THE INFLUENCE OF WORK-INTEGRATED LEARNING ON JOB SATISFACTION AND MOTIVATION: PROFILING THE HOSPITALITY MANAGEMENT ALUMNI OF CENTRAL UNIVERSITY OF TECHNOLOGY, FREE STATE (CUT)

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at the

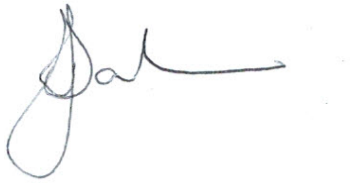Central University of Technology, Free State

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Bloemfontein
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Declaration of Independent Work

I, Janice Erin Solomons, identity number   and student number
          , hereby declare that this research project submitted to the Central University
of Technology, Free State, for the degree *Master of Management Sciences in Tourism
and Hospitality Management*, is my own independent work and complies with the Code
of Academic Integrity, as well as with other relevant policies, procedures, rules and
regulations of the Central University of Technology, Free State; and has not been
submitted before to any institution by myself or any other person in fulfilment (or partial
fulfilment) of the requirements for the attainment of any qualification.

_____   13 July 2020
Signature of student   **Date**

Summary

A large and growing body of literature has investigated work-integrated learning, job satisfaction and motivation among hotel employees. However, far too little attention has been paid to the link between university alumni, work-integrated learning, current job satisfaction and motivation.

Work-integrated learning provide students with the opportunity to learn generic employability skills, which are also highly valued by the industry and employers. To be relevant, the generic employability skills should be contextualised and situated in the appropriate industry and professional workplace setting. Work-integrated learning directs students to be intentionally exposed to real work situations that translates into social and economic value. Job satisfaction and motivation is of extreme importance in the hospitality industry that is a very demanding and labour-intensive industry.

The study applied a quantitative research approach and a structured questionnaire was administered to the hospitality alumni of CUT. Ninety-four respondents completed the questionnaire and the partial least squares structural equation modelling (PLS-SEM) was used to investigate the relationships between the variables.

The main objective of the study was to report on the effect of WIL on the job satisfaction and motivation of hospitality alumni. The findings confirm that WIL is an effective strategy for graduates to cultivate the soft skills they need to work in industry as well as to prepare them for the world of work. The study also confirms that WIL had a positive effect on both the job satisfaction and motivation of alumni that studied hospitality management.

Keywords: work-integrated learning, job satisfaction, motivation, hospitality management programmes, hospitality management alumni, retention, partial least squares structural equation modelling (PLS-SEM)

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"And I came to pour my praise on Him like oil from Mary's Alabaster box."

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Acronyms and Abbreviations

AVE	Average variance extracted
CUT	Central University of Technology, Free State
HTMT	Heterotrait–monotrait
JSS	Job Satisfaction Survey
PLS-SEM	Partial least squares structured equation modelling
STEPS	Strategic transformation of educational programmes and structures
UK	United Kingdom
UNICEF	United Nations Children's Fund
USA	United States of America
WIL	Work-integrated learning

Chapter 1

Introduction

1.1   Background to the study

As one of the largest global industries, the tourism industry is vital in creating employment and growth in any country, specifically a developing country like South Africa. According to the South African Tourism Annual Report 2018/2019, the tourism industry contributed R425 billion to the South African economy in 2019. This figure is likely to wane in the wake of the devastating economic impact of the Coronavirus in 2020, that have led to a world-wide shutdown of all forms of travel and tourism. It was estimated that 73 million jobs will be lost globally due to the Coronavirus pandemic and its full impact is yet to emerge (South Africa's Travel News, 2020). Despite this, the tourism industry is likely to gain traction again as countries open their borders and people start travelling again.

The hospitality industry is the leading sector within the tourism industry and the terms 'tourism' and 'hospitality industry' are applied widely. According to the World Travel and Tourism Council (2017), the tourism and hospitality industry are responsible for the generation of around 716 500 jobs (4.6% of total employment). According to Parsons, Skripak, Cortes, Walz and Walton (2018), the tourism and hospitality industry is made up of accommodation and lodging, for example guest houses and lodges; food and beverage, for example restaurants and catering; recreation, for example golfing, sport fishing, and rock climbing; entertainment, for example casinos, theme parks, adventure and outdoor recreation; events and travel; and tourism, for example visiting attractions, transportation and tour guiding.

The focus of this investigation was on the hospitality industry and included accommodation and lodging and the food and beverage sectors. As there is worldwide a lack of skilled workers, there is notable competition among businesses to attract and retain the best employees. The demand for skills and talent is likely to be a continued challenge for organisations (Kelly, 2016). Due to the demands of the hospitality industry, it is imperative that universities are attuned to the challenges students are likely to face once they start working in industry. It is for this reason that the

implementation of work-integrated learning (WIL), where students work in the industry for a period, have become a popular strategy.

Job satisfaction is essential as it has the potential to motivate and retain employees (Locke, 1976). The theories pertaining to job satisfaction have a strong overlap with the theories relating to human motivation, as both terms involve the movement of workers to act in a desired manner (Tietjen & Myers, 1998). Variables influencing motivation and job satisfaction are strongly dependent on each other (Singh & Tiwari, 2011).

Therefore job satisfaction is described as a progressive feeling towards a career, resulting from an evaluation of its characteristics (Robbins, Odendaal & Roodt, 2016). Motivation is defined by Saraswathi (2011) as the willingness to exert high levels of effort toward organisational goals, conditioned by the effort's ability to satisfy some individual need.

Working in the hospitality industry poses many challenges for employees (Deery & Shaw, 1997; Kusluvan, Kusluvan, Ilhan & Buyruk, 2010). This includes poor salaries in an industry that is extremely labour-intensive, with sometimes limited opportunities for personal development (Baum, 2007). Due to the labour-intensive nature of the industry, job stress and burnout are prominent challenges and employees often have to work long hours, weekends and on public holidays (Dawson, Abbott & Shoemaker, 2011; Gamor, Amissah, Amissah & Nartey, 2017; Hsieh & Yen, 2005; Karatepe, 2012). The hospitality industry is thus about meeting the needs of customers seven days a week, 24 hours of the day (Kokt & Ramarumo, 2015).

The main objective of the study was to ascertain the job satisfaction and motivation of alumni that participated in WIL in the hospitality management programme at the Central University of Technology, Free State (CUT).

1.2   Previous research

Rambe (2018) suggested that student participation in WIL would likely enhance their practical knowledge of space management. It further encourages swift learning of work-based skills and abilities, as well as facilitating the transfer of competencies across a wide range of contexts, activities and tasks. Ezeuduji, Chibe and Nyathela

(2017) suggested that institutions of higher learning that admit students into hospitality management courses need to attract students with a desire to work in the industry.

According to Ferns, Campbell and Zegwaard (2014), WIL is recognised globally as the purposeful combination of theory and practice whereby students improve their employability capabilities through simulated or work-based learning opportunities. WIL enables students to learn through experience in practical settings. WIL has also gained momentum to address accountability in higher education as well as the demands for an adequately trained global workplace. Furthermore, hospitality internship programmes are aimed at making students more employable (Chen, Shen & Gosling, 2018).

Jackson, Rowbottom, Ferns and McLaren (2017:1) examined employers' understanding of WIL, reasons for participation in WIL and the challenges and barriers posed during the WIL process. Their most important findings indicated that employers had little understanding of WIL offered at business schools in Australia. They therefore recommended several ways "to alleviate barriers and challenges to improve the WIL experience for all stakeholders and ensure the sustained growth of WIL in the higher education sector".

According to Rapp and Ogilvie (2019:1), "[l]ive case studies bring real companies with real business issues into the classroom. Not only can these experiences bring business frameworks to life for students, but they also surface unpredictable situations that further learning." Schonell and Macklin (2018) have confirmed that the live case studies of Rapp and Ogilvie's approach is an effective form of WIL, offering large numbers of students and authentic learning experience. Other research by Jacobs (2015) investigated the contribution of WIL towards the employability of students at CUT and formulated a strategy to optimise the contribution of WIL towards the employability of students.

A study conducted by Zwane, Du Plessis and Slabbert (2014) focused on analysing the skills and expectations of learners and employers. It showed clear gaps in skills between what students knew and what was expected of them. This supports the important role WIL is likely to play in preparing students for the world of work.

1.3   Problem statement

The hospitality industry faces numerous challenges, ranging from inadequately trained and underqualified staff that work long hours in an often hectic environment to ineffective human resource strategies with little focus on talent and reward management (Winberg, Engel-Hills, Garraway & Jacobs, 2011). Given these challenges, acquiring, and retaining suitably qualified human capital can be daunting. This also applies to students that contemplate entering the hospitality industry. To better prepare students for the world of work, WIL has become a popular strategy to prepare students for the world of work. The question can thus be posed whether participation in WIL impacts on the job satisfaction and motivation of hospitality management alumni. All CUT alumni that completed the WIL component of the course were included in the study.

1.4   Research questions

1.4.1 Main research question

To what extent does WIL participation influence the job satisfaction and motivation of CUT's hospitality management alumni?

1.4.2 Secondary research questions

1. Which competencies were developed during WIL participation according to CUT's hospitality management alumni?

2. To what extent did WIL participation influence the job satisfaction of CUT's hospitality management alumni?

3. To what extent did WIL participation influence the motivation of CUT's hospitality management alumni?

4. What recommendations could be made to enhance job satisfaction and motivation through WIL participation?

1.5   Research objectives

To answer these questions, the following objectives were set:

1.5.1 Main objective

To assess the influence of WIL participation on the job satisfaction and motivation of CUT's hospitality management alumni.

1.5.2 Secondary objectives

1. To determine what competencies were developed during WIL participation according to CUT's hospitality management alumni.

2. To determine to what extent did WIL participation influence the job satisfaction of CUT's hospitality management alumni.

3. To determine to what extent WIL participation influenced the motivation of CUT's hospitality management alumni.

4. To determine what recommendations could be made to enhance job satisfaction and motivation through WIL participation.

1.6 Methodology

1.6.1 Research approach and design

Research methodology is a method to systematically solve the research problem (Bodla, 2009). Three types of research approaches can be distinguished, namely qualitative, quantitative, and mixed methods. Qualitative research is non-numerical, descriptive, and applies reasoning and using words to explain experiences (Rajasekar, Philominathan & Chinnathambi, 2006). Quantitative research is a formal, objective, systematic process in which numerical data is used to obtain statistics about a phenomenon. This implies defining variables, examining relations among variables and determining cause and effect interactions between variables. Polit and Hungler (1999) stated that descriptive research delivers an accurate explanation of features of an individual, event, or group in real-life situations. Mixed method approaches use a combination of both qualitative and quantitative research to address the research problem (Zohrabi, 2013). Due to the nature of the study, the researcher used a quantitative research method.

Polit and Hungler (1999) defined the research design as a blueprint, or outline, for conducting the study in such a way that maximum control will be exercised over factors

that could interfere with the validity of the research results. Research is a logical and systematic examination for new and valuable information on a particular subject matter (Rajasekar *et al.*, 2006). This implies defining variables, examining relations among variables, and determining cause-and-effect interactions between variables.

Survey research were used to gather data from the respondents. According to Leedy and Ormrod (2015), survey research aims to determine the incidence, frequency, and distribution of certain characteristics in a population.

1.7   Ethical considerations

Ethics are at the heart of research right from the proposal stages through to the reporting stages (Webster, Lewis & Brown, 2014). The Center for Bioethics (2003:5-6) at the Univesity of Minnesota formulated ethical research as follows :

> *Research is a public trust that must be ethically conducted, trustworthy, and socially responsible if the results are to be valuable. All parts of a research project – from the project design to submission of the results for peer review – must be upstanding to be considered ethical. When even one part of a research project is questionable or conducted unethically, the integrity of the entire project is called into question.*

The following main ethical issues were addressed in this study:

- *Voluntary and informed participation:* Informed consent to participate in the study were required from the CUT Hotel School alumni students (see Appendix A). Participation was strictly voluntary, and respondents had the right to withdraw from the study at any given time (Leedy & Ormrod, 2015).

- *Confidentiality and anonymity:* For ethical reasons, the respondents and the data they provide should not be identified (Kumar, 2011). The respondents were thus informed in writing about the aim of the research and assured of anonymity and confidentiality.

- *Avoid harm to respondents:* Research respondents should not be exposed to physical and psychological harm or be subjected to unnecessary embarrassment, loss of self-esteem, anxiety or harassment during participation, as indicated by Leedy and Ormrod (2015) as an ethical consideration to be adhered to.

1.8   Significance of the study

The study may indicate whether WIL contributes towards job satisfaction and motivation of the Central University of Technology hospitality management alumni.

1.9   Layout of the study

The study is set out in the following chapters:

Chapter 1: Introduction
Chapter 1 provides the background to the study and details the research questions, aim and objectives. It also outlines the research methodology that was adopted in the study, the limitations of the study, as well as the significance of the study.

Chapter 2: Contextualising the role of Work-integrated learning in the South African university context
Chapter 2 starts with an explanation of WIL, followed by a literature discussion on WIL as a form of experiential learning, the curricular modalities of WIL, the WIL quality cycle, student development and learning and benefits of WIL, and lastly, the link between WIL and employability.

Chapter 3: Job satisfaction and motivation
Chapter 3 highlights the terms 'job satisfaction' and 'motivation', where after the theoretical approaches to employee motivation and the demographics in job satisfaction and motivation is clarified.

Chapter 4: Profiling work in the context of the hospitality industry
Chapter 4 highlights the challenges of working in the hospitality industry, the link between higher education and employability, and the emphasis on WIL in South African universities and the CUT.

Chapter 5: Methodology
Chapter 5 discusses the research methodology which includes the research approach and design. The reasons for selecting the target population and the data-gathering instruments are elaborated on. Chapter 5 also deals with the data collection methods and data analysis.

Chapter 6: Analysis and presentation of results

Chapter 6 presents the analysis of the data collected in the study area. The data collected through questionnaires from the CUT's hospitality management alumni were processed and the outcomes analysed and discussed to answer the research questions and achieve the objectives of the study and the problem statement.

Chapter 7: Conclusions and recommendations

Chapter 7 presents the conclusion of the study based on the analysis of the main findings.

1.10 Summary

This chapter focused on motivating the need for the study. The chapter reviewed previous research on the impact of WIL on job satisfaction and motivation profiling the hospitality management alumni of CUT. It also delineated the main and subsidiary objectives and research questions for the study. The methodological considerations for the study were stated, including relevant ethical aspects. The chapter concluded with the results of the study and recommendations for future research.

Chapter 2

Contextualising the Role of Work-integrated Learning
in the South African University Context

2.1   Introduction

WIL describes an approach to career-focused education that includes theoretical forms of learning that are appropriate for technical or professional qualifications, problem-based learning, project-based learning, and workplace learning. What distinguishes WIL, is the emphasis on the integrative aspects between theoretical learning and learning in the workplace from experience. Numerous authors (see Engel-hills, Garraway, Jacobs, Volbrecht & Winberg, 2010; Moreland, 2005; Pegg, Waldock, Hendy-Isaac & Lawton, 2012; Yorke & Knight, 2006) agreed that WIL is an educational process, service, and experience that considers foundational teaching and theory.

This chapter defines WIL and describes it as a form of experiential learning together with the link thereof to student development and learning. It also delineates the curricular modalities of WIL. The WIL quality cycle is clarified, and additionally, the benefits to be obtained from offering a WIL programme are discussed.

2.2   Explaining work-integrated learning

In explaining WIL, it is necessary to start with an analysis of the term to establish a common understanding and definition for this study. This is particularly relevant given the attempt made by Coll and Eames (2007) to provide some clarity concerning the numerous terms in use in this domain – cooperative education, workplace learning, WIL, internships, and experiential learning – by indicating that some of these terms often mirror its location.

In the United Kingdom (UK), WIL is normally referred to as sandwich placements, while in the United States of America (USA) the terms 'cooperative education' or 'internship' is used more often. In addition, Jackson (2013) also mentioned sandwich degrees in the UK, cooperative education and internships in the USA, as well as WIL

as a form of experiential learning in Australia, which all include a structured programme linking formal classroom learning with practical work-based activities. In the South African context, Winberg *et al.* (2011) found that cooperative education, experiential learning, WIL and work-based learning seems to be the terms most used and have described WIL as an educational process that aligns academic and workplace practices.

It can therefore be concluded that, no matter the location, the link between academic and work-based activities is an important feature of WIL. To have a clearer understanding of WIL, the various terms mostly used need to be clarified as indicated below.

- *Work-based learning* is referred to as learning through work, the acquisition of work-related knowledge and skills either at the institution or in the workplace (Ferns *et al.*, 2014; Schwartz, 2012).

- *Experiential learning* has its roots in the philosophy of Dewey (1938) who argued for the worth of a well-structured experience as being a valuable and rich source of learning. This led Kolb (1984) to conclude that experiential learning is the process whereby knowledge is created through the transformation of experience. WIL is resultantly considered an important feature of universities of technology that directly connect these institutions with the world of work, thereby confirming the importance of students' exposure to the industry (Bohloko, 2012).

- *Cooperative education*, according to Drysdale and McBeath (2012), is a method of education which includes a partnership between the institution, the workplace, and the student for the purpose of gaining work experience.

- *Practicum:* A period of work that provides the student with the opportunity to gain practical experience in the real world as part of an academic programme (Coll *et al.*, 2009).

- *Internships:* An internship is a short-term work experience in which a student receives training and gain experience in a specific field or career area (University of Toronto Mississauga Career Centre, 2015).

The terminology described above not only reiterated the established link between academic and work-based activities, but also revealed the existence of a partnership that aligns and benefits the student, workplace, and institution. It can also be further deduced that the glue that holds the partnership together is the academic programme or curriculum; to be more specific, that makes provision for the inclusion and alignment of the different learning sites and activities.

From the above it can thus be concluded that the common denominators identified are the two distinct settings of learning at the university and in the workplace, a three-way partnership, and the curriculum as the basis for the link between the learning sites and partners. Thus, WIL is a term given to educational activities that link academic learning to a discipline and align it with its practical application. It can therefore be regarded as an umbrella term for a variety of approaches and strategies that integrate theory with the practice of work within a purposefully designed curriculum (Patrick, Peach, Pocknee, Webb, Fletcher & Pretto, 2008). WIL is therefore defined as a partnership between higher education institutions and the industry, essential for designing a curriculum which is responsive to the needs of both the community and industry (Smith, 2012). Having defined WIL, the next step is to look more closely at WIL as a form of experiential learning given the centrality of learning through experience identified above.

2.3   Work-integrated learning as a form of experiential learning

According to Kolb (1984:43,51):

> *To learn is not the special province of a single specialized realm of human functioning such as cognition or perception. It involves the integrated functioning of the total organism – thinking, feeling, perceiving, and behaving … Knowledge results from the combination of grasping and transforming experience.*

Kolb's experiential learning style theory is typically represented by a four-stage learning cycle in which the learner touches all the bases. This cycle includes concrete experience, reflective observation, abstract conceptualisation, and active experimentation:

- *Concrete experience* refers to a new experience or situation or a reinterpretation of existing experiences.

- *Reflective observation experience* is any inconsistencies between experience and understanding.

- *Abstract conceptualisation* reflects a new idea, or a modification of an existing abstract concept – the person has learned from their experience.

- *Active experimentation* implies the application of new ideas to the world around them to see what happens.

Figure 2.1 illustrates Kolb's four-stage experiential learning cycle.

Active experimentation
(planning/ trying out what you have learned)

Concrete experience
(doing/having an experience)

Abstract conceptualisation
(planning/trying out what you have learned)

Reflective observation
(reviewing/reflecting on the exprience)
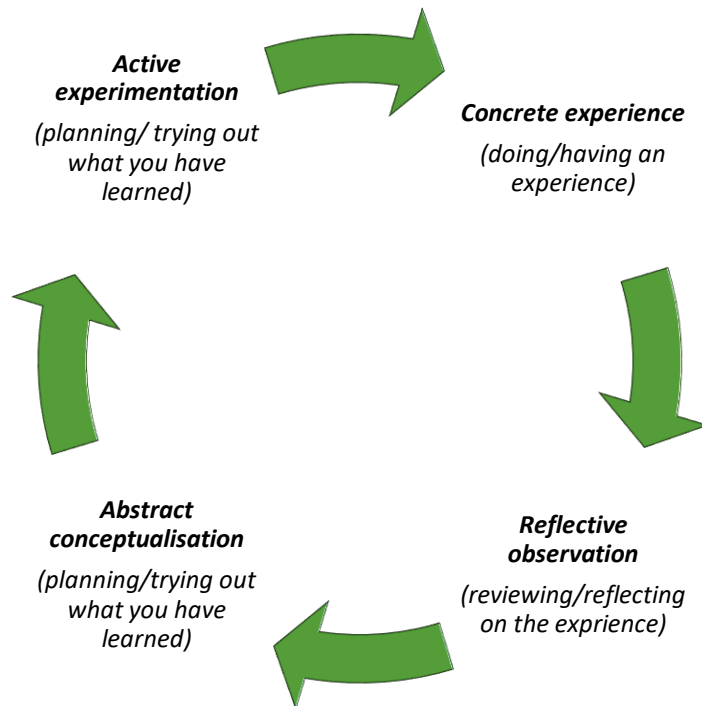
Source: Kolb (1984:51)

Figure 2.1: Kolb's experiential learning cycle

This process is depicted as a learning cycle where the learner touches all the bases, namely experiencing, reflecting, thinking, and acting in a recursive process that is sensitive to the learning situation and what is learned. Effective learning is seen when a person progresses through a cycle of four stages:

Having a concrete experience followed by observation of and reflection on that experience which leads to the formation of abstract concepts (analysis) and generalisations (conclusions) are then used to test a hypothesis in future situations, resulting in new experiences. The concrete experiences form the basis for

observations and reflections where the reflections are assimilated and transformed into abstract concepts from which new implications for action can be drawn. The experiential learning cycle seems to warrant the active engagement of students in the learning process. McLennan and Keating (2008) came to the same conclusion and found that the experiential learning cycle is a teaching and learning approach which has the potential to provide a rich, active, and contextualised learning experience for students which contributes to their engagement in learning.

The meaning of the term 'human experience' was a fundamental component of Dewey's (1983) ideas about learning, as he proposed that development, in educational terms, was in the growth of new attitudes to, new interests in, and a new understanding of experience. Dewey (1938) regarded education as a continuing reconstruction of experience and defined experience as physical action, the consequences thereof, and the individual's judgement (Passarelli & Kolb, 2012). The enhancement of experiential learning in higher education can therefore be achieved through the creation of learning spaces that promote growth-producing experiences for learners (Kolb & Kolb, 2005).

Dewey (1938) strongly believed that people learn by doing, and that all genuine education is achieved through experience. Dewey did not only trust in learning by doing; his notion of 'vocation' as a calling to a deeply felt and ethically grounded identity within a chosen career encompasses the importance of critical and scholarly engagement with the key issues of public life that link professional and vocational competence.

Lewis and Williams (1994) also explained the term 'experiential learning' as learning from experience or learning by doing. WIL is not simply a process of students engaging in work experience with the hope that it will result in employability (Yorke, 2005). Theorists, such as Kolb (1984), have similarly pointed out that while 'experience' is a part of learning, it is not, on its own, a sufficient condition for learning.

Biggs (1999), in the higher education context, claimed that effective learning requires a knowledge base, a motivational context, learning activities and interaction. For learning to occur, students need to observe and reflect on experience, develop concepts to make sense of the experience and then apply and test these concepts through new experiences. Integrating the work of these foundational scholars, Passarelli and Kolb (2012) recommended six characteristics of experiential learning:

- Learning is best considered as a procedure and does not end at an outcome but occurs through the course of linked experiences in which information is adapted and recreated. All learning is re-learning.

- Learning is best enabled by a procedure that attracts the learners' beliefs and ideas about a topic so that they can be examined, tested, and integrated with new, more refined ideas. This is also referred to as constructivism where individuals build their information of the world based on their knowledge.

- Learning requires the determination of conflicts between dialectically opposed modes of adaptation to the world. Conflict, differences, and disagreement are what drive the learning process. These tensions are determined in recurrences of driving back and forth between opposing modes of reflection and action and feeling and thinking.

- Learning is an all-inclusive process of adaptation. Learning is not just the result of cognition but includes the integrated functioning of the total person – thinking, feeling, observing, and behaving.

- Learning is the process of creating knowledge. Knowledge is viewed as the transaction between two forms of knowledge: social knowledge, which is built in a socio-historical context, and personal knowledge, the subjective experience of the learner. This conceptualisation of knowledge stands in difference to that of the transmission model of education in which pre-existing, fixed ideas are transmitted to the learner.

Additionally, according to Billett and Choy (2013), learners need to be aware of what is expected of them before they enter the workplace. A further challenge is designing and implementing assessment which, as with all aspects of a student's degree programme, is constructively aligned to the intended learning outcomes (Biggs & Tang, 2011). The need to ensure rigour and relevance in students' learning experiences and assessments is thus paramount as universities operate in a more competitive and transparent environment (Ferns & Moore, 2012).

Institutions have realised both the potential and need for cooperation, partnerships and joint ventures with industry and business, linked to an entrepreneurial approach

(Du Pre, 2009). The Academica Group (2016) suggested that in practice, all types of WIL have seven common attributes:

- Purpose.
- Context.
- Nature of the integration.
- Curriculum issues.
- Learning.
- Partnerships between the educational institution and the workplace or community.
- Support provided to the student and to the workplace or community.

Outcomes of a study done in South Africa by Nel and Neale-Shutte (2013) highlighted the importance of students' preparedness, by building students' self-confidence in their workplace abilities. Both Billett (2011) and Clinton and Thomas (2011) suggested and found that it provided students with better knowledge and skills that the hospitality industry requires (see also Gamble, Patrick & Peach, 2010). Hughes, Mylonas and Benckendorff (2013) concurred with this by stating that through university–workplace partnerships there are further opportunities to contextualise students' learning, linking the gap between theory and practice and the development of the required core graduate characteristics. This requires a closer look at the link between WIL and student development and learning.

2.3.1 Student development and learning

Within this context, it is important to take note of Blom's (2013) argument that WIL is about learning, and work is the vehicle towards learning. A review of the literature has revealed three basic types of learning theories, namely behaviourism, cognitivism, and constructivism:

- *Behaviourism* is a worldview that operates on a principle of 'stimulus–response'. All behaviour is caused by external stimuli (operant conditioning). All behaviour can be explained without the need to consider internal mental states or consciousness (Skinner, 2011). No effort is made to determine the structure of a student's knowledge nor to assess which mental processes is necessary for them to use (Winn, 1990).

- *Cognitivism* focuses on the inner mental activities that opens the 'blank box' of human knowledge and is built based on a person's experiences and theories of the environment. The cognitivism revolution replaced behaviourism in the 1960s as the dominant paradigm. Each person has a different interpretation and construction of knowledge procedures. The learner is not a blank slate but brings past understandings and cultural factors to a situation (Ertmer & Newby, 2013).

- *Constructivism* is a strategy for teaching in which students should learn what is proposed, and how they should express their learning is evidently stated before teaching takes place (Biggs & Tang, 2015). Constructivism is an outcomes-based approach to teaching in which the learning outcomes that students are intended to achieve are defined before teaching takes place.

It needs to be noted that discontent with the perceived inadequacies of Behaviourism led to the development of Constructivism as another school of thought since Behaviourism could not adequately explain why people attempt to organise and make sense of the information they learn. In this vein, Mahar and Hartford (2004) also state that

social and constructivist theories of learning do not generally investigate the nature of the experience of learning, but that it rather is experiential learning theories that build upon social and constructivist theories and place experience at the centre of the learning process. The conclusion thus is that WIL is, as a form of experiential learning, an educational process and experience with foundational pedagogy and theory that can be aligned with the processes and outcomes of experiential learning which intends to maximise learning through experience as stated by (Smith, Litchenberg, Brooks, McIlveen, Torjul & Tyler, 2009) This necessitates a closer inspection of how learning is maximised through WIL (Smith *et al.* 2009).

2.3.2 Surface and deep learning

Teaching and assessment methods are designed to best achieve the outcomes set and to assess the standard at which they have been achieved (Biggs, 1999). Teaching is therefore designed to engage students in learning activities that optimise their

chances of achieving those outcomes, and assessment tasks are designed to enable clear judgements as to how well those outcomes have been attained (Biggs, 1999).

Learning and cognition occur in physical and social contexts where knowledge is shaped and applied, as claimed by situated learning theories (Brown, Collins & Duguid, 1989, Zegwaard & Coll, 2011). Therefore, learning through problem-solving in real-world situations, especially with ill-structured problems (Jonassen, 1997), and factual whole tasks (Kirschner & Van Merriënboer, 2013), has become the central feature of educational practice. Knowledge is observed as decontextualised so that it can be learned, tested, and applied independently of specific settings (Brown *et al.*, 1989).

Surface level learning refers to recall and recognition of the factual information and concepts through repetition and memorisation (Hailikari, Katajavuori & Lindblom-Ylanne 2008; Kahneman, Treisman & Gibbs, 1992). The surface approach motive is basically instrumental or extrinsic. The student's main purpose is to meet requirements with the least effort; the resulting strategy is essentially reproductive in that surface motivated students focus on what appear to be the most important topics or elements and try to reproduce them accurately.

Badham, Hay, Foxon, Kaur and Maylor (2016) noted the relationship between prior knowledge and deeper learning reflects the ability that brings ideas together by understanding the underlying theories and concepts and makes meaning out of the learning material. It is believed that deeper learning can be improved through having appropriate prior knowledge and through a willingness and interest of the learner to engage with the task meaningfully and appropriately.

Biggs (1999) stated that teachers and learning materials can cause deeper processing of information using active questioning and prompting. Deep learning is characterised by a high level of meeting in learning, driven by intrinsic motivation and, more importantly, supported by relevant learning approaches or strategies that allow learners to achieve difficulty and key challenges, mostly on cognitive aspects, to sustain engagement and achieve a high level of understanding and performance. Trigwell, Prosser and Waterhouse (2007) thus contended that the major aim of higher education is to produce high quality learning outcomes.

Fry, Ketteridge and Marshall (2003:15) noted that an "appreciation of experiential learning is a necessary underpinning to many of the different types of teaching and learning", some of which have been discussed above. Research done by Trigwell and Prosser (1991) have indicated that deep learning leads to higher learning outcomes, and surface learning leads to lower learning outcomes.

Given what is presented above, it can be stated that WIL contributes towards deep learning since it enhances learning that is derived from active interaction between the person and the environment. Through university–workplace partnerships there are further opportunities to contextualise students' learning, bringing together the gap between theory and practice and promoting the development of desirable core graduate attributes (Venables & Tan, 2008). The importance attached to adequate preparation for WIL placement by Grace and O'Neil (2014) needs to be recognised, due to the key role thereof in contributing to positive and rewarding experiences, which in turn will assist students' progress towards the skills, knowledge and attitudes required for professional practice. In addition, WIL also consists of different curricular modalities that will be explored next.

2.4   Curricular modalities of work-integrated learning

Within the South African context, WIL involves more than traditionally placing students in the industry to link theory with practice. Winberg *et al.* (2011:10) stated that The Council on Higher Education as "an independent statutory body responsible for advising the Minister of Education on all matters related to higher education policy issues, and for quality assurance in higher education and training" makes provision for four main curricular modalities that align workplace experience (practical) and academic interests (theory), namely workplace-based learning, work-directed theoretical learning, problem-based learning, and project-based learning.

Workplace-based learning provides students with the opportunity to develop specific skills and knowledge in the workplace, the fundamental assumption being that not all skills can be learned in the classroom or workplaces, but through a mixture of both. It creates an opportunity for students to have an opportunity to learn generic employability skills, which are also highly valued by the industry and employers. To be relevant, the generic employability skills should be contextualised and situated in the

appropriate industry and professional workplace setting. Workplace-based learning, is regularly referred to as WIL in the South African context (South African Technology Network, 2008) that delivers measurable benefits to students, the employer, the community, and the educator (McLennan & Keating, 2008).

Barnett (1992) considered problem-based learning as a term used within higher education for a range of educational approaches that inspire students to learn through the organised examination of a researched or practice-based problem (see also Savin-Baden, 2014). The main objective of problem-based learning is the acquisition of an extensive, integrated knowledge base that is readily recalled and applied to the analysis and solution of problems (Engel, 1997).

Project-based learning combines project-based learning and workplace-based learning in that it brings together intellectual inquiry, real-world problems, and student engagement in relevant and meaningful workplace learning (Winberg *et al.*, 2011). Such projects generally involve elements of research and the supervision by both a university lecturer and workplace supervisor or mentor. Students are placed in work environments for the purpose of learning. Learning in the workplace therefore usually involves students in planning and implementing an activity, in reflection on and evaluating the activity, and adjusting for future action. In this way, problems or projects become both the vehicles and the context for learning and teaching.

Work-directed theoretical learning involves an effort to ensure that theoretical forms of knowledge are presented and sequenced in ways that meet both academic and work criteria and, according to Barnett (2006), are applicable and relevant to the career-specific components. An example cited by Winberg *et al.* (2011) would be a subject called 'Mathematical Foundations of Engineering' in contrast to the more traditional 'Mathematics.

The selected modality will therefore be dependent on the nature and level of the relevant outcomes to be achieved. To this study, the workplace-based modality was selected given that it was the modality that the alumni were exposed to.

WIL has been gaining momentum as it is perceived as a tool for addressing growing accountability measures facing the higher education sector and societal demands that the higher education experience prepares graduates for the dynamic global workplace

(Ferns *et al.*, 2014). Hospitality employers depend on the hospitality industry to produce graduates that not only have a theoretical understanding of their field, but also practical abilities and knowledge to adjust to challenging work conditions (Spowart, 2011).

WIL resultantly creates opportunities for students to learn and develop additional skills that should enhance their employability. To be relevant, these employability skills should be contextualised and situated in the appropriate industry and professional workplace setting. WIL guides students to intentionally do real work that translates into social and economic values. To gain an understanding of the application of WIL in practice and understand how quality learning through the WIL cycle is estimated, the WIL quality cycle is examined in the following section.

2.5   The work-integrated learning quality cycle

The WIL quality cycle as developed by Forbes (2006) and refined by Jacobs (2015), entails the following:

- Preparation of students and employers by the university.
- The placement processes.
- Visitation and monitoring by the university in the workplace.
- Mentoring, supervision, and assessment by employers.
- Assessment and debriefing by the university.

Jacobs (2015) determined that on an institutional level at the CUT, certain activities are recommended in respect of each component of the WIL quality cycle to optimally enhance the employability of students through WIL. Table 2.1 summarises the WIL quality cycle and explains each stage of the WIL quality cycle regarding the application of WIL in practice.

Table 2.1: Work-integrated learning quality cycle and recommendations

Preparation of students	**Topics to include**: • Work ethics • Professional behaviour • Attitude • Responsibility • Expectations from the workplace • Communication • Employability
Preparation of employers	**What to address**: • Clarification of the expectations of CUT, students, and employers (With training provided to employers where necessary) • Regular communication, which needs to start well in advance of the commencement of the placement period • The provision of clearly written outcomes to be achieved • Establish a relationship of trust through regular personal contact • Match students with the needs of employers • An on-site assessment of the capabilities and suitability of employers
Placement process	**Done by**: • One representative from CUT • Students approaching employers on their own for placement, should be avoided **How to introduce students**: • A curriculum vitae, cover letter and interview, together with a recommendation from CUT, are the preferred method to introduce students for placement to employers • In the absence of a curriculum vitae and interviews, students can also be allocated by CUT tot employers based on the CUT's knowledge of the students and the employer • Volunteer work or job shadowing at employers during holidays
Monitoring by CUT	**Preferred methods:** • A personal visit by a representative from CUT is confirmed to be the most important monitoring method **Frequency**: Employers and students need to be visited on at least a quarterly or semester basis
Mentorship and supervision	**How**: • Combining mentorship and supervision is the preferred method. **Enhanced by:** • Providing employers with guidelines and templates to complete to ensure objectivity and consistency
Assessment	**Preferred methods**: • Practical demonstration • Assessment in workplace by a CUT representative • Written assessment

	• Reflection journal/reports by students
	Frequency: • Practical demonstration – Weekly/monthly • Assessment in workplace by CUT representative – Monthly/ quarterly • Written assessment – Monthly/quarterly • Reflection journal/reports by students – Monthly/quarterly
Debriefing	**Preferred methods**: • Student debriefing with CUT • Students debriefing with employer • CUT debriefing with employer • Written report
	Frequency: • Student debriefing with CUT – Monthly/quarterly • Student debriefing with employer – Monthly • CUT debriefing with employer – Quarterly • Written report – Quarterly

Source: Jacobs (2015)

Due to the centrality of the student in WIL and in the application thereof as illustrated in the quality cycle, it can be argued that WIL experiences provide a link for the student between the academic present and their professional future. It provides an opportunity to apply and merge theoretical knowledge gained in academic studies to 'real world' workplace practical experiences, and to prepare the student for a career by providing an opportunity to develop applicable professional skills (Martin & Hughes, 2009a). The WIL participation and hospitality career progression therefore seems to be associated. The benefits for academics, employees and students are discussed in the next section.

2.6   Benefits when offering a work-integrated learning programme

According to Coll and Eames (2000), numerous benefits are recognised for students, the establishment, and the academic institution where the student is from when it comes to WIL. The benefits for students are broadly indicated as career enhancement, financial rewards, cost savings, and interaction between the employers and the academic institution.

The benefits for students undertaking WIL have been canvassed by many authors in the literature. Ricks and Williams (2005) proposed that students involved in WIL benefit from increased employability and a more perceptive educational experience,

thus attaining generic and specific attributes vital to begin employment. WIL engagement enables students to gain understanding of the realities of their chosen career and to connect theory with practice, while applying the acquired knowledge in the workplace (Atkinson, 2016).

According to Harvey (2003), employers tend to favour work experience as something that helps students prepare for competence and employability. Work experience provides a foretaste of workplace culture, as well as contributing to learning, and noticed a growing trend to recruit students who have undertaken work placement with companies. Sattler and Peters (2013) suggested that employers who provide WIL opportunities are favoured to hire graduates who had gained WIL experience at their own workplace. WIL is thus used by employers to assimilate students into the work environment (Bates & Bates, 2013).

When student learning from real-life situations is efficiently assessed by educators, the benefits escalate to the creation of value-adding and character-building of future-fit graduates who are ready for the workplace. WIL benefits assist students with the following skills: communication, interpersonal relations, technology, writing, punctuality, attendance, teamwork, leadership, career development, observing theory in practice, putting theory into practice, awareness of workplace culture, meeting workplace expectations; opportunity to develop a range of personal attributes, coping in a rapidly changing world of work, enhanced employment prospects, developing career strategies, developing interactive attributes, and building a network of contacts (McLennan & Keating, 2008; Orrell, 2004).

Academic institutions profit through their students and academic staff gain network opportunities with businesses, providing institutions access to resources, current technology and knowledge (Bates, 2005). Benefits for the academic institution offering the WIL programme include increased networking and close links with professional practitioners and the industry (Martin & Hughes, 2009; Walo, 2001). Weisz and Chapman (2004) concurred with this statement and suggested that staff involved in these programmes develop and maintain contact with the 'real' world, forge and sustain collaborative research with the industry, develop scholarships and consultancies, spend time in the industry researching work-oriented projects, focus on the relevance and design of curricula, and ensure that it meets the needs of both the

student and employer. WIL programmes are frequently advertised as a reason for potential students to select one institution over another.

WIL placements used by employers as a way of embracing students into the work environment, which, according to Bates and Bates (2013), offers the ideal platform to recruit graduates. Employers benefit from their participation in WIL by "being able to identify the best new potential entrants to their workplace" (Blom, 2013:viii).

Dwesini (2015) suggested that WIL benefits for the employer is information transfer. It is believed that WIL students bring new concepts from the university to the workplace. Employers also benefit through WIL programmes in the following ways:

- Provision of low-cost temporary employees and building a pipeline of skilled employees.

- The WIL students provide backup for current staff.

- During WIL placements, both employers and students are provided with an opportunity to determine whether there is a suitable 'match' for permanent employment.

- The WIL partnership is a chance for employers to establish close links with higher education intuitions and therefore influences the university's curriculum to suit the employer's special needs.

- WIL impacts entrance and progression of WIL graduates within the hospitality industry.

2.7   Summary

This chapter provided an overview of WIL from which a definition for WIL was adopted for the study. WIL was explained as a form of experiential learning that enhances student development and learning through its positive impact on deep learning rather than surface learning. The various curricular modalities of WIL were analysed together with the application of WIL in practice by means of the WIL quality cycle that culminated in the benefits of including WIL in programmes.

Chapter 3
Job Satisfaction and Motivation

3.1   Introduction

Job satisfaction and motivation are two important concepts to consider, especially if organisations are concerned about retaining and developing a productive workforce. Locke (1976:316) described job satisfaction as "the pleasurable emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one's job as achieving or facilitating the achievement of one's job values". According to Josh (2014), motivation starts with a motive, which are persisting and stable evaluative dispositions in specific circumstances which stimulates behaviours from people. The aim of this chapter is to explain job satisfaction and motivation. The chapter will also detail the theoretical basis for measuring these two concepts, then subsequently explain the demographics in job satisfaction and motivation.

3.2   Explaining job satisfaction

Job satisfaction is a result of individuals' observation and evaluation of their job, influenced by their own unique needs, values and expectations which they regard as being important (Sempane, Rieger & Roodt, 2002). Research has indicated that job satisfaction does not occur in isolation; it is dependent on organisational variables such as structure, size, pay, working conditions and leadership, which represent the organisational climate (Sempane *et al.*, 2002). Job satisfaction refers to the employees' subjective attitudes towards their jobs (Gazioglu & Tansel, 2006).

Saiyadain (2003) stated that satisfied employees are likely more motivated and productive than dissatisfied employees. Workers who are dissatisfied appear to be absent from work, but workers who are content with their work and think their work is important, tend to be less absent. Job content includes factors such as achievement, recognition, responsibility, advancement, and the work itself. Satisfaction will prevail only where motivation exists.

Lawler (1973) suggested that overall job satisfaction is determined by the difference between all those things a person feels he should receive from his job and all those things he does receive. Job satisfaction is equally important for organisations and the individual (Moynihan & Pandey, 2007).

Job satisfaction is one of the most researched variables in the area of workplace psychology (Lu, Barriball, Zhang & While, 2012). Employees' satisfaction with their jobs is vital to the success of any business (Karatepe, 2012). Regts and Molleman (2013) affirmed that job satisfaction is predictive of an employee's turnover intention. Job satisfaction is equally important for organisations and the employee (Moynihan & Pandey, 2007).

Brown and Lam (2008) described two methods of job satisfaction: a global method and a faceted method. From the global perspective, job satisfaction includes employee's feelings concerning a job, while the faceted approach recognises job satisfaction to include growth pay, benefits, supervision, co-workers the work itself, organisational environment, and work environment. When employees perceive that management is concerned about their welfare, they experience higher levels of job satisfaction and reduced turnover intent (Babakus, Yavas, Karatepe & Avci, 2003).

Spector (1997) highlighted two categories that affect job satisfaction:

- The work environment and the factors related to job. This includes the nature of the job, relationships among people in the workplace, how people are treated by their supervisors and rewards systems.

- The individual factors that a person brings to the job, including the individual's personality and experiences.

Job satisfaction influences turnover intention which represents a reliable indicator of actual voluntary turnover (Allen, Shore & Griffeth, 2003). Therefore, measuring employees' job satisfaction and identifying their engagement is very important, as customer dissatisfaction or satisfaction with the services provided, may be influenced by employees' dissatisfaction or satisfaction (DeFranco & Schmidgall, 2001).

An employee's mental representation of the meaning of values may vary about satisfaction or dissatisfaction (Hackman & Oldham 1976). Previous studies from

Franěk and Večeřa (2010), as well as Hickson and Oshagbemi (1999), confirmed that personal characteristics such as age, gender, educational level, job tenure, and strong work ethics of an individual, affect individual preciseness related to job satisfaction.

Turnover intent includes culture, the working environment, promotion systems in place, salary, job satisfaction and employee commitment (Siu, Cheung & Lui, 2015). Employees would be more likely to tolerate poor pay satisfaction if their job satisfaction were still intact. In this regard, Lam, Zhang and Baum (2001) found that compensation is an important determinant contributing to overall job satisfaction. Even though it may result from physical effort, workload has a mental construct that reflects the interaction of mental demands that arise while performing tasks (Cain, 2007).

Mental workload can be defined as the overall cognitive effort an individual puts forth while fulfilling a task (Baldauf, Burgard & Wittmann, 2009). There are certain factors that can influence individuals' behaviours and attitudes towards their job, which can subsequently result in either job satisfaction or job dissatisfaction (Malik, Samina, Naeem & Danish, 2014). These factors include salary, promotion, workload, working conditions, the nature of the work and motivation (Lumley, Coetzee, Tladinyane & Ferreira, 2011).

There is evidence of a negative relationship between a prolonged high workload and work motivation (Bos, Donders, Van der Velden & Van der Gulden, 2013). Bakotić and Babić (2013) debated that job satisfaction is an important factor for the workers that work under difficult work conditions, and that in order to improve satisfaction of employees working under difficult working conditions, it is necessary for management to improve the work conditions. Following the explanation of job satisfaction, the measuring of job satisfaction follow in the next section.

3.2.1 Measuring job satisfaction

Prominent job satisfaction models include the Job Description Index, Global Job Satisfaction, Minnesota Satisfaction Questioniarre, Job Satisfaction Index, Job Diagnostic Survey, Job General Scale and the Job Satisfaction Model (JSS). These models are briefly explained below.

- The *Job Descriptive Index* was originally developed by Smith, Kendall and Hulin (1969). The index assesses five facets of job satisfaction which include work pay promotion, supervision, and co-workers. Through the combination of ratings of satisfaction with the faces, a composite measure of job satisfaction is determined.

- *Global Job Satisfaction*: Warr, Cook and Wall (1979) developed this measure which include 15 items to determine overall job satisfaction. Two subscales are used for extrinsic and intrinsic aspects of the job. The extrinsic section has eight items and the intrinsic aspect has seven items.

- The *Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire* was designed to measure an employee's satisfaction with his or her job. Three forms are available: two long forms (the 1967 version and 1977 version) and a short form. The Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire provides more specific information on the aspects of a job that an individual find rewarding than do more general measures of job satisfaction. The Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire is useful in exploring client vocational needs, in counselling follow-up studies, and in generating information about the reinforces in jobs (Regents of The University of Minnesota, 1977).

- The *Job Diagnostic Survey*: The Job Diagnostic Survey is intended to diagnose existing jobs to determine if (and how) they might be redesigned to improve employee motivation and productivity, and to evaluate the effect of job changes on employees (Hackman & Oldham, 1975).

- The *Job General Scale*: Ironson, Smith, Brannick, Gibson and Paul (1989) suggested that the Job General Scale was developed to have the following characteristics:

(a) Multiple items to furnish an estimate of internal consistency. Although testing stability over time does not require multiple items, it is meaningful only when the situation remains constant.

(b) Ease of reading and response, for use in working populations.

(c) Minimal overlap of content with measures of supposedly different variables.

According to the JSS developed by Fredrick Hertzberg, there are factors within and outside an organisation that affect the extent to which employees of an organisation are satisfied. These include the structure of the organisation, the organisational culture and the internal politics that prevail in the organisation (Mullins, 2005).

When the JSS was initially developed, it was specific to job satisfaction in human services in non-profit and public organisations. It evaluated employees' attitudes about the characteristics of the job and has been applied to diverse organisational sectors in different organisational cultures (Giri & Kumar, 2010; Liu, Borg & Spector, 2004).

The JSS was developed based on the samples from community health centres, state psychiatric hospitals, state social service departments, and nursing homes (Spector, 1985). The JSS is one of the most frequently used job satisfaction instruments (Kim & Jogaratnam, 2010).

The nine facets of the JSS include: pay (pay and remuneration), promotion (promotion opportunities), supervision (immediate supervisor), fringe benefits (monetary and non-monetary fringe benefits), contingent rewards (appreciation, recognition, and rewards for good work, performance-based rewards), operating procedures (operating policies and procedures), co-workers (people you work with), nature of work (job tasks) and communication (communication within the organisation) (Spector, 1994). The JSS contains 36 items. The JSS uses the Likert scale containing six choices from one (disagree very much) to six (agree very much).

According to Evans (1998), job satisfaction instruments are designed in a diverse manner and may be chosen to be used depending on different purposes of the research. The JSS is commonly used by organisations to help manage, train, and retain valuable employees (Liu *et al.*, 2004). Organisations frequently use worker job satisfaction to diagnose problem areas and gauge intervention effectiveness. Therefore, the ability to measure job satisfaction consistently and accurately across a wide variety of work contexts is highly desirable. Closing with the study of job satisfaction this leads to an investigation of motivation and theoretical approaches of motivation.

3.3 Explaining motivation

If people are more satisfied they are more likely to be motivated, thus job satisfaction and motivation effects each other directly. Ogunnaike, Akinbola and Ojo (2014) mentioned that motivation can involve the internal drive of individuals that elicits actions. Therefore, motivation is an important internal drive which forces individuals to achieve their life target in moving forward. Odendaal and Roodt (2003) described motivation as the progression that accounts for the employee's intensity, direction and determination in the attainment of a particular goal. Dawson (1986) referred to motivation as the "mainspring of behaviour"; it explains why individuals choose to expend a degree of effort towards achieving goals.

Motivating staff is a critical factor in ensuring that an organisation prospers and thrives in a progressively competitive environment (Govender & Parumasur, 2010). Motivated employees with high levels of job participation are an asset and keeping employee motivation and job satisfaction high is always rewarding to a business as motivated employees are more productive. Henceforth, higher output usually results in higher profits (Denton, 1987). Employee motivation is critical for achieving the desired organisational level outcomes of employee retention initiatives. The definition of motive means the wants, desires, and needs of individuals. Key skills, employee motivation and attendance in organisations are the main operational issues which may influence directly on business performance, productivities and costs of the organisation (Glen, 2006).

3.3.1 Intrinsic and extrinsic motivation

Intrinsic motivation is understood as the inspiration emanating from the inherent nature of the job, while extrinsic motivation is the incentive to do a job, driven by external factors such as pay and bonuses (Amabile, Hill, Hennessey & Tighe 1994). Hence, employees' motivation at work may occur in two ways: intrinsically or extrinsically (Josh, 2014). According to Ryan and Deci (2000), intrinsic motivation is defined as the doing of an activity for its inherent satisfaction rather than for some separable consequence.

When intrinsically motivated, a person is moved to act for the fun or challenge entailed, rather than because of external products, pressures, or reward. These relate to the

worker's personal interest and on-the-job experience. This includes the work itself, on-the-job experience, tenure, job status, social valuation, job autonomy, work–life balance, organisational commitment, and emotional exhaustion. Keeping employees motivated is the key to a successful and productive workforce (Esu, 2012).

According to Daft (2003), suggested that motivation is the forces either within or external to a person that arouse enthusiasm and persistence to pursue a certain course of action. Daft explained that people have basic needs such as food, security and achievement which translates into an internal tension that motivates the individual to exhibit specific behaviours with which to fulfil these needs. The satisfaction derived from the behaviour that produced that desired outcome, reflects the reward. Daft further explained the nature of the rewards as being two-fold: intrinsic and extrinsic rewards.

Employees are inspired when work itself is challenging and stimulating. Extrinsic motivation is a construct that pertains whenever an activity is done to attain some separable outcome. Extrinsic motivation thus contrasts with intrinsic motivation, which refers to doing an activity simply for the enjoyment of the activity itself, rather than its instrumental value (Ryan & Deci, 2000). Extrinsic motivation is usually created from a source external to the task and is applied by other people. This includes a regular salary, fringe benefits and cash rewards.

Srivastava and Barmola (2011) asserted that extrinsic motivation such as pay, wages, bonuses, and other incentives are very important to increase employee productivity. Ariely, Gneezy, Loewenstein and Mazar (2009), as well as Van Beek, Hu, Schaufeli, Taris & Schreurs (2012), suggested that extrinsic motivation, especially monetary rewards and bonuses, helps increase motivation among employees performing a job or task that requires mechanical skills that are usually repetitive and unpleasant.

Wilkinson (1998) suggested that at its simplest form, empowerment would especially be associated with the redistribution of power, but in practice empowerment is usually seen as a form of employee involvement, designed by management and intended to generate commitment and enhance employee contributions to the organisation. Lam *et al.* (2001) suggested that rewards such as monetary incentives or increases in wages can effectively motivate hospitality employees. However, more studies have

shifted from extrinsic motivation to intrinsic motivation (Bénabou & Tirole, 2009; Ryan & Deci, 2000). Van Beek *et al.* (2012) suggested that motivation from within had helped individuals achieve higher levels of energy, dedication, and absorption at work.

3.4   Theoretical approaches to employee motivation

A need is the crucial ingredient of individual motivation. A need is something that an individual value and wants to achieve. It is the basis of a motivational outline. If an individual is devoid of needs, then it is impossible to motivate him to perform any task. Shortages usually imply needs; however, the constant effort required to keep the need satisfied is a need (Grover, 1978).

The Hierarchy of Needs theory was developed in the 1940s by a psychologist, Abraham Maslow. Maslow was a prominent member of the humanistic school of thought in psychology. Maslow (1943) presented the first theory of needs and believed that employees would be motivated and satisfied if certain needs were met. He identified five major types of needs and formulated their hierarchical level such that lower order needs must be satisfied before higher order needs become important. The core of his theory revolves human around need satisfaction. Maslow (1943) categorised individual needs into five general sessions, which can be a hierarchy order according to their relative influence's motivation.

Maslow believed ever person had needs that need to be met. He transferred his idea into a triangle design. This is explained in Figure 3.1 below.
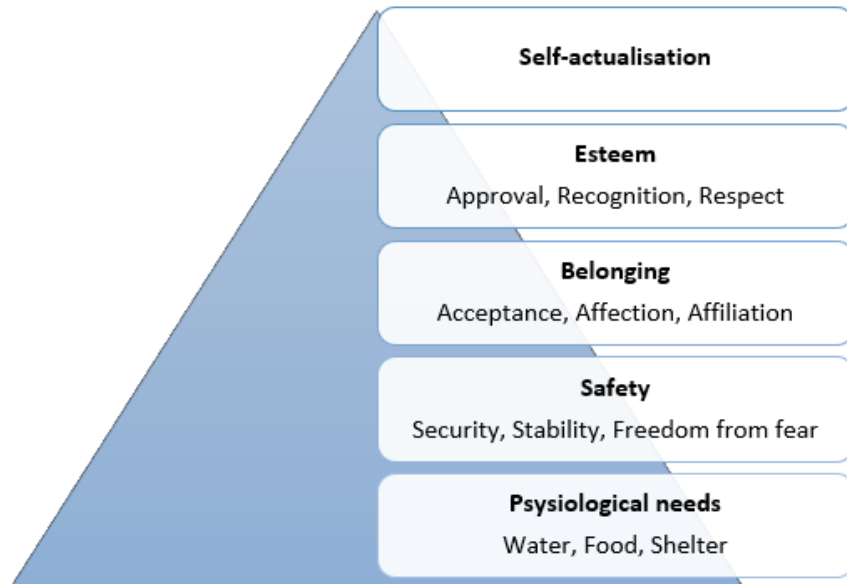
Figure 3.1: Maslow's hierarchy of needs

The lower order needs of Maslow which start with physiological needs, can be explained as follows:

- *Physiological needs* refer to basic needs of existence such as water, food, and shelter.

- *Security needs* refer to sound physical and emotional environment issues such as benefits, pension, safe work environment, fair work practices and job security.

- *Social needs* can also be referred to as 'belongingness needs' and refer to social acceptance issues such as friendship or cooperation on the job, feeling part of a group/team.

- *Esteem needs* refer to positive self-image and respect and recognition issues such as job titles, nice workspaces, prestigious job assignments, and being recognised for achievements and improvements.

- *Self-actualisation needs* refer to achievement issues such as workplace autonomy, stimulating work, subject matter expert status on the job, and the need for personal progression and growth.

The essence of Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs theory is contained in these words: People will first attempt to fulfil basic needs, such a physiological and safety needs, before making efforts to satisfy higher-order needs, such as social and esteem needs (Maslow, 1943).

3.4.1 Herzberg's two-factor theory of motivation

Herzberg's theory is known as the two-factor theory since it attempts to categorise the job-related factors into hygiene factors and motivators. Herzberg started to study job satisfaction in the 1950s in Pittsburgh. Herzberg was influenced by the work of Maslow and other humanistic psychologists. The two-factor theory of Hertzberg drew attention in the 1950s (Herzberg, 1968).

Herzberg's two-factor theory holds that motivators and hygiene factors relate to employee satisfaction in a more complex relationship than what was traditionally believed. Job-context factors include salary, interpersonal relations, technical supervision, working conditions, company policies and administration. Dissatisfaction will prevail if hygiene factors are neglected (Jagun 2015; Lundberg, Gudmundson & Andersson, 2009).

According to Herzberg's two-factor theory, motivation consists of two elements: hygiene factors and motivators. Hygiene factors are aspects that must be in place for employees to be able to do their job. Herzberg's theory is largely responsible for the practice of allowing people to have greater responsibility for planning and controlling their work, as a means of increasing motivation and satisfaction. According to Herzberg, Mausner and Snyderman (1959), managers need to eliminate the dissatisfaction by doing the following:

- Repair poor and obtrusive company policies.
- Provide operational, supportive, and non-intrusive supervision.
- Create and support the culture of respect and dignity for all team members.
- Ensure that wages and salaries are competitive.
- Provide job security.
- Build job status by providing meaningful work for all positions.

Herzberg's two-factor theory suggested that there is a need to address the motivating factors associated with work, which are called job enrichment (Herzberg *et al*, 1959). Herzberg's premise was that every job should be examined to determine how it could be made better and more satisfying to the person doing it. Hence, managers need to consider and include the following:

- Providing opportunities for achievement.

- Recognising worker's contributions.

- Creating work that is rewarding and that matches the skills and abilities of the employee.

- Giving as much responsibility to each team member as possible.

- Providing opportunities to advance in the company through internal promotions.

- Offering training and development opportunities so that people can pursue the positions they want within the company.

In this sense, the hygiene factors correlate with the lower-order needs of Maslow and the motivators with the higher-order needs as identified by Maslow (Nel *et al*., 2014). Hertzberg's two-factor theory of motivation is presented in Figure 3.2.
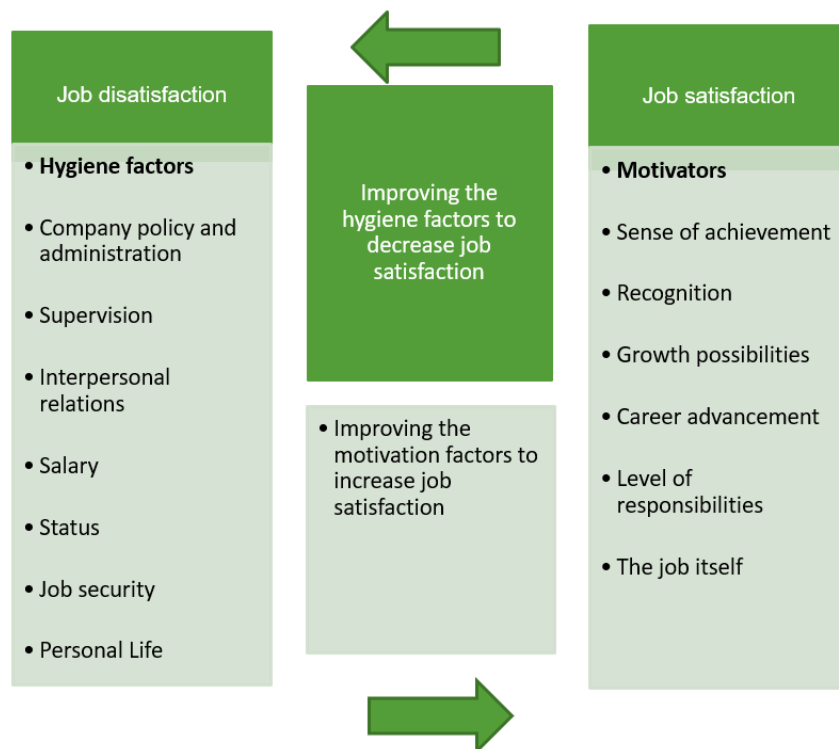
Source: Herzberg *et al*. (1959)

Figure 3.2: Herzberg's two-factor theory of motivation

Figure 3.2 suggests the following: Hygiene factors can lead to dissatisfaction if they are not present on an acceptable level. This includes company policy and administration, supervision, interpersonal relationships, salary, status, job security, and personal life. Those that the employee expects to be in good condition are the motivators, sense of achievement, recognition, growth possibilities, career advancement, level of responsibilities and the job itself.

3.5   Demographics and job satisfaction and motivation

Job satisfaction is multi-faceted, demonstrating that one can be satisfied in one area but not necessarily in other areas, and dissatisfaction in one area does not imply complete job dissatisfaction (Kazi, Ghulam & Zadeh, 2011). In addition, job turnover can also be linked to work-life conflict. Thus, Kazi, Ghulam and Zadeh (2011) asserted that dissatisfaction in work leads to dissatisfaction in personal life and this leads to employee turnover. The first facet of job satisfaction includes demographic factors such as age, gender, marital status, education, and job tenure. These have an impact of demographic factors on commitment (Rabindarang, Bing & Yin, 2014).

Demographic profiles may lead to employee turnovers such as age, gender, income, and salary levels. Some companies developed gender biases that such as preferring men in the workforce rather than female. This can cause many females in that company to switch jobs and look for alternative jobs where they see it fit. Age factors may also relate to employee turnover such as companies that prefer a younger workforce which may result in replacing the old workforce by new and younger generation employees (Jalagat, Dalluay, Al-Zadjali & Al-Abdullah, 2017).

Demographic characteristics are extensively used variables in relation to organisational commitment and as shown in literature, there is a significant role of demographic factors in determining organisational commitment. Demographic factors have an influence on employee retention strategies. Demographic factors have been employed to investigate job satisfaction, and job attitudes have shown that they are strong predictors of turnover intentions (Furnham, Eracleous & Chamorro-Premuzic, 2009; Kavanaugh, Duffy & Lilly, 2010).

Gender has a high impact on employees' organisational commitment, where it refers to socio-psychological categories of masculinity and femininity (Pala, Eker & Eker,

2008) Bender and Heywood (2006), Kim (2005) and Spector (1997) highlighted that gender does impact the level of job satisfaction.

A study by Lord (2002) revealed that demographic characteristics have a vital effect on job satisfaction. The study of Luchak and Gellatly (2007) indicated that female workers have a habit to be more satisfied than male workers. Clark (1997) suggested that women were happier at work than men.

Organisational commitment relates to age. Pala *et al.* (2008) created a feeling of organisational commitment depending on both experience and the conservative attitude it produces. The relationship between job satisfaction and age has been shown to have either a 'U' or positive relationship. In the 'U' relationship (Clark, Oswald and Warr, 1996), high satisfaction in early and later careers is separated with a dip in the middle. Using a sample of over 5 000 employees in the UK, Clark *et al.* (1996) found that job satisfaction was high among those in their teens, and then went down when they were between 20 and 30. It increased again in their 40s to the same level as those in their teens, and progressing higher in their 50s and 60s. On the other hand, some have shown a gradual increase in satisfaction as age increased (Wan & Leightley, 2006):

- Both approaches demonstrate higher satisfaction in older age, which could be due to a number of reasons (Clark *et al.*, 1996). Older employees might have lowered their expectations over time and learnt to be more satisfied.

- Unhappy older employees may be more likely to take early retirement and leave the workforce, leaving the more satisfied older employees.

- Older employees would have had more time to change jobs and end up in a position in which they are happy with.

- Due to a lack of longitudinal studies, the differences between younger and older employees might be due to a generational difference.

Marital status is also a demographic factor that influences commitment. The literature shows that married people are more committed than single people because they need a stable job, due to their responsibility for their families (Choong, Tan, Keh, Lim & Tan, 2012).

Highly educated staff is defined as employees who have successfully followed a higher education programme at a bachelor's or master's level (Hoque, 1999). The turnover of highly educated employees in the hospitality industry is growing fast (Walsh & Taylor, 2007). High employee turnover rates often lead to business failure, an unmotivated workforce, and lack of attractiveness to skilled workers in the hospitality industry (Surji, 2013). If organisations have a high turnover relative to their competitors, employees of that industry have a shorter average job tenure than those of other organisations in the same sector (Swarnalatha & Prasanna, 2014).

Research indicates that job tenure is positively related to organisational identification and commitment (De Gieter, Hofmans & Pepermans, 2011; Imran, Roques & Ali Arain, 2013; Kushman, 1992; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Meyer & Allen, 1997). Although observed evidence suggests that there is a positive link between organisational commitment and tenure, it is still not clear how this link operates.

According to Meyer and Allen (1997), as an individual's length of service with an organisation increases, he or she may develop an emotional attachment with the organisation that makes it tough for them to change the job. Meyer and Allen (1997) also proposed that the results of a positive relationship between job tenure and organisational commitment might be a simple reflection of the fact that uncommitted employees leave an organisation, and only those with a high commitment stay. In closing, improving retention within the hospitality industry with job satisfaction and motivation is of utmost importance.

3.6   Summary

The chapter began with an overview of job satisfaction and motivation. The chapter settled discussions on Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs theory and Herzberg's two-factor theory of motivation and reviewed demographic influence on job satisfaction and motivation.

Chapter 4

Profiling Work in the Context of the Hospitality Industry

4.1   Introduction

Even though the physical environment, structures and processes are critical components of service delivery, their effectiveness depends on the energy and abilities of human resources (Hazra, Sengupta & Ghosh, 2014). It is the human element that deliverers services; a motivated, satisfied and engaged human resources is a main concern for the hospitality industry. Teng (2008) stated that hospitality students show a negative attitude to careers when entering the hospitality industry, mainly about job characteristics and working conditions. Given these realities the hospitality industry faces continuous challenges pertaining to the retention of staff. The aim of this chapter is to discuss the challenges working within the hospitality industry, employability, and South African universities and the CUT's emphasis on WIL.

4.2   Delineating the challenges of working in the hospitality industry

According to Kim, Knight and Crutsinger (2009), there has been a rapid growth in the hospitality industry which has resulted in the generation of employment worldwide. The hospitality industry provides opportunities for satisfying work, given the variety of employment options in the different fields of hospitality (Poulston, 2015). The hospitality industry has been growing dramatically and contributes meaningfully to the world economy. The rapid expectation of this industry has also provided numerous employment opportunities in the global job market (Chang & Tse, 2015).

It is relevant to note that hospitality education is not always the student's first choice (Zhang, Lu, Hu & Adler, 2009). However, high staff turnover has plagued the industry for decades (Qiu, Dooley and Palkar, 2017) and this has had increased negative implications for the industry's productivity, quality, training, and human capital. Kashyap (2014) argued that the high turnover rates present in the hospitality industry is not beneficial to employers as it results in increasing hiring costs, training costs, loss of productivity and operational knowledge. There is a worldwide lack of skilled workers and there is notable competition among businesses to attract and retain the best

candidates. The demand for skills and talent is likely to be a continued challenge for organisations (Kelly, 2016).

Jobs in the tourism and hospitality industry are largely observed to be undesirable, and common features of hospitality employment are low wages, poor working conditions, lack of job security and promotion opportunities which result in high staff turnover (Emiroğlu, Akova & Tanrıverdi, 2015). The hospitality industry generally regards high turnover as part of the workgroup's norms and employees frequently hold the belief that they are entering jobs with limited career development opportunities (Santhanam, Kamalanabhan, Dyaram & Ziegler, 2015).

Hospitality work is widely seen as discriminatory in its treatment of women, minorities and the disabled, frequently through structured occupational segmentation (Kalargyrou & Costen, 2017). All these challenges and employability need to be explored and clearly defined.

4.3   The link between higher education and employability

Yorke (2005) defined employability as a set of achievements skills, understandings and personal attributes that make graduates more likely to gain employment and be successful in their chosen occupations, benefiting themselves, the workforce, the community, and the economy. Table 4.1 explains what employability is and what it is not.

Table 4.1: What employability is and what it is not

What employability is not	What employability is
Merely to get a job after concluding higher education	An ongoing process of success for now and in the future, whatever career a student chooses
A set of skills and personal attributes that can be 'taught' by the academic community	A broad set of skills, abilities and attributes that are developed within the academic community, through a wide range of settings that vary from individual to individual
The responsibility of the careers service and the employability consultancies. The individual is the first responsible	A university-wide responsibility. The higher education institutions should observe their students' employability and produce efforts to boost it
Something new	More important know than ever before
The same as having their own personal development planning, or a similar action plan	An ongoing developmental process that benefits from active reflection. Something new

Source: Yorke (2005)

The importance of employability skills in the workplace is becoming an ever more important topic of debate among scholars who argue that employability skills education has never received that prominence necessary in the education and training system, seeing that such systems have failed to produce graduates with such desired skills (Ennis, Hirsch, MacSuga-Gage & Kennedy, 2018A).

Work experience may thus develop into a passport to employability where employers use work placements as a central part of their graduate recruitment processes. Some employers will acknowledge that they choose to recruit from placed students since they have had a chance to weigh them up in the workplace and know much more about their suitability for a specific job, than any degree record or university results could tell them (Yorke & Knight, 2006).

Higher education intuitions have both a responsibility and accountability for building the theoretical knowledge and skills required for professional practice within a chosen field and to contribute to the employability of graduates (Bates, 2008). Many researchers have found that soft skills are an important contributor to the employability of graduate interns (Coll & Zegwaard, 2006).

Some of the most important soft skills highlighted include interpersonal skills, motivation, good interpersonal communication skills, business skills, etiquette, team spirit, cohesiveness and showing interest. Research evidence, however, suggests that a tertiary qualification does not necessarily prepare students for the work environment (Kruss, 2004; Reinhard, 2006).

Conversely, employability and career success of future graduates will not increase until and unless they credibly demonstrate the skills and competencies compulsory in the workplace. In hospitality programmes, students develop skills and competencies through courses in various subject areas. Thus, the hospitality curriculum needs to include subjects according to the apparent importance attached thereto by industry practitioners, and this ranking needs to be an up-to-date reflection of the ever-changing needs of the industry. In the past, studies have ranked hospitality subject areas, course content areas, and required competencies of future employees (Gursoy, Rahman & Swanger, 2013).

The United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF, 2009;3) defined competencies as "sets of behaviours that are instrumental in the delivery of desired results". Two types of competencies are likely to be developed through WIL participation that can be broadly labelled as 'hard' and 'soft' competencies. Weber, Finley, Crawford and Rivera (2009) identified and investigated the competencies desirable by hospitality managers since the 1980s and found that in hospitality management vital competencies are skills that can be classified as soft skills.

The importance of the WIL experience cannot be denied as students will be exposed to realities and the competencies that they require in the work place (Rainsbury, Hodges, Burchell & Lay, 2002). The four components of competency can be explained as follows (Holzbaur, Lategan, Dyason & Kokt, 2012):

- *Knowledge* suggests an understanding of facts, truths, and principles an individual gained through formal training and experience.

- *Skills* suggest a developed proficiency (mentally or physically) that can be acquired through specialised training.

- *Attributes* suggest the characteristics and qualities individuals possess. Individual attributes are a combination of genetics and experience gained. This component is often neglected by employers as it is the most subjective. The fact, however, remains that specific personality traits have been linked to individual performance.

- *Ability* suggests the aptitude to perform the mental and/or physical activities that are expected from individuals that want to work in a profession.

Hard skills are the technical expertise and knowledge needed for a job. Soft skills are interpersonal qualities, also known as people skills, and personal attributes that one possesses. Business executives consider soft skills a particularly important attribute in job applicants. Employers want new employees to have strong soft skills, as well as hard skills (Robles, 2012). A broader set of capabilities can lead to success in a job or career. It comprises of a mixture of observable and measurable knowledge, skills, attribute, and abilities that are likely to contribute to employee performance.

UNICEF (2019) defined these skills, called life skills, as soft skills that include psychosocial abilities and interpersonal skills that help people make decisions, solve problems, think critically, communicate effectively, build healthy relationships, demonstrate qualities of leadership and team building, manage time effectively, and cope with the stress and strain of life in a healthy and productive manner.

Luka (2015) studied the importance of employability skills and competences. The study demonstrates the significance of employability skills such as problem-solving, teamwork, leadership, communication in foreign languages. Luka (2015) found the significance of communication skills, collaboration skills, teamwork, and intercultural competence which is the specific needs of each partner country.

Hodges and Burchell (2003) recommended that those responsible for developing curricula be attentive and ensure they understand what competencies the industry requires of graduates in the world of work. This will ensure that higher education provides its graduates with the skills to be able to operate professionally within the work environment (Vignali & Hodgson, 2009) by re-enforcing and emphasising the importance of competencies needed in the workplace to ensure that students are effective graduates, flexible, and self-confident.

According to Crebert, Bates, Bell, Patrick and Cragnolini (2004), employers no longer hire graduates with only hard technical skills but rather those who display softer or interpersonal skills. WIL faculty coordinators should emphasise the importance of these soft skills during academic and skills training classes and include these in their assessments to make students realise the significance of these for their success for employability. Today it is becoming imperative that graduates have experience as well as knowledge and skills gained while at university (Betts, Lewis, Dressler & Svensson, 2009).

The students develop key competencies, skills, and work characteristics that are required of them by employers and they will feel more confident to enter the world of work. The working world is changing so rapidly it is essential that graduates are prepared as well as possible. Having well-rounded competencies will give a graduate the upper edge as well as their own personal self-esteem, improved communication, and interpersonal skills (Fallows & Steven, 2000).

The following ten soft skill attributes are categorised from executive listings in a study completed by Robles (2012):

1. Communication can include aspects such as oral, speaking, written, presenting, and listening capabilities.

2. Courtesy can include aspects such as manners, etiquette, business etiquette, graciousness, saying please and thank you and being respectful.

3. Flexibility can include aspects such as adaptability, willing to change, lifelong learning, accepts new things, and being adjustable and teachable.

4. Integrity can include aspects such as honest, ethical, high morals, has personal values, and does what is right.

5. Interpersonal skills can include aspects such as being nice, personable, sense of humour, friendly, nurturing, empathetic, has self-control, patient, sociability, warmth, and social skills.

6. Positive attitude can include aspects such as optimistic, enthusiastic, encouraging, happy and confident.

7. Professionalism can include aspects such as business-like behaviour, well-dressed, appearance and poised.

8. Responsibility can include aspects such as accountable, reliable, gets the job done, resourceful, self-disciplined, wants to do well, conscientious, and common sense.

9. Teamwork can include aspects such as being cooperative, gets along with others, agreeable, supportive, helpful, and collaborative

10. Work ethic can include aspects such as hard working, willingness to work, loyal, initiative, self-motivated, being on time and good attendance.

Future employee retention can also be enhanced by mentoring students on internships. Planning of internship programmes and industry involvement have been shown to be influential in the decision on internship to stay within the hospitality industry following their graduation (Chen & Shen, 2012). Poor training has been linked to problems in the workplace enhancing training and allowing employees to learn more and engage more in what they are good at, can motivate them to stay with an organisation (Poulston, 2015).

The addition of discretion to job content, training and improvement of rewards have also been associated with positive moderation of the higher variability in work demands associated with the industry, which, in turn, enhances the employees' satisfaction (Max, Constantine, Wellington, Hallgren, Glazerman, Chiang & Speroni, 2014).

Finally, it is important for superiors to create a good work environment for employees where they recognise the skills and contribution of the employees. This enhances the trust of subordinates in their superiors and motivates them to stay within the organisation (Poulston, 2015). The following retention strategies have been suggested as best practices for employers: provide employees with career development opportunities (Walsh & Taylor, 2007); employers must pay their employees on the back for every job well done to continually reinforce appreciation of their performance and offer fair compensations (Walsh & Taylor, 2007). Due to the demands of the tourism and hospitality industry it is imperative that universities are attuned to the challenges students are likely to face once working in the industry. WIL is the bridge between universities and employability; thus, employability will be reviewed.

4.4 South African universities and the Central University of Technology, Free State's emphasis on work-integrated learning

Neubauer (2011) noted that there is a global demand for universities to adjust themselves to the changing social circumstances. Universities are increasingly employing innovative models of blended, online, or lifelong learning (Choudaha & Van Rest, 2018). Based on the high unemployment rates, Dhliwayo (2008) claimed that WIL in South Africa should be focusing on 'job creators' and not 'job seekers' so that experiential learning also promotes entrepreneurship education.

Each university's mission should be established on the basis of its unique influence towards knowledge production in the form of research, as well as its contribution towards national, regional and continental development, and its identified centres of excellence and parts of strengths (Universities South Africa, 2015). Traditional universities deal with basic foundational degrees, professional undergraduate degrees, honours degrees, master's, and doctoral degrees at postgraduate level. Traditional universities offer courses such in education, health science, law, and business (Bunting, Sheppard, Cloete & Belding, 2010).

According to Du Pre (2009), a country needs both traditional universities and universities of technology, as they make provision for the different educational needs of a country. Comprehensive universities, the other type of university in the South African context, offer programmes that include the approaches of both traditional universities and universities of technology (Bunting et al., 2010). The pillars of a university of technology involves a holistic approach to teaching and learning. This can include the following: having relevant higher education programmes, flexible learning models, an entrepreneurial institutional culture, emergence of centres for research and development, strengthening industry partnership, practical contributions towards regional and economic progress, establishment of institutional support structures, career-oriented programmes and WIL (Du Pre, 2009).

WIL is regarded as a method of learning that combines and integrates learning on-campus with learning in the workplace aimed at assisting students to make the transition from a dependent learner to professional practitioner. CUT was recently involved in a procedure titled the Strategic Transformation of Educational Programmes and Structures (STEPS). The purpose was to redefine learning programmes in agreement with the latest industry requirements and developments to improve the quality of learning programme offerings to students and to gain a competitive advantage over major competitors.

A result of the STEPS process was that all learning programmes would have an obligatory section of WIL in future. The challenge was to grow a strategy around this principle, which will result in the best possible dividends for the university, students, and final consumers (employers). The main aim was to use WIL to create a competitive advantage for CUT. The best way to achieve this was to structure the compulsory WIL component in such a way that the employability of CUT students could be optimised through the inclusive and current application of WIL (Jacobs, 2015).

4.4.1 Structure of the Diploma in Hospitality Management at the Central University of Technology, Free State

This structure is well aligned with CUT's definition of WIL that describes WIL as "a term used to describe a range of approaches, strategies and methods used to meaningfully integrate theory with practices of the workplace within a purposefully

designed curriculum" Central University of Technology, Free state Calendar (CUT, 2020:392-396). The hospitality management diploma is a three-year course with 360 credits at Level 6 of the National Qualifications Framework. The diploma includes a compulsory WIL component of one year that consists out of two WIL periods of six months which equates to 120 credits. The structure of the Diploma in Hospitality Management is illustrated in Table 4.2 in the following subsection.

Table 4.2: Structure of the Diploma in Hospitality Management

First year: • January–November: Theoretical and practical instruction on campus   • December: WIL commences (60 credits): Kitchen as well as food and beverage training at selected hotels and lodges in the hospitality industry
Second year: • January–May: WIL continues   • July–December: Theoretical and practical instruction on campus
Third year: • January–June: Theoretical and practical instruction on campus   • July–December: WIL (60 credits): Management training at selected hotels and lodges in the hospitality industry

According to the South African Qualifications Authority, the credits for the Diploma in Hospitality Management are 360 and the National Qualifications Framework give the duration of the learning programme as three years.

The 2011 graduate survey at the CUT established that employability of students in the hospitality management programme had attained an employment rate of 85%. The strategic conversion of education processes and systems projects during 2012 established that the CUT indicated a direct link between WIL and the enhancement of employability. There is an increasing focus on the student as the nexus of integrating classroom and workplace learning through WIL (Trede & McEwen, 2015). Because in the university context, students are learners and in the workplace context, they are pre-accredited professionals, which imply that in both contexts' students can be facilitators of peer learning.

The so-called 'new world of work' brought about by the massive advancement of technology and digitalisation placed added emphasis on universities to remain relevant (Karatepe & Karadas, 2012). The new world of work implies an environment

where the skills base of employees is crucial as work is increasingly becoming digital, which places more emphasis on acquiring technology skills. There is further an increased diversity, decentralised authority and more emphasis on teamwork (Kaji, Khan, Garia & Budman, 2018).

It is within this context that universities need to remain relevant as they are at the forefront of supplying suitably skilled individuals to the new world of work. The focus of this study was on WIL as a method of applied learning which includes a structured educational programme that combines productive relevant work experience combined with academic study and professional reflection. Embedded in the nature of universities of technology, is compulsory experiential learning which provide students with relevant work experience (Du Pre, 2009). Figure 4.1 illustrates the conceptual framework for the study.
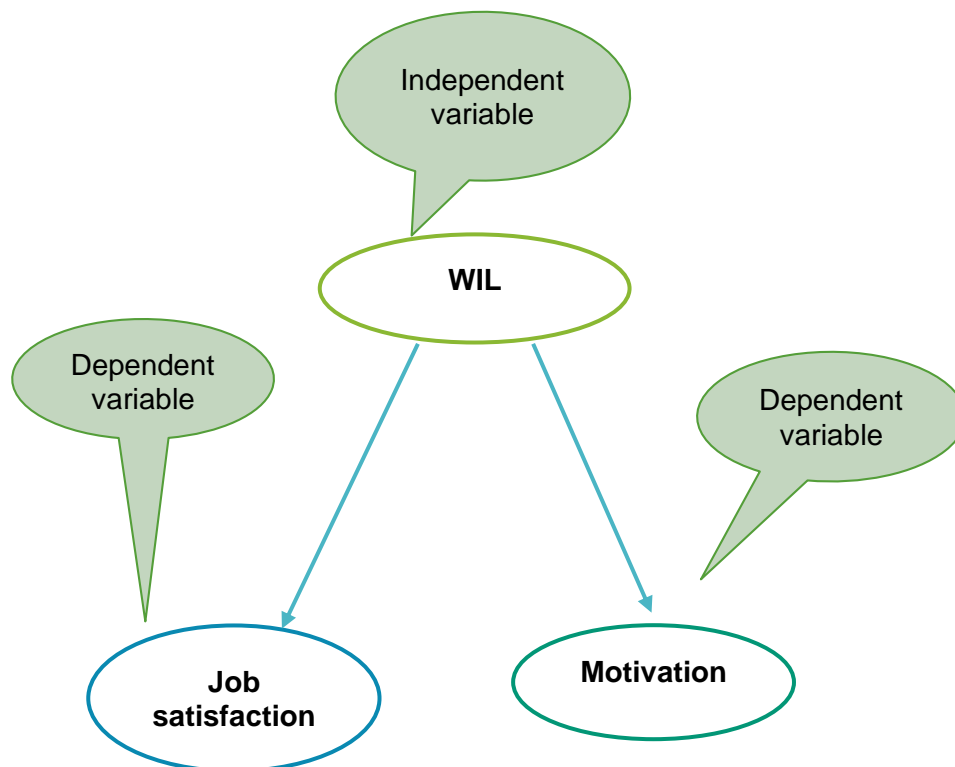
Figure 4.1: Conceptual framework for the study

The main objective of the study was to determine to what extent WIL participation influence the job satisfaction and motivation of CUT's hospitality management alumni. The independent variable is WIL, and the competencies acquired during WIL participation by alumni was identified. The dependent variables are job satisfaction and motivation measured by using the JSS and Hertzberg's two-factor theory,

respectively. This enabled the researcher to identify whether WIL participation enhanced job satisfaction and motivation of CUT's hospitality management alumni.

The integration of theory and practice through WIL has an underlying intention and is by implication an active process of student involvement by applying theoretical concepts in the practical work situation. This relates to the active process in which learners relate new information to previously acquired information. The four-stage cycle of the experiential learning theory accentuates active student involvement in the process of student learning and development. In the introduction, it was stated that aim of the study was to contribute theoretically and empirically in addressing staff retention in the hospitality industry.

This implied a theoretical perspective of WIL and the contribution thereof towards job satisfaction and motivation. The views of students (alumni in this case) were therefore critical in determining the following:

- To determine the demographic profile of CUT's alumni that work in the hospitality industry.
- To determine which competencies were developed during WIL participation according to CUT's hospitality management alumni.
- To determine to what extent WIL participation, influence the job satisfaction of CUT's hospitality management alumni.
- To determine to what extent WIL participation, influence the motivation of CUT's hospitality management alumni.

4.5   Summary

This chapter provided an overview of the hospitality industry, the South African universities, and the CUT, as well as the conceptual framework of the study. In conclusion, it has been determined that WIL is a tripartite curriculum strategy that enhances the value of learning through the alignment and integration of academic learning with learning in the workplace. It has a sound grounding in learning theories, resulting in an effective pedagogy that leads to benefits for academic institutions, employers, and students. These benefits, together with the pedagogy of WIL, provided the link between WIL and employability.

Chapter 5
Research Methodology

5.1   Introduction

This chapter describes the research methodology followed in this investigation. It elucidates the research approach, population and sampling, questionnaire construction, data collection procedures, pilot study and fieldwork challenges.

5.2   Research approach and design

Research methodology is a method to systematically solve the research problem (Bodla, 2009). Three types of research approaches can be distinguished: qualitative, quantitative, and mixed methods. Qualitative research is non-numerical, descriptive, applies reasoning and uses words. Its aim is to find meaning and to feel and describe the situation (Rajasekar et al., 2006). Quantitative research is a formal, objective, systematic process in which numerical data is used to obtain statistics about a phenomenon. This implies defining variables, examining relations among variables and determining cause-and-effect interactions between variables. Polit and Hungler (1999) stated that descriptive research delivers an accurate explanation of features of an individual, event or group in real-life situations. Mixed method approaches use a combination of both qualitative and quantitative research to address the research problem (Zohrabi, 2013).

Polit and Hungler (1999) defined the research design as a blueprint, or outline, for conducting the study in such a way that maximum control will be exercised over factors that could interfere with the validity of the research results. Research is a logical and systematic examination of new and valuable information on a subject matter. Research defines variables and examines relations among these variables so that cause-and-effect interactions between these variables can be determined (Rajasekar et al., 2006).

As indicated in Chapter 1, section 1.6.1, the study used a quantitative research approach and the research design was survey research. Survey research, according

to Leedy and Ormrod (2015), is a study designed to determine the incidence, frequency and distribution of certain characteristics in a population. It typically employs a face-to-face interview, a telephone interview, or a written questionnaire. This study employed a self-administered online questionnaire. Surveys can gain information from large samples of the population. They are also well suited for gathering demographic data that describes the composition of the sample (McIntyre, 1999). In this study, the data was analysed descriptively by using graphs, pie charts and frequencies. Structural equation modelling, specifically partial least squares structural equation modelling (PLS-SEM), was applied to examine the relationship between the variables. The researcher therefore believes that the contextual conditions of the survey design were applicable to the phenomenon under investigation.

5.3   Population

A population, as stated by McMillan and Schumacher (2010), is a group of individuals, objects or cases that conform to specific criteria, and to which we intend to generalise the results of the research. The population for this study consisted of all CUT alumni (around 300) who have participated in WIL in the hospitality management programme. Ninety-four (94) respondents completed the questionnaire, yielding a response rate of 31%.

5.4   Data collection instrument

The structured questionnaire (see Appendix B) consisted of closed-ended questions (Croasmun & Ostrom, 2011). A structured questionnaire is a pre-formulated written set of questions to which respondents record their answers. Questionnaires are efficient data collection instruments when a study is descriptive or exploratory; they are cheap and less time-consuming than interviews and observations; and are designed to collect large numbers of quantitative data (Sekaran & Bougie, 2013).

In constructing the questionnaire, the literature was scrutinised, including previous questionnaires on WIL, job satisfaction and motivation. Closed-ended (Likert scale) questions were used to help the respondents make quick decisions by choosing from several alternatives (Sekaran & Bougie, 2013). The questions were informed by and aligned to the research objectives of the study. The researcher used the QuestionPro

software tool to compile the structured questionnaire as the primary data collection method.

Leedy and Ormrod (2015) defined validity as the extent to which a measurement instrument measures what it is intended to measure. The validity and reliability of the measuring instrument was confirmed in the inferential phase of the study. The questionnaire consisted of four sections as explained below (see Appendix B):

Section A: Demographics

This section gathers the demographic profile of the respondents, including gender, work section, and qualifications.

Section B: Competencies acquired during participation in work-integrated learning

This section includes the competencies acquired during participation in WIL. For this section of the questionnaire, nine soft skill attributes were categorised from executive listings in a study completed by Robles (2012).

Section C: Competencies acquired during participation in work-integrated learning and current job satisfaction

The questions in this section pertained to the respondents' participation in WIL and its influence on current job satisfaction. The JSS questionnaire were used as conceptual guide for the job satisfaction section of the questionnaire, as indicated by Spector (1985). Sabbagha's (2016) method was used to measure the job satisfaction of respondents in the hospitality management industry.

Section D: Competencies acquired during participation in work-integrated learning and current motivation

The questions in this section pertained to the respondents' participation in WIL and its influence on their current motivation. The two-factor theory of Hertzberg served as the theoretical guide for the development of the motivation section of the questionnaire (Furnham et al., 2009).

5.5 Pilot study

A pilot study was conducted before the main data collection and included five respondents from the hospitality management department where the researcher is stationed. These respondents did not form part of the main study. The objective of the pilot study was to pre-test the research instrument of Teijlingen and Hundley (2001) to guarantee data quality and accuracy.

5.6 Data collection

In locating the respondents, the researcher used a combination of the existing CUT database and social media. A request to participate in the study, as well as the link to the questionnaire was sent to respondents via email and WhatsApp (see Appendix A and Appendix B). The respondents were assured that the information provided would be confidential and anonymous. The data gathering process took about three weeks and was done during the Covid-19 lockdown period of 2020.

5.7 Data analysis

The process of data analysis is focused on answering the research questions and achieving the purpose of the study (Wilbraham, 2006). McMillan and Schumacher (2010) added that the researcher employs a comparative method of data analysis and use induction, deduction, and verification techniques. Data analysis is a continual process of interweaving information. The following statistical approaches were applied to the study:

- Descriptive statistics to determine measures of central tendency such as the mean score, standard deviation, and the median (see Appendix E).

- Frequency tables, pie charts and graphs were used for the descriptive analysis.

- PLS-SEM was applied to validate the relationship among the three constructs, namely the competencies acquired during participation in WIL, its influence on current job satisfaction and the respondents' current motivation. It was also used to measure the reliability and validity of the measurement items.

5.8   Summary

This chapter described the research methodology applicable to the study. It explained the research philosophy and design which were selected in line with the aims and objectives of the study, namely, to determine the competencies acquired during participation in WIL, the respondents' current job satisfaction, as well as the respondents' current motivation. The chapter also outlined the tools and procedures that were applied in the planning, design, and execution phases of the research, which included the data gathering instrument. Lastly, the chapter identified and described the statistical tests applied in interpreting the collected data.

Chapter 6

Analysis and Presentation of Results

6.1   Introduction

This chapter reports the findings of the empirical section of this study. An analysis is provided on the results of the survey regarding demographic information, followed by the competencies acquired during WIL participation, and current job satisfaction and motivation. As alluded to before, QuestionPro was used to administer the questionnaire and the results were captured in Microsoft Excel. Both descriptive and inferential statistics were used to interpret the data. For the inferential part of the analysis, structural equation modelling (SEM) was used to show the relationship between the variables.

6.2   Descriptive statistics

This section describes the demographic profile of the respondents, the competencies acquired during WIL participation. The influence of WIL on current job satisfaction; and current motivation.

6.2.1   Demographic profile of the respondents

This section describes the demographic profile of the hospitality management alumni, namely gender, racial group, age in years, where they stay, annual income, employment status and educational level. Figure 6.1 shows the gender composition of the respondents and shows that most of the hospitality alumni were female (74%), with 26% being male.
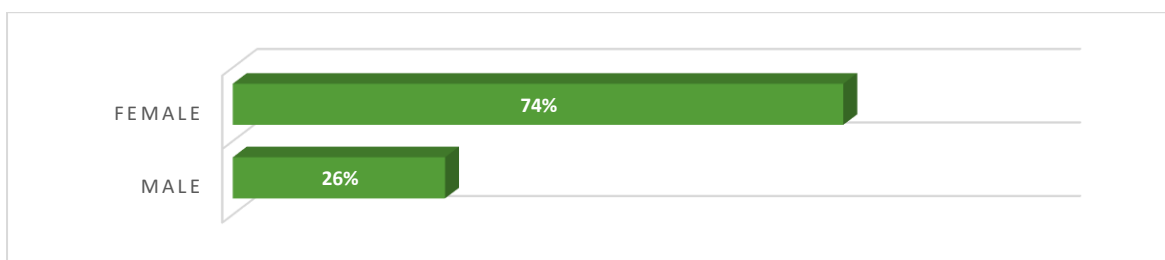
Figure 6.1: Gender composition of respondents

The racial group of the respondents is presented in Figure 6.2. The results indicated that the respondents were 55% African, 10% Coloured and 35% White.
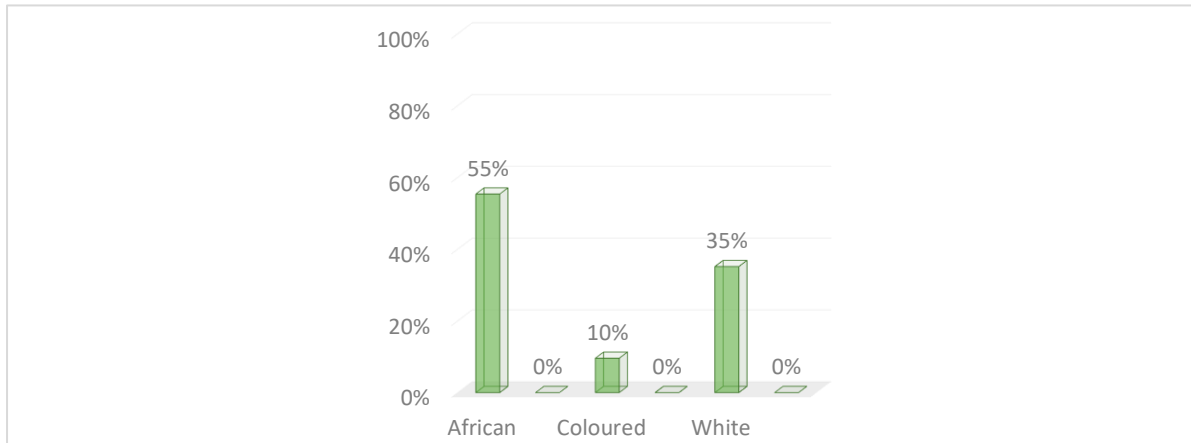
Figure 6.2: Racial group of respondents

The age composition of the respondents is presented in Figure 6.3. This indicates that 96% of the respondents were between the ages of 21 and 40 years and only 4% of the respondents were between 41 and 60 years old.

	Under 21	21-40	41-60	Older than 60
Series1	0%	96%	4%	0%
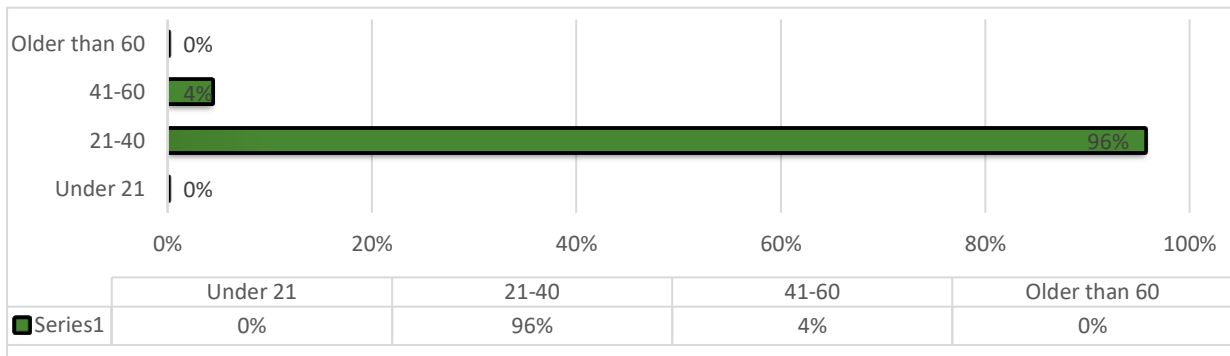
Figure 6.3: Age composition of respondents

The next two questions asked where the alumni work in South Africa and internationally. The results are indicated in Table 6.1 and Table 6.2, respectively.

Table 6.1: **Workplace of alumni in South Africa**

Province	Number	Percentage
Eastern Cape	3	4%
Free State	48	56%
Gauteng	11	13%
KwaZulu-Natal	1	1%
Limpopo	1	1%
Mpumalanga	2	2%
North West	0	0%
Northern Cape	3	4%
Western Cape	16	19%
Total	**85**	**100%**

Table 6.1 shows that most of the hospitality alumni worked in the Free State (56%), followed by the Western Cape (19%) and Gauteng (13%).

Table 6.2: **Workplace of alumni internationally**

Country	Number	Percentage
South Africa	85	90%
Great Britain	2	2%
Lesotho	2	2%
United Arab Emirates	2	2%
United States of America	2	2%
Worked on ships	1	1%
Total	**94**	**100%**

The information in Table 6.2 indicates that most of the hospitality alumni found employment in South Africa (93,63%). Not everyone of the alumni who worked internationally, indicated in which country they worked; however, the online survey programme indicated from where the respondents were completing the survey.

The annual income of the respondents is shown in Figure 6.4.
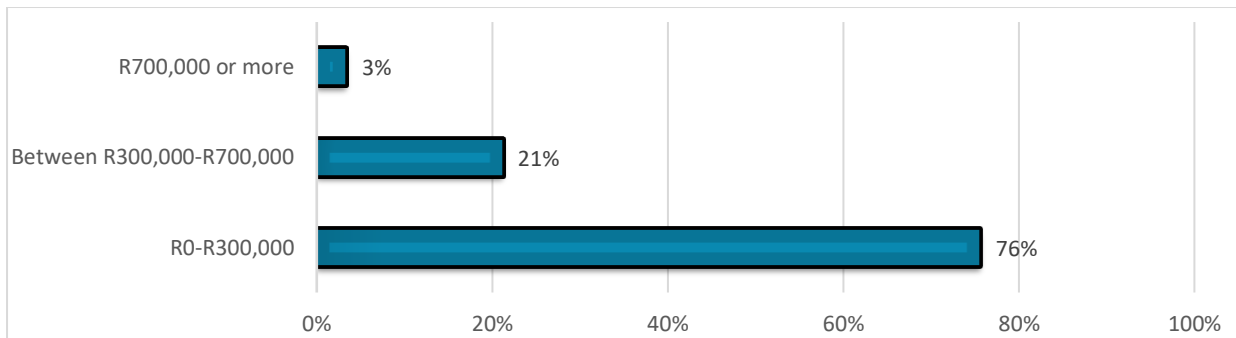
Figure 6.4: Annual income of respondents

Figure 6.4 indicates that 76% of the hospitality alumni's annual income ranged from R0 to R300 000, 21% of the hospitality alumni's annual income ranged from R300 000 to R700 000, while 3% of the hospitality alumni's annual income ranged from R700 000 or more.

The respondents were also requested to indicate their employment status. Figure 6.5 indicates that 11% of the respondents were self-employed, 55% were employed in the hospitality industry, 13% were students, while 22% indicated 'other'.

	Self employed	Employed in the hospitality industry	Student/Learner	Other/Specify
■ Series1	11%	55%	13%	22%
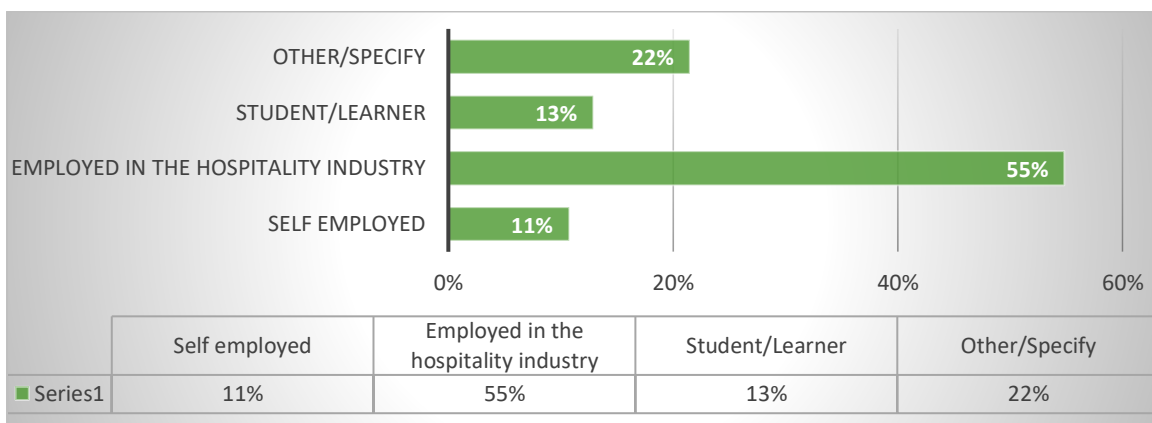
Figure 6.5: Employment status of respondents

Only 12 respondents specified their current employment positions. None of these respondents were working in the hospitality industry, although one respondent was a chemical and hygiene supplier to the hospitality industry.

The last question in Section A of the questionnaire aimed at ascertaining the educational level of the respondents. This is illustrated in Figure 6.6.
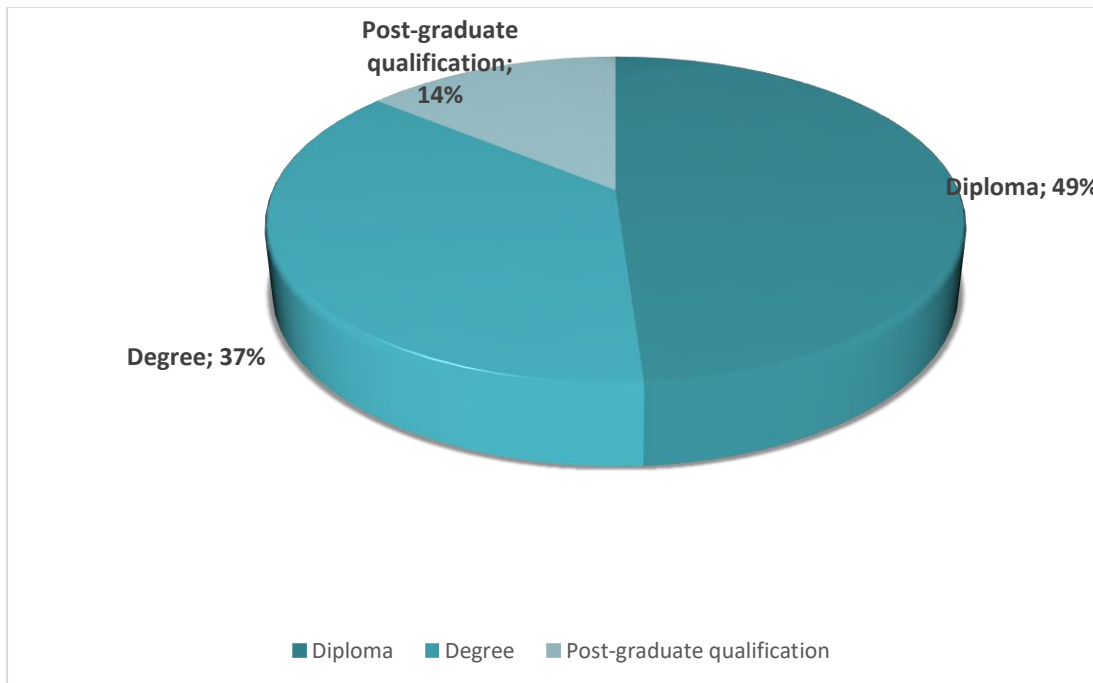
Figure 6.6: Educational level of respondents

Figure 6.6 indicates that a total of 49% of the respondents had a postgraduate qualification, with 37% who have obtained a degree and 14% a diploma.

6.2.2 Competencies acquired during participation in work-integrated learning

Table 6.4 shows the results of the competencies acquired by respondents pertaining to their participation in WIL and its influence on their job satisfaction (Section B of the questionnaire).

Table 6.3: Competencies acquired during participation in work-integrated learning and its influence on job satisfaction

	Question	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
1.	WIL participation enabled me to understand work expectations	3%	1%	4%	32%	60%
2.	WIL participation instilled better work ethics in me	1%	2%	11%	37%	49%
3.	WIL participation enabled me to be more professional in performing my job	0%	5%	4%	33%	57%
4.	WIL participation enabled me to better manage my time	1%	4%	15%	39%	41%

	Question	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
5.	Because of WIL participation I am more reliable and punctual in my job	3%	9%	11%	32%	46%
6.	WIL participation instilled a positive attitude in me towards my job	2%	4%	10%	41%	43%
7.	I am better with teamwork due to WIL participation	1%	7%	12%	48%	32%
8.	WIL participation enhanced my communication skills	0%	4%	6%	45%	45%
9.	WIL participation enhanced my interpersonal skills	0%	1%	8%	48%	43%

Question 1: WIL participation enabled respondents to understand work expectations, the majority agreed (32%) or strongly agreed (60%).

Question 2: WIL participation instilled better work ethics in respondents: 1% strongly disagreed, 2% disagreed, 11% were neutral, 37% agreed and 49% strongly agreed.

Question 3: WIL participation enabled me to be more professional in performing my job: strongly disagreed 0%, 5% disagreed, 4% were neutral, 33% agreed and 57% strongly agreed.

Question 4: WIL participation enabled the respondents to better manage time. 3% strongly disagreed, 4% disagreed, 14% were neutral, 39% agreed and 49% strongly disagreed.

Question 5: Because of WIL participation, the respondents are more reliable and punctual in the job: 3% strongly disagreed, 9% disagreed,11% were neutral, 32% agreed, and 46% strongly agreed.

Question 6: Because of WIL participation, it instilled a positive attitude towards jobs: 2% strongly disagreed, 4% disagreed, 10% were neutral, 41% strongly agreed and 43% strongly agreed.

Question 7: Participation is better with teamwork due to WIL participation: 1% strongly disagreed, 7% disagreed, 12% were neutral, 48% agreed and 32% strongly agreed.

Question 8: WIL participation enhanced respondents' communication skills: 0% strongly disagreed, 4% disagreed, 6% were neutral, 45% agreed and 45% strongly agreed.

Question 9: WIL participation enhanced my interpersonal skills: 0% strongly disagreed, 1% disagreed, 8% were neutral, 48% agreed, and 43% strongly agreed.

Table 6.5 shows the results of the competencies acquired by respondents pertaining to their participation in WIL and its influence on their current job satisfaction (Section C of the questionnaire).

Table 6.4: Competencies acquired during participation in work-integrated learning and current job satisfaction

	Question	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
1.	My job is rewarding and matches my skills and abilities	0%	8%	11%	47%	34%
2.	My job provides opportunities to advance in the company through internal promotion	0%	3%	20%	41%	36%
3.	My current job offers training and development opportunities so that I can advance in my job	2%	2%	20%	38%	37%
4.	My current job provides a safe and healthy environment	2%	2%	10%	40%	46%
5.	I have no job insecurity in my current job	5%	14%	32%	30%	19%
6.	My current job allows me to lead a balanced life	3%	10%	38%	30%	19%
7.	My current job provides good rewards and benefits, like health and life insurance	12%	27%	18%	22%	21%
8.	My current job allows me to control my destiny and be influential	0%	10%	22%	51%	18%
9.	I experience more job satisfaction because of the WIL exposure	2%	9%	29%	27%	33%
10.	I receive the recognition I deserve in my current jo	0%	12%	16%	52%	20%
11.	Many of the rules and pro-cedures within my current work environment makes it difficult to do a good job	8%	59%	18%	10%	5%
12.	I like the people I work with	1%	2%	18%	52%	27%
13.	I feel my job is meaningless	51%	36%	10%	3%	0%

	Question	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
14.	I am not satisfied with the payment I receive in my current job	18%	25%	29%	18%	11%
15.	The goals of the organisation are not clear to me	35%	46%	11%	7%	1%
16.	I have too much to do at work	9%	32%	34%	19%	7%
17.	I feel a sense of pride in doing my job	4%	2%	9%	43%	42%

Question 1: Respondents' jobs are rewarding and matches respondent skills and abilities: 0% strongly disagreed, 8% disagreed, 11% is were neutral, 47% agreed and 34% strongly agreed.

Question 2: Respondents' jobs provide opportunities to advance in the company through internal promotion: 0% strongly disagreed, 3% disagreed, 20% were neutral, 41% agreed and 60% strongly agreed.

Question 3: Respondents' current jobs offer training and development opportunities so that respondent can advance in job: 2 % strongly disagreed, 1% disagreed, 4% were neutral, 38% agreed and 37% strongly agreed.

Question 4: My current job provides a safe and healthy environment: 2% strongly disagreed, 2% disagreed, 10% were neutral, 40% agreed, 46% strongly agreed.

Question 5: Respondents have no job insecurity in current jobs: strongly disagree 5%, 14% disagreed, 32% were neutral, 30% agreed and 19% strongly agreed.

Question 6: Respondents' current jobs allow respondents to lead a balanced life: 3% strongly disagreed, 10% disagreed, 38% were neutral, 30% agreed and 19% strongly agreed.

Question 7: Respondents' current jobs provide good rewards and benefits, like health and life insurance: 12% strongly disagreed, 27% disagreed, 18% were neutral, 22% agreed and 21% strongly agreed.

Question 8: My current job allows me to control my destiny and be influential: 0% strongly disagreed, 10% disagreed, 22% were neutral, 51% agreed and 18% strongly agreed.

Question 9: I experience more job satisfaction because of the WIL exposure: 2% strongly disagreed, 9% disagreed, 29% were neutral, 27% agreed and 33% strongly agreed.

Question 10: I receive the recognition I deserve in my current job: 0% strongly disagreed, 12% were neutral, 16% agreed and 20% strongly agreed.

Question 11: Many of the rules and procedures within my current work environment makes it difficult to do a good job: 8% strongly disagreed, 59% disagreed, 18% were neutral, 10% agreed and 5% strongly agreed.

Question 12: Respondents like people he/she works with: 1% strongly disagreed, 2% disagreed,18% were neutral, 52% agreed and 27% strongly agreed.

Question 13: I feel my job is meaningless: 51% strongly disagreed, 36% disagreed, 10% were neutral, 3% agreed and 0% strongly agreed.

Question 14: Respondents are not satisfied with the payment received in current jobs: 18% strongly disagreed, 25% disagreed, 29% were neutral, 18% agreed, 11% strongly agreed.

Question 15: The goals of the organisation are not clear to respondents: 35% strongly disagreed, 46% disagreed, 11% were neutral, 7% agreed, 1% agreed.

Question 16: I have too much to do at work: 9% strongly disagreed, 32% disagreed, 34% were neutral, 19% agreed and 7% strongly agreed.

Question 17: Respondents have a sense of pride in doing their jobs: 4% strongly disagree, 2% disagreed, 9% were neutral, 43% agreed, 42 % strongly agreed.

Table 6.6 shows the results of the competencies acquired by respondents pertaining to their participation in WIL and its influence on their current motivation (Section D of questionnaire).

Table 6.5: Competencies acquired during participation in work-integrated learning and current motivation

	Question	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
1.	WIL participation contributed towards my learning experience	1%	3%	2%	43%	51%
2.	Because of WIL participation I was better able to fit into my job	0%	2%	8%	45%	45%
3.	Because of WIL participation I have a better sense of achievement in my job	0%	4%	14%	51%	31%
4.	Because of WIL participation I have a better sense of career advancement	0%	3%	15%	48%	34%
5.	Because of WIL participation I have a better sense of how to grow both personally and professionally	0%	4%	9%	47%	40%
6.	Because of WIL participation I have a better understanding of how to achieve recognition in my current job	1%	10%	13%	39%	37%

Question 1: WIL participation contributed towards respondents' learning experience: 1% strongly disagreed, 3% disagreed, 2% were neutral, 43% agreed and 51% strongly agreed.

Question 2: Because of WIL participation I was better able to fit within my job: 0% strongly disagreed, 3% disagreed, 2% were neutral, 43% agreed and 51% strongly agreed.

Question 3: Because of WIL participation I have a better sense of achievement in my job: 0% strongly disagreed, 4% disagreed, 14% were neutral, 51%agreed, strongly agreed 31%.

Question 4: Because of WIL participation I have a better sense of career advancement: 0% strongly disagreed, 3% disagreed, 15% were neutral, 48% agreed, 34% strongly agreed.

Question 5: Because of WIL participation, respondents have a better sense of how to grow both personally and professionally: 0% strongly disagreed, 4% disagreed, 9% were neutral, 47% agreed and 40% strongly agreed.

Question 6: Because of WIL participation I have a better understanding of how to achieve recognition in my current job: 1% strongly disagreed, 10% disagreed, 13% were neutral, 39% agreed and 37% strongly agreed.

6.3   Inferential statistics

Before the data analysis could commence, all variables that were used to measure the items included in the study were assessed for normality as the assumption of normality is a prerequisite for a large percentage of parametric statistical analysis. The following items were reverse coded: JS11R, JS13R, JS14R, JS15R, JS16R. The codebook of items can be found in Appendix C.

The Shapiro-Wilk test was used to assess the normality of the items. If the p-value of the Shapiro-Wilk test is <0.05 it means that the data significantly deviated from a normal distribution (Laerd Statistics, 2019). As can be seen from Table 6.6, all data variables significantly deviated from a normal distribution with p values <0.001. If the histograms for all items, as shown in Appendix D, are investigated, it can also be seen that these histograms are not bell-shaped, confirming the non-normal distribution of all measuring items. Detailed descriptive statistics for all items are shown in Appendix E.

Table 6.6:   Normality assessment – Shapiro-Wilks test

Item	Statistic	df	p
JS01	0.807	92	<0.001
JS02	0.833	90	<0.001
JS03	0.822	90	<0.001
JS04	0.748	90	<0.001
JS05	0.906	90	<0.001
JS06	0.895	90	<0.001
JS07	0.891	90	<0.001
JS08	0.853	90	<0.001
JS09	0.870	90	<0.001
JS10	0.835	90	<0.001
JS11R	0.790	90	<0.001
JS12	0.824	90	<0.001
JS13R	0.763	90	<0.001
JS14R	0.911	90	<0.001
JS15R	0.810	90	<0.001
JS16R	0.908	90	<0.001
JS17	0.749	90	<0.001

Item	Statistic	df	p
MOT01	0.694	92	<0.001
MOT02	0.768	90	<0.001
MOT03	0.821	90	<0.001
MOT04	0.823	91	<0.001
MOT05	0.784	91	<0.001
MOT06	0.827	91	<0.001
WIL01	0.644	93	<0.001
WIL02	0.764	93	<0.001
WIL03	0.696	93	<0.001
WIL04	0.805	93	<0.001
WIL05	0.787	93	<0.001
WIL06	0.777	93	<0.001
WIL07	0.819	93	<0.001
WIL08	0.760	93	<0.001
WIL09	0.768	92	<0.001

6.3.1 Partial least squares structured equation modelling

As mentioned in the previous section, all data variables significantly deviated from a normal distribution. It was therefore decided to make use of the PLS-SEM analysis method to analyse the data for the study, because PLS-SEM does not require data to be normally distributed. PLS-SEM or partial least squares path modelling is a variance-based structural equation that has become extremely popular in recent years. It is a second-generation multivariate analysis technique that combines the features of the first-generation principal components and linear regression analysis. PLS-SEM is a regression based approach that explores the linear relationships between multiple independent variables and single or multiple dependent variables (Janadari, Subramaniam, Ramalu, Wei & Abdullah, 2016). PLS-SEM is also very suitable if the goal of the study it to predict key target constructs and the research is exploratory in nature (Hair, 2017).

Another consideration for using PLS-SEM in the study was because the minimum sample size that was required to conduct the analysis was relatively low. The minimum sample size for PLS-SEM should be equal to the larger of the following: ten times the largest number of formative indicators used to measure one construct, or ten times the largest number of structural paths directed at a particular construct in the structural model (Hair, 2017). As can be seen from Figure 6.7, the largest number of structural

paths directed at a construct was one: one structural path going from WIL participation to job satisfaction, and one structural path going from WIL participation to motivation. The minimum required sample size for the PLS-SEM analysis was therefore 10. The sample size used in the study was greater than 90 and therefore by far exceeded the minimum requirement.
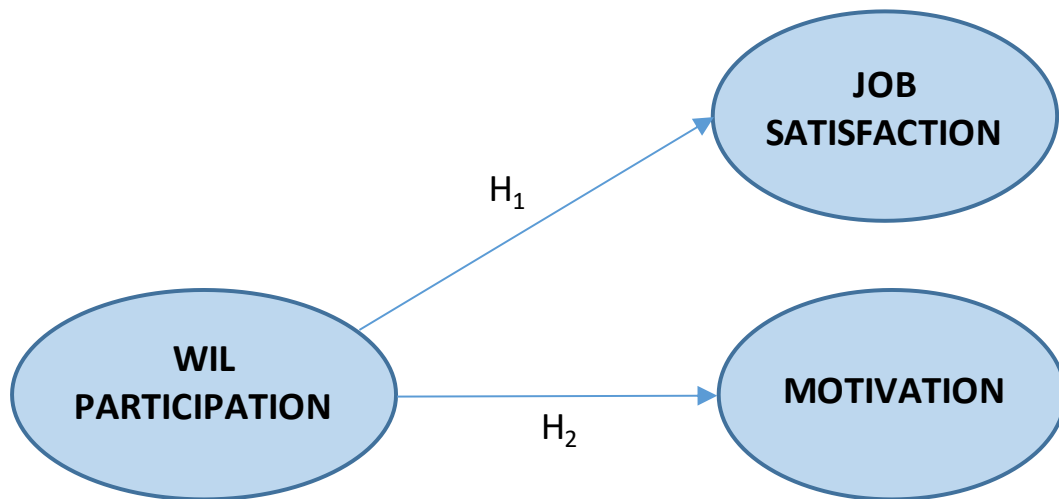
Figure 6.7: Research model

6.3.2 Hypotheses for research model

The hypotheses were formulated as follows:

H1: WIL participation will positively influence job satisfaction.

H2: WIL participation will positively influence motivation.

6.3.3 Evaluation of the partial least squares structural equation modelling

The evaluation of the PLS-SEM model for the study was conducted in a two-stage process:

* First, the outer model was assessed, as discussed in Section 1.

* Second, the inner model was assessed as discussed in Section 2.

The statistical package SmartPLS, version 3.0, was used to conduct the PLS-SEM analysis.

6.3.4 Section 1: Outer model (measuring model) assessment

Before testing for a significant relationship in the structural model, the measurement model must first be evaluated (Fornell & Larcker,1981). The two main criteria used in the PLS analysis to assess the measurement model, or what is alternatively called the outer model, include validity and reliability (Ramayah, Lee & In, 2011). The reliability test tries to find stability and the consistency of the measuring instrument, whereas validity tests try to find out how accurate an instrument measures a particular concept it is designed to measure (Janadari et al., 2016). To assess the reliability and validity of the measurement model the following were assessed:

- Indicator reliability.
- Convergent validity.
- Internal consistency reliability.
- Discriminant validity.

6.3.4.1 Indicator reliability

According to Hulland (1999), reflective indicator loadings of >0.5 shows that the item is a good measurement of a latent construct. However, according to Hair, Hult, Ringle and Sarstedt (2017), the indicator's outer loadings should be higher than 0.7. Indicators with outer loadings between 0.4 and 0.7 should be considered for removal only if the deletion leads to an increase in composite reliability and Average Variance Extracted (AVE) above the suggested threshold value.

Based on the guidelines provided by Hulland (1999), all items that had loadings of <0.5 were removed from the measuring model. The items that were removed from the measurement model were: JS05, JS07, JS11R, JS14R and JS16R.

Hair et al. (2017) further advised that items with loadings below 0.7 and above 0.5 should also be removed from the measurement model but only if the removal leads to an increase in composite reliability and AVE is above the suggested threshold value. Therefore, the following items were also removed from the measuring model in order to increase the AVE of the related latent variables above the threshold value of 0.5: JS03, JS06, JS08, JS09, JS12R, JS15R, JS16, MOT01 and WIL01.

Table 6.7 shows that all indicator loadings were above the 0.5 threshold prescribed by Hulland (1999). Furthermore, all indicator loadings exceeded the 0.7 threshold prescribed by Hair et al. (2017), except the following four items that had loadings greater than 0.65 but smaller than 0.7: JS02, JS04, MOT02 and WIL04. It can therefore be concluded that the measurement model exhibits indicator reliability.

Table 6.7: Factor loadings

Indicator	Job Satisfaction	Motivation	WIL
JS01	0.758		
JS02	0.664		
JS04	0.653		
JS12	0.754		
JS13R	0.703		
MOT02		0.698	
MOT03		0.783	
MOT04		0.81	
MOT05		0.833	
MOT06		0.775	
WIL02			0.744
WIL03			0.742
WIL04			0.675
WIL05			0.758
WIL06			0.755
WIL07			0.736
WIL08			0.783
WIL09			0.708

6.3.4.2 Convergent validity

Convergent validity is the extent to which a measure correlates positively with alternative measures of the same construct (Hair *et al.*, 2017). Convergent validity is assessed using the AVE, which is the average variance shared between a construct and its measures (Janadari *et al.*, 2016). AVE should be greater than 0.5, according to Bagozzi and YI (1988) as well as Fornell and Larcker (1981). As can be seen from Table 6.8, the AVE of all items in the measurement model of first-order constructs was above the 0.5 threshold, indicating convergent validity of the WIL, motivation, and job satisfaction constructs.

Table 6.8: Average variance extracted

Variables	AVE
Job satisfaction	0.501
Motivation	0.61
WIL	0.545

6.3.4.3 Internal consistency reliability

Internal consistency reliability can be assessed using the composite reliability as well as Cronbach's alpha (α). According to Gefen, Straub and Boudreau (2000), composite reliability should be greater than 0.7 to indicate adequate internal consistency reliability. Moreover, according to Tavakol and Dennick (2011), Cronbach's alpha (α) can be interpreted based on Table 6.9.

Table 6.9:   Guidelines for interpretation of Cronbach's alpha

α ≥ 0.9	Excellent
0.9 > α ≥ 0.8	Good
0.8 > α ≥ 0.7	Acceptable
0.7 > α ≥ 0.6	Questionable
0.6 > α ≥ 0.5	Poor
0.6 > α	Unacceptable

As can be seen from Table 6.10, the composite reliability of all items was above 0.83 and the Cronbach's Alpha of all items were above 0.75, which falls into the acceptable level of internal consistency reliability.

Table 6.10:   Measurement model: Cronbach's Alpha and composite reliability

Variables	Cronbach's Alpha	Composite reliability
Job satisfaction	0.759	0.833
Motivation	0.840	0.886
WIL	0.881	0.905

6.3.4.4 Discriminant validity

Discriminant validity is the extent to which a construct is truly distinct from other constructs by empirical standards. "Discriminant validity implies that a construct is unique and captures phenomena not represented by other constructs in the model" (Hair *et al.*, 2017:115).

To assess discriminant validity of the measurement model the following was investigated:

- Cross-loadings.
- Fornell–Larcker criterion.
- HTMT criteria.

The cross-loadings are typically the first approach to assess the discriminant validity of the indicators. Specifically, an indicator's outer loading on the associated construct should be greater than any of its cross-loadings, namely its correlation, on other constructs. The best way to assess and report cross-loadings is in a table with rows for the indicators and columns for the latent constructs as shown in Table 6.11. From Table 6.11 the indicator loadings of each construct do not load higher on any other construct and is therefore an indication of discriminant validity.

The Fornell–Larcker criterion is the second approach to assess discriminant validity. It compares the square root of the AVE values with the latent variable correlations. Specifically, the square root of each construct's AVE should be greater that its highest correlation with any other construct. The square root of the AVE of each latent variable is shown diagonally in bold in Table 6.12, along with the correlations of the latent variable with other latent variables. It can be seen from Table 6.12 that the square root of the AVE of each latent variable was indeed higher than any correlation with any other latent variable, also indicating the discriminant validity of the measurement model.

Table 6.11:   Cross-loadings

Indicator	Job satisfaction	Motivation	WIL
JS01	**0.758**	0.172	0.341
JS02	**0.664**	0.18	0.185
JS04	**0.653**	0.263	0.197
JS12	**0.754**	0.28	0.336
JS13R	**0.703**	−0.013	0.192
MOT02	0.167	**0.698**	0.39
MOT03	0.283	**0.783**	0.534
MOT04	0.232	**0.81**	0.413
MOT05	0.193	**0.833**	0.537
MOT06	0.124	**0.775**	0.369
WIL02	0.418	0.294	**0.744**
WIL03	0.263	0.335	**0.742**
WIL04	0.185	0.322	**0.675**
WIL05	0.158	0.489	**0.758**
WIL06	0.286	0.56	**0.755**
WIL07	0.206	0.492	**0.736**
WIL08	0.345	0.406	**0.783**
WIL09	0.34	0.483	**0.708**

Table 6.12:   Fornell–Larcker

Variables	Job satisfaction	Motivation	WIL
Job satisfaction	**0.708**		
Motivation	0.262	**0.781**	
WIL	0.378	0.587	**0.738**

The last and most reliable method to assess discriminant validity is making use of the heterotrait–monotrait (HTMT) ratio of the correlations. HTMT is the mean of all correlations of indicators across constructs measuring different constructs (i.e., the HTMT method correlations) relative to the (geometric) mean of the average correlations of indicators measuring the same construct (i.e., the HTMT method correlations) and could be used for discriminant validity assessment (Hair *et al.,* 2017).

The HTMT ratio should not exceed 0.9 (Hair *et al.*, 2017). As can be seen from Table 6.13, no HTMT ratio exceeded 0.9; therefore, indicating that the measurement model exhibited discriminant validity.

Table 6.13: Heterotrait–monotrait ratios

Variables	Job satisfaction	Motivation
Motivation	0.335	
WIL	0.424	0.65

6.3.5 Section 2: Inner model (structural model) assessment

The assessment of the structural model of the study was conducted in two steps, namely:

Step 1:   Assessing the significance and relevance of the structural model relationships.

Step 2:   Assessing the level of R^2.

6.3.5.1 Step 1: Assessing the significance and relevance of the structural model relationships

The direct effects of all the hypothesised relationships were evaluated by making use of bootstrapping analysis. Bootstrapping is a resampling technique that draws many subsamples from the original data (with replacement) and estimates models for each subsample. It is used to determine standard errors of coefficients to assess their statistical significance without relying on distributional assumptions (Hair, 2017). The standardised beta and t-values were calculated by the bootstrapping procedure with a resample of 5 000. The results of the bootstrapping procedure are shown in Table 6.14.

As can be seen from Table 6.14, there is a positive statistically significant relationship between WIL and job satisfaction (*β*=0.378, p<0.001*).* H1 of the study is therefore supported. There is also a positive statistically significant positive relationship between WIL and motivation *(β*=0.587, p<0.001). H2 of the study is therefore also supported.

Table 6.14: **Path model results of the partial least squares structural equation modelling**

Hypothesis	Relationship	Standard Beta	Standard error	t-value	p-value	Decision
H1	WIL -> Job satisfaction	0.378	0.092	4.119	<0.001	Accepted
H2	WIL -> Motivation	0.587	0.097	6.047	<0.001	Accepted

6.3.5.2 Step 2: Asses the level of R^2

R^2 measures the proportion of variance in a latent endogenous construct that is explained by other exogenous constructs expressed as a percentage (Chin, 1988). Exogenous constructs are independent constructs in all equations in which they appear, while endogenous constructs are dependent constructs in at least one equation, although they may be independent variables in other equations in the system.

The R^2 values of the structural model is shown in Table 6.15. The R^2 value of motivation is 0.345. This means that the WIL participation explains 34.5% of the variance in the motivation construct. According to Cohen (1992), R^2 values of 0.12 or below indicates a low effect size, values between 0.13 to 0.25 indicate medium effect size, and values of 0.26 or above indicate high effect size. From these guidelines, the WIL participation had a high predictive power towards the motivation construct.

Furthermore, job satisfaction had a R^2 value of 0.143 which means that WIL participation explains 14.3% of the variability of the job satisfaction construct, which signifies a medium predictive power, according to Cohen (1992).

Table 6.15:   R-Square

Variables	R Square
Motivation	0.345
Job satisfaction	0.143

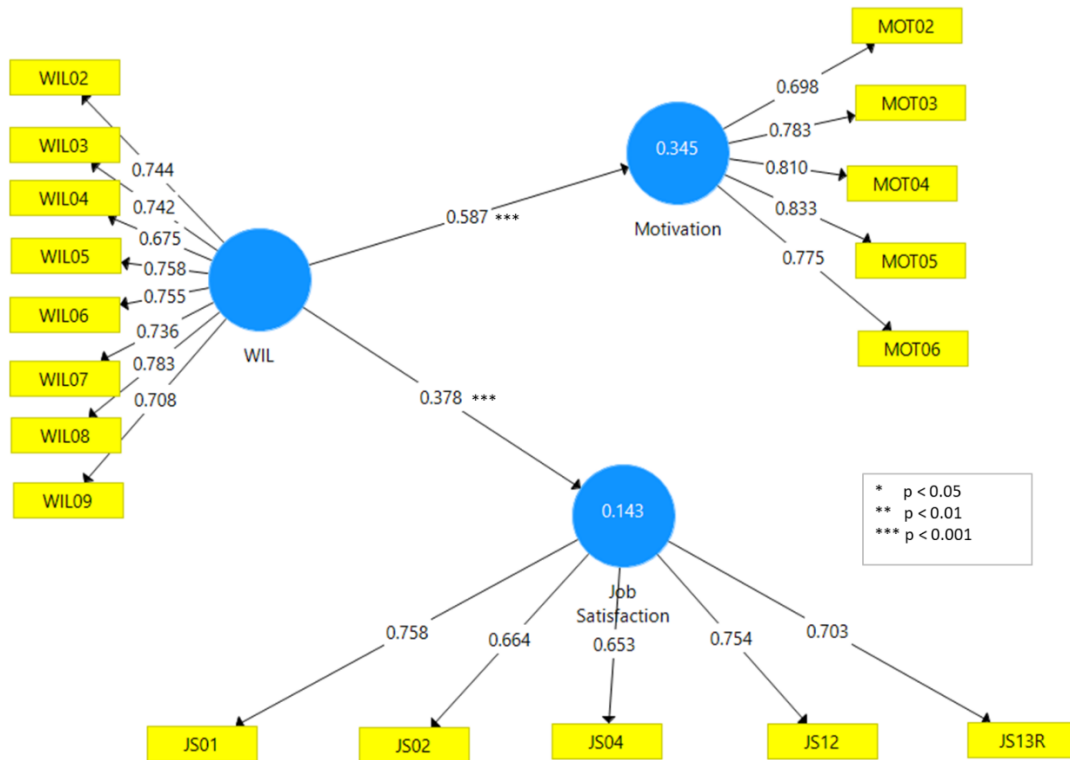A grapical respresentaion of the structural model is shown in Figure 6.8.

Figure 6.8: The structural equation model of work-integrated learning participation, motivation, and job satisfaction

6.4 Summary

Chapter 6 presented the research findings from an empirical point of view. The descriptive statistics for the various questions were analysed and discussed. The first part of the chapter provided background information of the respondents by analysing their demographic profile. This was followed by a descriptive summary of the competencies acquired during participation in WIL and the alumni's current job satisfaction and motivation.

The following chapter presents the conclusions drawn from the findings, followed by the contribution of the research to the field of study. Limitations of the research will be mentioned, and recommendations will be made.

Chapter 7
Conclusions and Recommendations

7.1 Introduction

Chapter 6 presented, analysed and discussed the findings of the empirical part of the investigation. This chapter presents the conclusions and recommendations drawn from the findings. Future research is also suggested.

7.2 Conclusions

The main objective of this study was to ascertain the effect of WIL participation on the job satisfaction and motivation of the hospitality management alumni of CUT. The results of the study presented above clearly indicated that WIL had a positive influence on job satisfaction and motivation of the hospitality management alumni.

The findings indicated that 26% of the respondents were male and 74% were female. Most of the respondents were between the age of 21 and 40 years old. The racial group of most of the respondents were African (55%), coloured (10%) and white (35%). The annual income of most of the respondents were up to R300 000 (76%), followed by between R300 000 and R700 000. Only 3% were in the income category of R700 000 or more. Eleven percent (11%) of the respondents were self-employed, while 55% were employed in the hospitality industry and 13% were student learners. Yorke (2005) defined employability as a set of achievement skills, understandings and personal attributes that make graduates more likely to gain employment and be successful in their chosen occupations, benefiting themselves, the workforce, the community, and the economy. Almost half of the respondents (49%) had a diploma, 37% have obtained a degree and 14% a postgraduate qualification.

The data analysis employed PLS-SEM to map the relationships between the variables, which included WIL, job satisfaction and motivation (see Figure 6.7). The following discussion relates to the variables measured. The findings associated with the WIL construct (Figure 6.8) showed that the following competencies were instilled in hospitality graduates: work ethics (0.744), professionalism (0.742), time management

(0.675), enhanced reliability and punctuality (0.758), a positive attitude (0.755), better teamwork capabilities (0.736), communication skills (0.783) and interpersonal skills (0.708). These findings confirmed the importance of WIL in developing the soft skills of hospitality employees and corresponds with the findings of Robles (2012). Additionally, Stone, Duffy, Pinckney and Templeton-Bradley (2017) noted that concerted efforts need to be made to also develop the critical thinking skills of tourism and hospitality students.

There is ample evidence of the benefits of WIL for students (Rambe, 2018; Sattler & Peters, 2013; Thompson *et al.*, 2017). A major advantage is that it enhances the employability of graduates which is a crucial consideration for the hospitality industry (Coll & Zegwaard, 2006; Ennis *et al.*, 2018). Academic institutions also benefit from offering WIL programmes as these programmes facilitate better networking with industry professionals, thus enabling academics to gauge whether their students are meeting their expectations (Martin & Hughes, 2009b). This notion is supported by Weisz and Capman (2004) who noted that WIL programmes offer academics the opportunity to develop and maintain contact with the 'real' world that offers opportunities for collaborative research within the industry which can also inform the design of university curricula.

Related to the job satisfaction construct, Figure 6.8 indicates that the respondents found their current jobs rewarding and that it matched their skills and abilities (0,758). Their jobs also offered advancement possibilities (0.664). The findings further showed that the respondents perceived their job environments as safe and healthy (0.653) and that they liked the people they worked with (0.754). It further emanated from the findings that the respondents did experience feelings of meaninglessness (0.703). The findings of this study confirmed that WIL has a medium predictive power towards job satisfaction (0.378, p<0.001).

Related to the motivation construct in Figure 6.8, the respondents indicated that WIL participation enabled them to better fit into their jobs (0.698) and that they experienced a better sense of achievement (0.783) and career advancement (0.810) in their jobs. The respondents also indicated that because of WIL participation they better understood how to grow both personally and professionally (0.833), as well as how to receive recognition in their jobs (0.775). The findings of this study confirmed that WIL

participation has a high predictive power towards the motivation construct (0.587, p<0.001).

Although job satisfaction and motivation strongly influence each other, it was interesting to note that the findings of this study showed that WIL participation impacted more positively on motivation as compared to job satisfaction. The findings further indicated that the respondents that participated in WIL were better able to fit into their jobs, as well as having a good sense of how to perform in their jobs and advance in their careers. This also extended to understanding their own personal and professional growth. In fact, the highest score was recorded on this item, which shows the invaluable contribution of WIL for hospitality graduates. Being exposed to working in the industry had thus cultivated realistic expectations from the respondents.

Given the challenges of working in the tourism and hospitality industry, Stone *et al.* (2017) noted that concerted efforts need to be made by academic institutions to also develop the critical thinking skills of students. These insights must be cultivated at an individual level by instilling aspects such as self-knowledge, self-management and the regulation of emotions which relates to being emotionally intelligent (Kanonuhwa, Rungani & Chimucheka, 2018). Emotional intelligence thus enables individuals to make appropriate career choices which contributes to finding meaning and purpose in their jobs (Jung & Yoon,2016).

The study results concurred with that of Alam and Mohammad (2010) as well as Aziri (2011) who suggested that a high level of job satisfaction can increase organisational success and, consequently, the organisation's performance. Low levels of job satisfaction can cause employees to be less motivated, which can in turn decrease their output, efficiency, and employee's performance. It is widely accepted that WIL opportunities have value and produce benefit for students and employers, including employment readiness such as gaining job-related skills and knowing what kind of job opportunity a student would want to have after graduation.

Although the statistical impact of WIL on job satisfaction recorded lower scores, the relationship was still positive. The findings indicated that the respondents' current jobs matched their skills and abilities, which is something that can contribute to enhanced motivation – again emphasising the close connection between the terms. Interestingly, the findings showed that respondents viewed their job environments as being safe and

healthy and that they liked the people they worked with. It also showed that respondents experienced feelings of meaninglessness.

This can possibly be attributed to the Covid-19 lockdown periods instituted by many governments across the globe – as the study was conducted during the first stages of lockdown due to the Coronavirus.

7.3   Recommendations

Based on the results of the study, some suggestions for the hospitality management programme include the following:

This study provided evidence that acquiring WIL exposure influenced hospitality alumni positively in their careers within the hospitality industry. Furthermore, WIL also had a positive influence on their job satisfaction and motivation. Therefore, the relationship between stakeholders should be sustained.

Jackson *et al.* (2017:1) concurred and recommended "to alleviate barriers and challenges to improve the WIL experience for all stakeholders and ensure the sustained growth of WIL in the higher education sector". To continuously develop and sustain the three-way partnership between stakeholders will promote collaboration and improves academia and industry relations. The results of this study thus need to be shared with all stakeholders to identify and address possible barriers and challenges that can increase the 55% of students employed in the hospitality industry. This is especially significant, given Kashyap's (2014) finding that the high turnover rates present in the hospitality industry is not beneficial to employers as it results in increasing hiring costs, training costs, loss of productivity and operational knowledge.

Jacobs (2015) determined that on an institutional level at the CUT, certain activities are recommended in respect of each component of the WIL quality cycle to optimally enhance the employability of students through WIL. The WIL quality cycle should be reviewed on a continues basis to assure constant progress and improvement.

The fact that 11% of the respondents were self-employed, leaves room for more entrepreneurship development within the hospitality programme. It is recommended that those alumni who were successful, are used to share their experiences to enrich this component of the hospitality management programme. As the world economy

steps into a stage where service-oriented industries see an increasing governing share in the gross domestic product of many countries, hospitality entrepreneurship seems to be highly important for the economic development in both industrialised and developing countries (Wang, Hung & Huang, 2019).

7.4   Limitations

Despite statistically significant results, the study was not free from limitations. Only alumni hospitality students were included in the study; thus, results may not be generalised to all hospitality students. Further examination could be done with second-year hospitality students that went out on their first WIL exposure. This can assist with improving the WIL programme and give recommendations to improve the WIL quality cycle.

7.5   Suggestions for further research

The research focused on a single university programme and measured the influence of WIL on job satisfaction and motivation profiling only the hospitality management alumni of the CUT. More detailed research can be conducted on the influence of WIL on job satisfaction and motivation, per qualification, at the CUT. Secondly, the selected dependent variables (job satisfaction and motivation) are not the only factors that influence the careers of alumni in the hospitality industry. There are other important drivers such as emotional intelligence, self-knowledge, self-management attitudes, and gender that can correspondingly be tested.

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Appendix A
Letter to Respondents

Dear Participant

As you know work-integrated learning (WIL) is an important part of the training of Hospitality Management students.

As the alumni of the Hospitality Management programme of CUT your inputs can make a valuable contribution in understanding how WIL impacts the job satisfaction and motivation of those working in the hospitality industry.

Participation is voluntary and confidential. The data will only be used for research purposes.

This survey will take about 6 minutes to complete.

Please click on the link below to access the survey (or copy and paste the link into your internet browser).

Kindest regards

Janice Solomons

https://wilcutalumni2020.questionpro.com/

Appendix B
QuestionPro Questionnaire

The influence of work-integrated learning (WIL) on job satisfaction and motivation: case study of the hospitality management alumni of Central University of Technology, Free State (CUT)

100%   Exit Survey

Dear Participant:

Thank you for your co-operation in the completion of this questionnaire. The completion of this questionnaire is anonymous, and the information will be handled confidentially. Your inputs are of extreme value and importance for the researcher and management. The information will be used for research purpose only. Please answer this questionnaire as honestly as possible.
Yours truly
Ms J Solomons

Study leader: Prof Desere Kokt(051-50731114 email: kokd@cut.ac.za)

Next

Please indicate your gender.

○   Male

○   Female

Please indicate your racial group.

◯ African

◯ Asian

◯ Coloured

◯ Indian

◯ White

◯ Other

Please indicate your age in years.

◯ Under 21

◯ 21-40

◯ 41-60

◯ Older than 60

If you are currently working in South Africa, please indicate the province.

◯ Eastern Cape

◯ Free State

◯ Gauteng

◯ KwaZulu-Natal

◯ Limpopo

◯ Mpumalanga

◯ North West

◯ Northern Cape

◯ Western Cape

If you are working internationally, please indicate the country.

Please indicate your annual income

○ R0-R300,000

○ Between R300,000-R700,000

○ R700,000 or more

Please indicate your employment status.

○ Self employed

○ Employed in the hospitality industry

○ Student/Learner

● Other/Specify

Specify

Next Question

Please indicate your educational level.

○ Diploma

○ Degree

○ Post-graduate qualification

Section B: The undermentioned questions pertain to your participation in WIL and its influence on your job satisfaction.

Read the statements and indicate your level of agreement in each case.

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
WIL participation enabled me to understand work expectations.	○	○	○	○	○
WIL participation instilled better work ethics in me.	○	○	○	○	○
WIL participation enabled me to be more professional in performing my job.	○	○	○	○	○
WIL participation enabled me to better manage my time.	○	○	○	○	○
Because of WIL participation I am more reliable and punctual in my job.	○	○	○	○	○
WIL participation instilled a positive attitude in me towards my job.	○	○	○	○	○
I am better with teamwork due to WIL participation.	○	○	○	○	○
WIL participation enhanced my communication skills.	○	○	○	○	○
WIL participation enhanced my interpersonal skills.	○	○	○	○	○

Section C: Participation in WIL and current job satisfaction

The undermentioned questions pertain to your participation in WIL and its influence on your current job satisfaction. Read the statements and indicate your level of agreement in each case.

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
My job is rewarding and matches my skills and abilities.	○	○	○	○	○
My job provides opportunities to advance in the company through internal promotions.	○	○	○	○	○
My current job offers training and development opportunities so that I can advance in my job.	○	○	○	○	○
My current job provides a safe and healthy environment.	○	○	○	○	○
I have no job insecurity in my current job.	○	○	○	○	○
My current job allows me to lead a balanced life.	○	○	○	○	○
My current job provides good rewards and benefits, like health and life insurance.	○	○	○	○	○
My current job allows me to control my destiny and be influential.	○	○	○	○	○
I experience more job satisfaction because of the WIL exposure.	○	○	○	○	○
I receive the recognition I deserve in my current job.	○	○	○	○	○

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
Many of the rules and procedures within my current work environment, makes it difficult to do a good job.	○	○	○	○	○
I like the people I work with.	○	○	○	○	○
I feel my job is meaningless.	○	○	○	○	○
I am not satisfied with the payment I receive in my current job.	○	○	○	○	○
The goal of the organisation are not clear to me.	○	○	○	○	○
I have too much to do at work.	○	○	○	○	○
I feel a sense of pride in doing my job.	○	○	○	○	○

Section D: Participation in WIL and current motivation.

The undermentioned questions pertain to your participation in WIL and its influence on your current motivation. Read the statement and indicate your level of agreement in each case.

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
WIL participation contributed towards my learning experience.	○	○	○	○	○
Because of WIL participation I was better able to fit into my job.	○	○	○	○	○
Because of WIL participation I have a better sense of achievement in my job.	○	○	○	○	○
Because of WIL participation I have a better sense of career advancement.	○	○	○	○	○
Because of WIL participation I have a better sense of how to grow both personally and professionally.	○	○	○	○	○
Because of WIL participation I have a better understanding of how to achieve recognition in my current job.	○	○	○	○	○

< **Done**

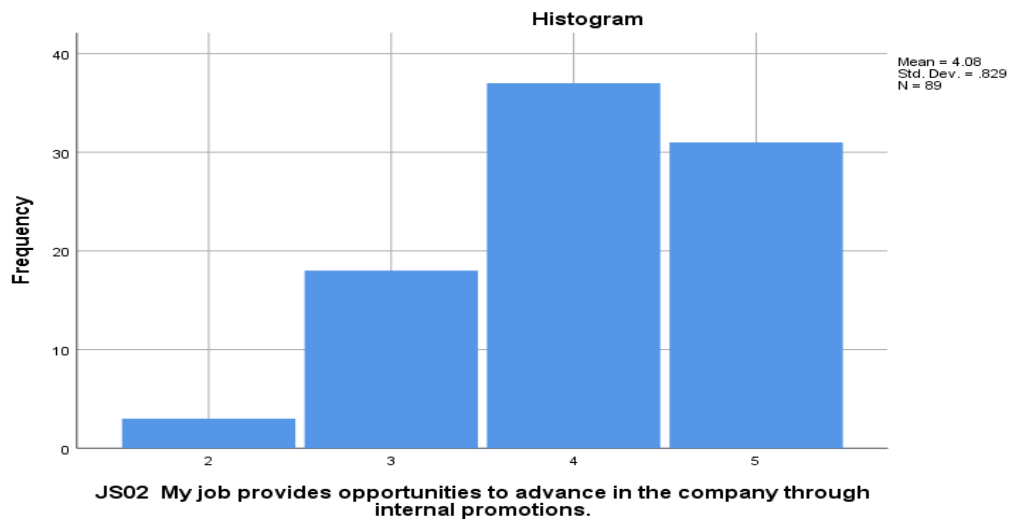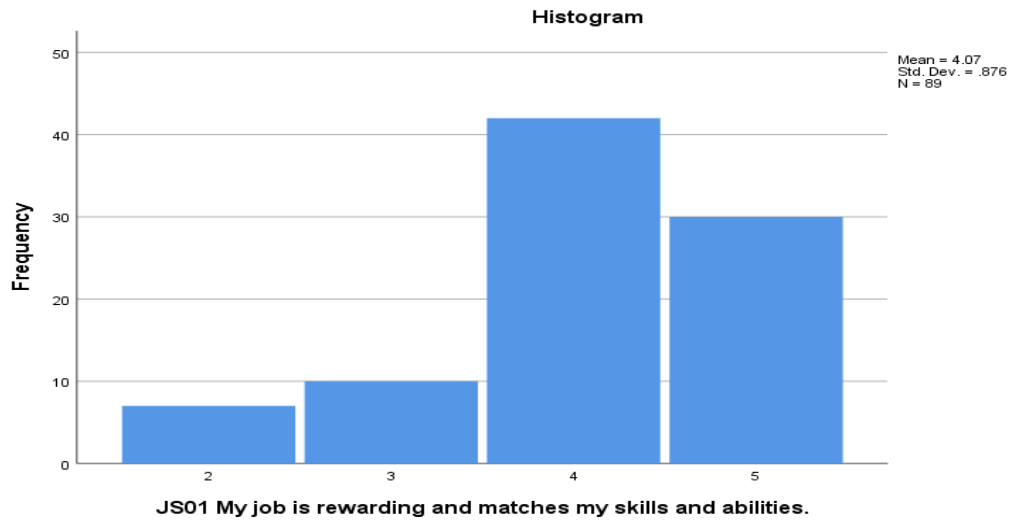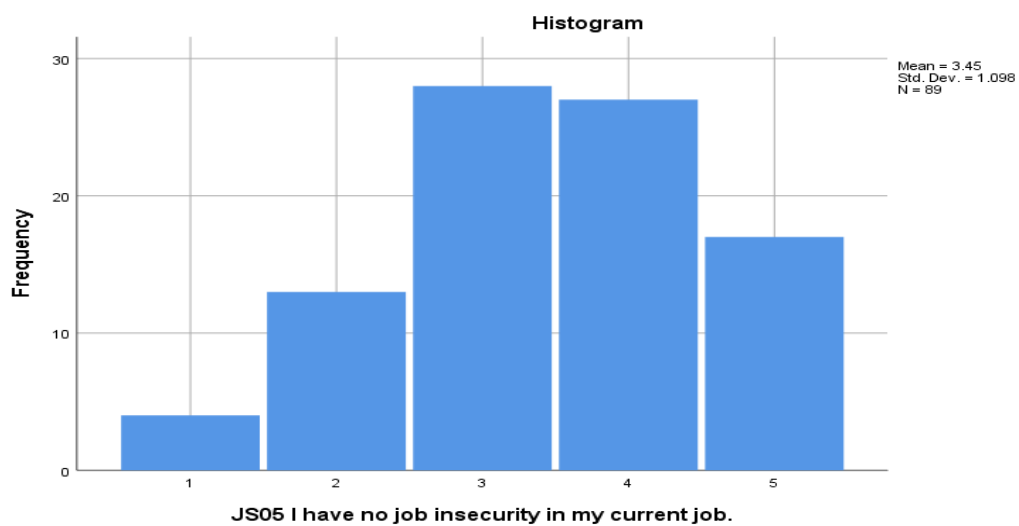| Construct	Item Code	Item Description
	JS01	My job is rewarding and matches my skills and abilities.
	JS02	My job provides opportunities to advance in the company through internal promotions.
	JS03	My current job offers training and development opportunities so that I can advance in my job.
	JS04	My current job provides a safe and healthy environment.
	JS05	I have no job insecurity in my current job.
	JS06	My current job allows me to lead a balanced life.
	JS07	My current job provides good rewards and benefits, like health and life insurance.
Job satisfaction	JS08	My current job allows me to control my destiny and be influential.
	JS09	I experience more job satisfaction because of the WIL exposure.
	JS10	I receive the recognition I deserve in my current job.
	JS11R	Many of the rules and procedures within my current work environment, makes it difficult to do a good job.
	JS12	I like the people I work with.
	JS13R	I feel my job is meaningless.
	JS14R	I am not satisfied with the payment I receive in my current job.
	JS15R	The goal of the organisation are not clear to me.
	JS16R	I have too much to do at work.
	JS17	I feel a sense of pride in doing my job.
	MOT01	WIL participation contributed towards my learning experience.
	MOT02	Because of WIL participation I was better able to fit into my job.
	MOT03	Because of WIL participation I have a better sense of achievement in my job.
Motivation	MOT04	Because of WIL participation I have a better sense of career advancement.
	MOT05	Because of WIL participation I have a better sense of how to grow both personally and professionally.
	MOT06	Because of WIL participation I have a better understanding of how to achieve recognition in my current job.
	WIL01	WIL participation enabled me to understand work expectations.

WIL participation	WIL02	WIL participation instilled better work ethics in me.
	WIL03	WIL participation enabled me to be more professional in performing my job.
	WIL04	WIL participation enabled me to better manage my time.
	WIL05	Because of WIL participation I am more reliable and punctual in my job.
	WIL06	WIL participation instilled a positive attitude in me towards my job.
	WIL07	I am better with teamwork due to WIL participation.
	WIL08	WIL participation enhanced my communication skills.
	WIL09	WIL participation enhanced my interpersonal skills.

Appendix D

Histograms

Histogram

Mean = 4.07
Std. Dev. = .876
N = 89

JS01 My job is rewarding and matches my skills and abilities.

Histogram

Mean = 4.08
Std. Dev. = .829
N = 89

JS02 My job provides opportunities to advance in the company through internal promotions.

Histogram

Mean = 4.1
Std. Dev. = .88
N = 89

**JS03 My current job offers training and development opportunities so that
I can advance in my job.**

Histogram

Mean = 4.26
Std. Dev. = .886
N = 89

JS04 My current job provides a safe and healthy environment.

Histogram

Mean = 3.45
Std. Dev. = 1.098
N = 89

JS05 I have no job insecurity in my current job.

114

Histogram

Mean = 3.51
Std. Dev. = 1.001
N = 89

JS06 My current job allows me to lead a balanced life.

Histogram

Mean = 3.16
Std. Dev. = 1.339
N = 89

JS07 My current job provides good rewards and benefits, like health and life insurance.

Histogram

Mean = 3.74
Std. Dev. = .86
N = 89

JS08 My current job allows me to control my destiny and be influential.

Histogram

Mean = 3.78
Std. Dev. = 1.063
N = 89

JS09 I experience more job satisfaction because of the WIL exposure.

Histogram

Mean = 3.76
Std. Dev. = .892
N = 89

JS10 I receive the recognition I deserve in my current job.

Histogram

Mean = 3.56
Std. Dev. = .941
N = 89

JS11R Many of the rules and procedures within my current work environment, makes it difficult to do a good job.

Histogram

Mean = 4
Std. Dev. = .798
N = 89

JS12 I like the people I work with.

Histogram

Mean = 4.35
Std. Dev. = .785
N = 89

JS13R I feel my job is meaningless.

Histogram

Mean = 3.21
Std. Dev. = 1.22
N = 89

JS14R I am not satisfied with the payment I receive in my current job.

Histogram

Mean = 4.07
Std. Dev. = .915
N = 89

JS15R The goal of the organisation are not clear to me.

Histogram

Mean = 3.17
Std. Dev. = 1.036
N = 89

JS16R I have too much to do at work.

Histogram

Mean = 4.18
Std. Dev. = .936
N = 89

JS17 I feel a sense of pride in doing my job.

Histogram

Mean = 4.37
Std. Dev. = .789
N = 89

MOT01 WIL participation contributed towards my learning experience.

Histogram

Mean = 4.33
Std. Dev. = .719
N = 89

MOT02 Because of WIL participation I was better able to fit into my job.

Histogram

Mean = 4.06
Std. Dev. = .789
N = 89

MOT03 Because of WIL participation I have a better sense of achievement in my job.

119

Histogram

Mean = 4.1
Std. Dev. = .784
N = 89

MOT04 Because of WIL participation I have a better sense of career advancement.

Histogram

Mean = 4.2
Std. Dev. = .786
N = 89

MOT05 Because of WIL participation I have a better sense of how to grow both personally and professionally.

Histogram

Mean = 3.99
Std. Dev. = 1.006
N = 89

MOT06 Because of WIL participation I have a better understanding of how to achieve recognition in my current job.

Histogram

Mean = 4.42
Std. Dev. = .902
N = 89

WIL01 WIL participation enabled me to understand work expectations.

Histogram

Mean = 4.28
Std. Dev. = .839
N = 89

WIL02 WIL participation instilled better work ethics in me.

Histogram

Mean = 4.4
Std. Dev. = .822
N = 89

WIL03 WIL participation enabled me to be more professional in performing my job.

121

Histogram

Mean = 4.12
Std. Dev. = .902
N = 89

WIL04 WIL participation enabled me to better manage my time.

Histogram

Mean = 4.04
Std. Dev. = 1.107
N = 89

WIL05 Because of WIL participation I am more reliable and punctual in my job.

Histogram

Mean = 4.13
Std. Dev. = .932
N = 89

WIL06 WIL participation instilled a positive attitude in me towards my job.

122

Histogram

Mean = 3.99
Std. Dev. = .923
N = 89

WIL07 I am better with teamwork due to WIL participation.

Histogram

Mean = 4.28
Std. Dev. = .783
N = 89

WIL08 WIL participation enhanced my communication skills.

Histogram

Mean = 4.31
Std. Dev. = .667
N = 89

WIL09 WIL participation enhanced my interpersonal skills.

Appendix E

Detailed Descriptive Statistics

			Statistic	Std. Error
JS01 My job is rewarding and matches my skills and abilities.	Mean		4.07	0.093
	95% Confidence Interval for Mean	Lower Bound	3.88	
		Upper Bound	4.25	
	5% Trimmed Mean		4.13	
	Median		4.00	
	Variance		0.768	
	Std. Deviation		0.876	
	Minimum		2	
	Maximum		5	
	Range		3	
	Interquartile Range		1	
	Skewness		-0.858	0.255
	Kurtosis		0.267	0.506
JS02 My job provides opportunities to advance in the company through internal promotions.	Mean		4.08	0.088
	95% Confidence Interval for Mean	Lower Bound	3.90	
		Upper Bound	4.25	
	5% Trimmed Mean		4.12	
	Median		4.00	
	Variance		0.687	
	Std. Deviation		0.829	
	Minimum		2	
	Maximum		5	
	Range		3	
	Interquartile Range		1	
	Skewness		-0.517	0.255
	Kurtosis		-0.457	0.506
JS03 My current job offers training and development opportunities so that I can advance in my job.	Mean		4.10	0.093
	95% Confidence Interval for Mean	Lower Bound	3.92	
		Upper Bound	4.29	
	5% Trimmed Mean		4.16	
	Median		4.00	
	Variance		0.774	
	Std. Deviation		0.880	
	Minimum		1	
	Maximum		5	
	Range		4	
	Interquartile Range		1	
	Skewness		-0.816	0.255
	Kurtosis		0.555	0.506

JS04 My current job provides a safe and healthy environment.	Mean		4.26	0.094
	95% Confidence Interval for Mean	Lower Bound	4.07	
		Upper Bound	4.45	
	5% Trimmed Mean		4.36	
	Median		4.00	
	Variance		0.785	
	Std. Deviation		0.886	
	Minimum		1	
	Maximum		5	
	Range		4	
	Interquartile Range		1	
	Skewness		-1.540	0.255
	Kurtosis		3.021	0.506
JS05 I have no job insecurity in my current job.	Mean		3.45	0.116
	95% Confidence Interval for Mean	Lower Bound	3.22	
		Upper Bound	3.68	
	5% Trimmed Mean		3.49	
	Median		3.00	
	Variance		1.205	
	Std. Deviation		1.098	
	Minimum		1	
	Maximum		5	
	Range		4	
	Interquartile Range		1	
	Skewness		-0.290	0.255
	Kurtosis		-0.563	0.506
JS06 My current job allows me to lead a balanced life.	Mean		3.51	0.106
	95% Confidence Interval for Mean	Lower Bound	3.29	
		Upper Bound	3.72	
	5% Trimmed Mean		3.54	
	Median		3.00	
	Variance		1.003	
	Std. Deviation		1.001	
	Minimum		1	
	Maximum		5	
	Range		4	
	Interquartile Range		1	
	Skewness		-0.259	0.255
	Kurtosis		-0.165	0.506
JS07 My current job provides good rewards and benefits, like health and life insurance.	Mean		3.16	0.142
	95% Confidence Interval for Mean	Lower Bound	2.88	
		Upper Bound	3.44	
	5% Trimmed Mean		3.17	
	Median		3.00	
	Variance		1.793	
	Std. Deviation		1.339	
	Minimum		1	
	Maximum		5	
	Range		4	
	Interquartile Range		2	
	Skewness		-0.033	0.255

	Kurtosis		-1.256	0.506
JS08 My current job allows me to control my destiny and be influential.	Mean		3.74	0.091
	95% Confidence Interval for Mean	Lower Bound	3.56	
		Upper Bound	3.92	
	5% Trimmed Mean		3.77	
	Median		4.00	
	Variance		0.739	
	Std. Deviation		0.860	
	Minimum		2	
	Maximum		5	
	Range		3	
	Interquartile Range		1	
	Skewness		-0.458	0.255
	Kurtosis		-0.286	0.506
JS09 I experience more job satisfaction because of the WIL exposure.	Mean		3.78	0.113
	95% Confidence Interval for Mean	Lower Bound	3.55	
		Upper Bound	4.00	
	5% Trimmed Mean		3.83	
	Median		4.00	
	Variance		1.131	
	Std. Deviation		1.063	
	Minimum		1	
	Maximum		5	
	Range		4	
	Interquartile Range		2	
	Skewness		-0.463	0.255
	Kurtosis		-0.531	0.506
JS10 I receive the recognition I deserve in my current job.	Mean		3.76	0.095
	95% Confidence Interval for Mean	Lower Bound	3.58	
		Upper Bound	3.95	
	5% Trimmed Mean		3.79	
	Median		4.00	
	Variance		0.796	
	Std. Deviation		0.892	
	Minimum		2	
	Maximum		5	
	Range		3	
	Interquartile Range		1	
	Skewness		-0.593	0.255
	Kurtosis		-0.242	0.506
JS11R Many of the rules and procedures within my current work environment, makes it difficult to do a good job.	Mean		3.56	0.100
	95% Confidence Interval for Mean	Lower Bound	3.36	
		Upper Bound	3.76	
	5% Trimmed Mean		3.62	
	Median		4.00	
	Variance		0.885	
	Std. Deviation		0.941	
	Minimum		1	
	Maximum		5	
	Range		4	
	Interquartile Range		1	

	Skewness		-1.104	0.255
	Kurtosis		0.920	0.506
JS12 I like the people I work with.	Mean		4.00	0.085
	95% Confidence Interval for Mean	Lower Bound	3.83	
		Upper Bound	4.17	
	5% Trimmed Mean		4.05	
	Median		4.00	
	Variance		0.636	
	Std. Deviation		0.798	
	Minimum		1	
	Maximum		5	
	Range		4	
	Interquartile Range		1	
	Skewness		-0.824	0.255
	Kurtosis		1.461	0.506
JS13R I feel my job is meaningless.	Mean		4.35	0.083
	95% Confidence Interval for Mean	Lower Bound	4.18	
		Upper Bound	4.51	
	5% Trimmed Mean		4.42	
	Median		5.00	
	Variance		0.616	
	Std. Deviation		0.785	
	Minimum		2	
	Maximum		5	
	Range		3	
	Interquartile Range		1	
	Skewness		-1.140	0.255
	Kurtosis		0.944	0.506
JS14R I am not satisfied with the payment I receive in my current job.	Mean		3.21	0.129
	95% Confidence Interval for Mean	Lower Bound	2.96	
		Upper Bound	3.47	
	5% Trimmed Mean		3.24	
	Median		3.00	
	Variance		1.488	
	Std. Deviation		1.220	
	Minimum		1	
	Maximum		5	
	Range		4	
	Interquartile Range		2	
	Skewness		-0.190	0.255
	Kurtosis		-0.839	0.506
JS15R The goal of the organisation are not clear to me.	Mean		4.07	0.097
	95% Confidence Interval for Mean	Lower Bound	3.87	
		Upper Bound	4.26	
	5% Trimmed Mean		4.14	
	Median		4.00	
	Variance		0.836	
	Std. Deviation		0.915	
	Minimum		1	
	Maximum		5	
	Range		4	

	Interquartile Range		1	
	Skewness		-1.047	0.255
	Kurtosis		0.975	0.506
JS16R I have too much to do at work.	Mean		3.17	0.110
	95% Confidence Interval for Mean	Lower Bound	2.95	
		Upper Bound	3.39	
	5% Trimmed Mean		3.19	
	Median		3.00	
	Variance		1.074	
	Std. Deviation		1.036	
	Minimum		1	
	Maximum		5	
	Range		4	
	Interquartile Range		2	
	Skewness		-0.284	0.255
	Kurtosis		-0.412	0.506
JS17 I feel a sense of pride in doing my job.	Mean		4.18	0.099
	95% Confidence Interval for Mean	Lower Bound	3.98	
		Upper Bound	4.38	
	5% Trimmed Mean		4.29	
	Median		4.00	
	Variance		0.876	
	Std. Deviation		0.936	
	Minimum		1	
	Maximum		5	
	Range		4	
	Interquartile Range		1	
	Skewness		-1.560	0.255
	Kurtosis		2.979	0.506
MOT01 WIL participation contributed towards my learning experience.	Mean		4.37	0.084
	95% Confidence Interval for Mean	Lower Bound	4.20	
		Upper Bound	4.54	
	5% Trimmed Mean		4.47	
	Median		4.00	
	Variance		0.622	
	Std. Deviation		0.789	
	Minimum		1	
	Maximum		5	
	Range		4	
	Interquartile Range		1	
	Skewness		-1.763	0.255
	Kurtosis		4.389	0.506