people employed in the industry are Swazis and they are employed on a permanent basis. The study further revealed that more females are employed than males. Seventy five percent (75 per cent) of the respondents are younger than 40 years old and most of them are not married. The majority of these employee respondents have secondary level of education.

The results further showed that most of the employee respondents lacked qualifications and experience for the hospitality industry at the time of recruitment. Most employee respondents have been with the industry for fewer than five years.

The majority (91.3 per cent) has no other source of income, yet they earn not more than E900. Some of the respondents have to spend their money on rent and transport to work besides taking care of their dependents. More than

half of the employee respondents work shifts and, on average, they work for 9.9 hours per day.

#### 4.6.3 Manager respondents

The birth of the hospitality industry is dated back to the 1960s. Most of the manager respondents are employed, while less than half manage their own establishments.

The majority of the managers interviewed were not Swazis and most of them have a college or university education. The results also show that there are more male than female managers and most of these manager respondents are between the ages of 40 to 50 and are married.

Most of the manager respondents have no training in tourism education and have not worked in any other tourism sector before joining the present one. Most manager respondents earn more than E5, 000 per month.

Most establishments in the sample are affected by seasonality but fewer than half employ casual workers in order to cater for the increase in demand. The results show that the staff turnover rate is very low in the hospitality industry of Swaziland. Most establishments employ unqualified staff and provide them with on-the-job training.

On the gender aspect, the results of this study indicate that there are more younger, single females than males. Most of the female respondents have a primary level of education and college education. In addition, female respondents earn less than male respondents do.

## CHAPTER FIVE

### SUMMARY, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

#### 5.1 Summary of the study

Unemployment is a critical issue that needs to be addressed by many developing countries. This is because it leads to poverty, low quality of life, social, political and economic ills. The tourism industry contributes positively to the economies of many developing countries through foreign exchange earnings, gross domestic products (GDP) and employment opportunities. Swaziland is one of the countries that experiences a high unemployment rate, high poverty levels, a fast-growing population and the HIV/AIDS pandemic.

Tourism creates three types of employment, namely direct, indirect and induced employment. Tourism is well known for creating jobs for all (young or old, skilled or unskilled, poor or rich, females and males). Worldwide, employment within the tourism industry is estimated at 192.2 million (one in every 12.4 jobs in the formal sector) (ILO, 2001).

The hospitality sector within the tourism industry is said to be the biggest operational component. For example, the accommodations sector alone provided 11.3 million jobs worldwide in 1995. On average, up to three people are employed for each hotel bed in developing countries (ILO, 2001). The hospitality sector consists of more female and young employees, although women are under-represented in the management jobs. Also, workers in this industry earn on average at least 20 per cent less than workers in other economic sectors (ILO, 2001). This suggests that low pay affects the industry.

The nature of skills in tourism is such that they can be easily learnt 'on the job'. For this reason, employers often take unskilled labourers and rely on on-the-job training'. On the other hand, skilled labour is needed in order to cope with the changing technology and be able to meet the tourist's demands.

The empirical study was undertaken by means of interviews and the administration of questionnaires. A stratified random sample was conducted by taking 30 per cent of each of the establishment type, which resulted in a total of seventeen accommodation establishments being selected (seven hotels, seven guesthouses and three lodges). Managers and employees of the seventeen selected accommodation establishments were sources of data collection. Data collection took four weeks.

The questionnaire for managers and employees consisted of 24 and 22 items respectively. Both close and sifting questions were used and a categorical scale was applied. The researcher used these types of questions because of their efficiency and specificity. A pilot study was conducted and the necessary adjustments and changes were made. Telephone calls were made to the selected accommodation establishments for appointments.

Questionnaires were coded numerically, for example, 1 for male and 2 for female. Descriptive statistics such as the mean, percentages, standard deviation and cross-tabulation were used to describe the data while frequency tables, pie charts and bar charts were used to display the results.

The results of the study revealed that there is clear evidence of many job opportunities within the hospitality sector of Swaziland. This is shown by the staff to room ratio, that is, 2:1, which means that for every one room, two people are employed.

The results show that the hospitality sector employs more locals (96.3 per cent) than foreigners (3.7 per cent) and the majority are female employees. But at the managerial level, the opposite is true because there are many foreigners (58.6 per cent) and more males (58.8 per cent).

Most of the employees have a low level of education and they are inexperienced upon joining the industry. The majority of the managers (88.2 per cent) rely on on-the-job training. Also, the results showed that young and unmarried employees make up a higher percentage. This proves that the majority of the tourism industry consists of young and mobile people.

From the financial point of view, the majority of the employees earn not more than E1,000, which is less than the average earning (E1,200) according to the Swaziland Statistics Report of the year 2000. The study showed that male employees earn more than female employees.

The results also reveal that there is a low rate of staff turnover among the employees, yet one would expect it to be high since there are more young mobile people. The results further showed that most (70.6 per cent) accommodation establishments are affected by seasonality, but very few managers employ casuals during the peak season months in order to cater for the increase in tourist demands.

## **5.2 Conclusion**

The society as a whole loses as a result of unemployment because total output is below its potential level. The unemployed suffer as individuals, both from their income loss while unemployed and from the low level of self-esteem that long periods of unemployment cause.

Based on the results, the hospitality industry of Swaziland makes an important contribution to the economy of Swaziland by providing a large number of employment opportunities for all kinds of people of different genders, ages, backgrounds and levels of education.

Young people and women dominate the hospitality sector of Swaziland and the majority of them are Swazis. However, non-Swazi males hold the most senior positions. Last but not least, the hospitality sector does suffer from seasonality, low pay and low levels of skills, but the rate of staff turnover is very low.

In order to fight the high rate of unemployment faced by the country, the Swaziland government is faced with the challenge of supporting and developing tourism-related products. The availability of a strong skills base is an essential element of any strategy to relieve unemployment and low pays.

Tourism education and training should be provided to the population and at lower costs. Also, the people should be taught how to set up tourism-oriented businesses that do no environmental harm. This will ensure sustainable tourism development in the country.

### **5.3 Recommendations**

- a) The Swaziland government should promote tourism, as the industry makes a major contribution to the economy of the country by providing job opportunities to the growing population. A Swaziland tourism policy needs to be put in place in order to improve and facilitate decision-making and appropriate actions for the sustainable development of the industry. A number of key policies must be developed (and action taken accordingly), concerning education and training as well as financing of tourism and access to finance for tourism businesses.

A higher priority has to be given to maintaining historic buildings, improving infrastructure, expanding cultural activities and increasing the range of attractions and facilities available to local residents. This can greatly enhance the country's image, and its ability to attract investments and tourists.

Swaziland should be marketed as a tourist destination both locally and internationally. It should be marketed with accurate information about its resources, image and how well customers are satisfied.

- b) Learning institutions of Swaziland need to consider offering tourism-related courses, so that interested individuals can receive training within the country at less expense than training outside the country. There is an increased recognition of the need to plan for, and manage, tourism development, to ensure that the positive benefits are not outweighed by the negative impacts. Tourism education is one of the fundamental pillars of the development of a responsible tourism industry.

Courses such as rural development and tourism, cultural tourism, ecotourism, tourism planning and management, destination marketing, attractions, hospitality, etc. should be offered at the University of Swaziland.

Tourism education would also be introduced at the school level so that everyone can come to know and understand the value of tourism at an early age.

- c) employees need to be trained on a continuous basis in order to prepare them for rapidly changing skills requirements in the hospitality industry.

In order to compete effectively in the increasingly global markets, tourism enterprises must be able to offer competitive, high quality products for carefully targeted clientele. Tourism is a skill-intensive service industry and training has a key role to play in ensuring that the requisite skills are continuously developed in a cost-effective manner.

The Internet is the one medium that can be used to reach every city and every country over the globe, so employees should be trained in the use of such improved technologies in order to compete and communicate effectively with the rest of the world.

- d) A study of this nature covering the whole hospitality industry of Swaziland needs to be done so that results can be compared with those of other countries such as South Africa, Botswana, Lesotho and the rest of the world for better improvement of the tourism sector of Swaziland. More information about tourism in Swaziland is needed in order to know where the country is and what it needs to do for sustainable development in tourism.
- e) Other recommended research topics for tourism in Swaziland are as follows:

- i) The socio-economic impact of unemployment
- ii) The perception of tourism-led development by communities
- iii) Policies to enhance economic benefits from tourism

#### **5.4 Problems encountered**

- a) The principal problem faced was the unwillingness of some respondents to cooperate with the researcher, especially when it came to financial issues i.e. wages.
- b) A lack of information about the hospitality sector of Swaziland was another problem that was encountered by the researcher during the course of this study.
- c) Cancellation of appointments by management without notifying the researcher was a problem because time and money would be wasted on repeated visits.
- d) Due to financial constraints, the researcher was restricted to the study of a small number of accommodation establishments.

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**ADDENDUM 1a**

**Hospitality industry survey  
Questionnaire (Regular employees)**

**Purpose of the survey**

The questionnaire is intended to seek employment patterns and opportunities in the hospitality industry of Swaziland. Information provided is purely for academic purpose and will be treated **confidentially**.

**Section A**

1. Name of establishment \_\_\_\_\_

2. Name (optional) \_\_\_\_\_

3. In which area do you work?

Reception	Laundry	Security	Bar	Kitchen
-----------	---------	----------	-----	---------

Other (specify) \_\_\_\_\_

4. Are you a Swazi?

Yes	No
-----	----

5. Employment status

Permanent	Temporary
-----------	-----------

6. Sex

Male	Female
------	--------

7. Age (in years)

20-30	31-40	41-50	50 & above
-------	-------	-------	------------

8. Marital status

Married	Single
---------	--------

9. Do you have children?

Yes	No
-----	----

If yes, how many do you have?

1-2	3-4	5 or more
-----	-----	-----------

10. What is your level of education?

None	Primary	Secondary
'O' level	College	University

For a college/university degree specify \_\_\_\_\_

11. Have you done or attended any tourism-related course or training?

Yes	No
-----	----

If yes, specify \_\_\_\_\_

12. For how long have you been working here?

Years:	Months:
--------	---------

13. Have you worked in any other tourism sector before joining this one?

Yes	No
-----	----

If yes, what position were you in?

Manager	Supervisor	Regular employee
---------	------------	------------------

What reason(s) made you change from the previous work?

Not happy about the working conditions
Seek for better paying jobs
Start your own business
Lack of advancement opportunities

Other (specify) \_\_\_\_\_

14. Income (gross per month) (Emalangen)

100-999	1,000- 1,999	2,000- 2,999	3,000- 3,999	4,000- 4,999	5,000 +
---------	-----------------	-----------------	-----------------	-----------------	---------

15. Do you have other source(s) of income?

Yes	No
-----	----

If yes, what type of activity do you do to earn/receive this extra income

\_\_\_\_\_

16. Where do you live? \_\_\_\_\_

17. Are you staying at home or you are renting a flat?

Home	Rent a Flat
------	-------------

If renting, how much do you pay? (Emalangen)

100-199	200-299	300-399	400-499	500-599	500+
---------	---------	---------	---------	---------	------

18. How do you get to work?

Walk to work
Use public transport
Transported by the company

If you use a public transport, how much do you spend per day on transport?  
(Emalangen)

0-5	5-10	11-15	16-20	21-25
-----	------	-------	-------	-------

19. Do you work shifts?

Yes	No
-----	----

20. When do you clock in? \_\_\_\_\_

21. When do you clock out? \_\_\_\_\_

22. Are you provided with meals?

Yes	No
-----	----

**ADDENDUM 1b**

**Hospitality industry survey  
Questionnaire (Managers)**

**Purpose of the survey**

The questionnaire is intended to seek employment patterns and opportunities in the hospitality industry of Swaziland. Information provided is purely for academic purpose and will be treated **confidentially**.

**Section A**

1. Name of establishment \_\_\_\_\_

2. When was it established? \_\_\_\_\_

3. Your name (optional) \_\_\_\_\_

4. Do you own the company?

Yes	No
-----	----

5. Position held in the establishment

Manager	Supervisor
---------	------------

6. Are you a Swazi?

Yes	No
-----	----

7. Employment status

Permanent	Temporary
-----------	-----------

8. Sex

Male	Female
------	--------

9. Age (in years)

20-30	31-40	41-50	Above 50
-------	-------	-------	----------

10. Marital status

Married	Single
---------	--------

11. What is your level of Education?

None	Primary	Secondary
'O' level	College	University

For a college/university degree, specify \_\_\_\_\_

12. Have you done or attended any tourism-related course or training?

Yes	No
-----	----

If yes, specify \_\_\_\_\_

13. For how long have you been working here? (Years).

0-5	6-10	11-15	16-20	21+
-----	------	-------	-------	-----

14. Have you worked in any other tourism sector before joining this one?

Yes	No
-----	----

If yes, what position did you hold?

Manager	Supervisor	Regular employee
---------	------------	------------------

What reason(s) made you change from the previous work?

Not happy about the working conditions
Seek for better paying jobs
Start your own business
Lack of advancement opportunities

Other (specify) \_\_\_\_\_

15. Income per month (Emalangen)

1000-1999	2000-2999	3000-3999	4000-4999	5000-5999	6000+
-----------	-----------	-----------	-----------	-----------	-------

**Section B**

16. Type of establishment

Hotel	Lodge	Guesthouse
-------	-------	------------

17. Number of rooms \_\_\_\_\_

18. Number of beds \_\_\_\_\_

19. Number of employees

Males \_\_\_\_\_

Females \_\_\_\_\_

20. Does your business experience seasonal change?

Yes	No
-----	----

If yes, which month(s) do you have more tourist (high season month(s))?

\_\_\_\_\_

Do you employ part-time employees during the high season month(s)?

Yes	No
-----	----

21. Do you experience high rate of staff turnover?

Yes	No
-----	----

If yes, what percentage did it represent in?

(2001)

0-20	21-40	41-60	61-80	81-100
------	-------	-------	-------	--------

(2002)

0-20	21-40	41-60	61-80	81-100
------	-------	-------	-------	--------

22. What are their reason(s) for leaving the company?

Not happy about the working conditions
Seek for better paying jobs
Start your own business
Lack of advancement opportunities

Other (specify) \_\_\_\_\_

23. Do you recruit qualified or trained staff?

Yes	No
-----	----

If not, do you provide on the job training?

Yes	No
-----	----