



**THE EFFECTIVENESS OF STAFF TRAINING ON KNOWLEDGE TRANSFER AND  
EMPLOYEE RETENTION: A CASE STUDY OF SERVCOR PRIVATE LIMITED IN  
ZIMBABWE**

By

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## **ABSTRACT**

The purpose of this study was to investigate the effectiveness of staff training on knowledge transfer and employee retention at Servcor Private Limited. Due to increasing levels of competition in staff training and growth opportunities in the Hospitality and Catering industry, Servcor Private Limited faced challenges in retaining its employees, as well as in ways of transferring knowledge. Employees at Servcor Private Limited in Zimbabwe were leaving in pursuit of world-class training and the opportunity for professional development offered in competing organizations, both within and outside the Hospitality and Catering industry. For this study, the target population equated to 240 employees and a sample size of  $n = 120$  was considered as appropriate. The sample was selected by picking every odd number from the sample frame utilizing a systematic sampling technique under the ambit of probability sampling method. The data was analysed using the latest computerised Statistical Package for the Social Sciences 24.0 and the personal method was used to administer the questionnaire to all 120 respondents. Two questionnaires were discarded because the majority of questions were not answered and hence resulted in 118 responses. Therefore, a response rate of 98.3% was obtained.

After the study was completed, the researcher solicited the services of a Post-graduate Librarian to run the TURNITIN Program to test the entire thesis for plagiarism which recorded 10%. The non-parametric tests were carried out to test hypotheses utilising the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) version 24 for Windows. The Pearson's Chi-square and Spearman correlation tests were conducted for all fifteen formulated hypotheses to determine whether there was a statistically significant relationship between the variables. The key findings revealed that staff training was insufficient in the organisation and was not coping with constant changes in the surrounding. The findings indicated that respondents felt their superiors were not willing to teach them every aspect of their work. The findings also reflected that employees prefer on-the-job training. The researcher recommended that top management should increase the amount of investment on staff training in order to retain employees. The recommendations highlighted that should ensure that all the equipment and tools that are used for staff training are aligned with prevailing technology. The recommendations also highlighted that top management should promote a culture of knowledge transfer. The study concluded with suggestions for future research in this field.

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My sincere gratitude is accorded to my family and friends: Mum, Edmore, Zaphania, Aleck, Peresia, Naome, Tatenda, Sheila, Emma, Kestina and Luckson.

## **DECLARATION**

I hereby declare that this dissertation submitted for the degree in Management Sciences: Human Resources Management in the Department of Human Resources Management is my own original work and has not previously been submitted to any other institution of higher education. I further declare that all sources cited or quoted are indicated and acknowledged in the comprehensive bibliography.

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**Reward Utete**

## TABLE OF CONTENTS

	PAGE
Cover page	i
Abstract	ii
Acknowledgements	ii
Declaration	iv
Table of contents	v
List of tables	xi
List of figures	xii
Appendices	xiii
Bibliography	135

## CHAPTER 1

### OVERVIEW OF THE STUDY

1.1	Introduction	1
1.2	The Problem Statement	2
1.3	Definition of Key Concepts	3
1.4	Aim of the Study	4
1.5	Objectives of the Study	4
1.6	Research Questions	5
1.7	Hypothesis	5
1.8	Rationale	7
1.9	Scope of the Study	7
1.10	Literature Review	7
	1.10.1 The Impact of Staff Training on Employee Retention	8
	1.10.2 The Effectiveness of Staff Training on Knowledge Transfer	10
	1.10.3 Institutionalising Knowledge Transfer Practices in order to retain employees	13
	1.10.3.1 Systems of Knowledge Transfer	15
	1.10.4 The extent to which employees are satisfied with Staff Training	16
	1.10.4.1 Categories of Staff Training within the Organisation	17

1.10.5 Types of Staff Training for Employee Retention	18
1.11 Research Methodology and Design	19
1.11.1 Secondary Data	20
1.11.2 Primary Data	20
1.11.3 Research Design	20
1.11.4 The case study approach	21
1.11.5 Target Population	21
1.11.6 Sampling Method	21
1.11.7 Selection of the Sample	22
1.12 Pilot Study	22
1.13 Validity and Reliability	22
1.14 Pre-testing	23
1.15 Data Collection Method	23
1.16 Analysis of Data	23
1.17 Ethical Considerations	23
1.18 Structure of the Dissertation	24
1.19 Limitations	24
1.20 Conclusion	25

## **CHAPTER 2**

### **LITERATURE REVIEW**

2.1 Introduction	26
2.2 Staff Training	27
2.2.1 Factors Influencing Staff Training in the Hospitality and Catering Industry	29
2.2.1.1 Impact of Technology	29
2.2.1.2 Impact of Employee Fit	30
2.2.1.3 Demand for Multi-skilling	31
2.2.2 Types of Staff Training	31
2.2.2.1 On-the-job Training Methods	32
2.2.2.1.1 Role of Mentoring	33
2.2.2.1.2 Role of Coaching	34

2.2.2.1.3	Role of Job Rotation	35
2.2.2.1.4	Role of an Understudy	36
2.2.2.1.5	Role of Simulations	36
2.2.2.2	Off-the-job Training Methods	37
2.2.2.2.1	Role of Seminars and Workshops	37
2.2.2.2.2	Role of Lectures	37
2.2.3	Staff Training Strategies and Process	38
2.3	Knowledge Transfer	40
2.3.1	The Significance of Knowledge Transfer	41
2.3.2	Types of Knowledge	42
2.3.2.1	Explicit Knowledge	43
2.3.2.2	Tacit Knowledge	45
2.3.3	Knowledge Conversion for Knowledge Transfer	46
2.3.3.1	Socialisation as a means of Knowledge Conversion	47
2.3.3.2	Externalisation as a means of Knowledge Conversion	48
2.3.3.3	Combination as a means of Knowledge Conversion	48
2.3.3.4	Internalisation as a means of Knowledge Conversion	48
2.3.3	Challenges to Knowledge Transfer	49
2.3.3.1	Knowledge Hoarding as a Challenge to Knowledge Transfer	50
2.3.3.2	Lack of Social Relations as a Challenge to Knowledge Transfer	50
2.3.3.3	Lack of an Opportunity to Practice as a Challenge to Knowledge Transfer	51
2.3.4	Encouraging Knowledge Transfer	52
2.3.4.1	Incentive Schemes to encourage effective Knowledge Transfer	52
2.3.4.2	Minimal Distance to encourage effective Knowledge Transfer	53
2.3.4.3	Removal of Punishment for Mistakes to encourage Knowledge Transfer	54
2.3.4.4	Use of Actions Plans to encourage effective Knowledge Transfer	54

2.3.4.5	Interpersonal Relations to encourage Effective Knowledge Transfer	55
2.3.5	Knowledge Transfer Process	56
2.3.6	Types of Knowledge Transfer	58
2.3.6.1	Serial Transfer of Knowledge	58
2.3.6.2	Near Transfer of Knowledge	59
2.3.6.3	Far Transfer of Knowledge	59
2.3.6.4	Strategic Transfer of Knowledge	60
2.3.7	Institutionalising Knowledge Transfer	60
2.3.7.1	Promotion of the Institutionalization of Knowledge Transfer	61
2.3.7.2	Learning for the Institutionalization of Knowledge transfer	62
2.4	Employee Retention	64
2.4.1	Employee Retention in the context of Employee Embeddedness	65
2.4.2	Poor Employee Retention Categories	66
2.4.2.1	Voluntary turnover of Employees in Organisation	67
2.4.2.2	The Cost of Poor Employee Retention	68
2.5	Staff Training and Employee Retention	69
2.5.1	Staff Training encourages Employee Retention	69
2.5.1.1	Loyalty as a result of Staff Training	68
2.5.1.2	Satisfaction of Employees as a result of Staff Training	69
2.5.2	Staff Training discourages Employee Retention	72
2.5.3	Principles of Staff Training for Employee Retention	73
2.5.3.1	Providing Training Opportunities to increase Employee Retention	74
2.5.3.2	Job Specific Training to reduce Employee Mobility	74
2.5.3.3	Staff Training and its Impact on Tenure and Employee Retention	75
2.5.3.4	Training Supervisors and Managers may Increase Employee Retention at all levels	75
2.5.4	Social Exchange Theory and its Relationship with Staff Training and Employee Retention	75
2.6	Employee Retention and Knowledge Transfer	76



2.6.1	Tacit Knowledge and Explicit Knowledge as a result of Knowledge Transfer	77
2.62	Absorption and Usage of Knowledge ensures Knowledge Transfer	76
2.7	Staff Training, Employee Retention and Knowledge Transfer	78
2.8	Conclusion	80

## **CHAPTER 3**

### **RESEARCH METHODOLOGY AND DESIGN**

3.1	Introduction	81
3.2	Principles of Research Design	81
3.3	Research Design	82
3.4	The Case study approach	83
3.5	Quantitative Research	83
3.6	Primary Research	84
3.7	Secondary Research	84
3.8	Target Population	84
3.9	Sampling Techniques	84
3.9.1	Probability Sampling Techniques	85
3.9.2	Non-Probability Sampling Techniques	85
3.10	Selection of the Sample	86
3.11	Questionnaire Construction	87
3.12	Characteristics of Good Questionnaires	87
3.13	Pilot Test	87
3.14	Validity and Reliability Construct	88
3.14.1	Validity Construct	88
3.14.2	Reliability Construct	89
3.15	Data Collection Methods	89
3.16	Hypothesis Test	90
3.17	Ethical Considerations	91
3.18	Analysis of Data	92

3.19	Conclusion	93
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## **CHAPTER 4**

### **ANALYSIS OF DATA AND DISCUSSION OF THE FINDINGS**

4.1	Introduction	94
4.1.1	Descriptive Analysis of the Results	94
4.2	Reliability Testing	95
4.3	Section A: Analysis of the Demographic Data	96
4.4	Section B: Respondents' perceptions of the effectiveness of Staff Training on Knowledge Transfer and Employee Retention	101
4.5	Statistical Analysis	111
4.5.1	Hypothesis Testing	112
4.6	Limitations of the study	127
4.7	Conclusions	127

## **CHAPTER 5**

### **CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS**

5.1	Introduction	128
5.2	Conclusion	128
5.3	Recommendations	129
5.4	Directions for Future Research	134

## LIST OF TABLES

Table 2.1	Tacit Knowledge and Explicit Knowledge characteristics	40
Table 2.2	Organisational Learning Framework	61
Table 4.1	Reliability of the items in the measuring instrument	
Table 4.2	Cross-tabulation of Age and Years of Service	98
Table 4.3	Cross-tabulation of Age and Qualification	100
Table 4.4	Frequencies of Statements Relating to the Impact of Staff Training on Employee Retention	102
Table 4.5	Frequencies of Statements Relating to the Impact of Training on Knowledge Transfer	105
Table 4.6	Frequencies of Statements Relating to the Types of Staff Training for Employee Retention	108
Table 4.7	Staff Training and Employee Retention	110
Table 4.8	Staff Training and Knowledge Transfer	111
Table 4.9	Knowledge Transfer and Employee Retention	112
Table 4.10	On-the-job Training and Employee Retention	113
Table 4.11	Off-the-job Training and Employee Retention	114
Table 4.12	Coaching and Employee Retention	115
Table 4.13	Coaching and Employee Transfer	116
Table 4.14	Mentoring and Knowledge Transfer	117
Table 4.15	General Staff Training and Thoughts of Quitting	118
Table 4.16	Training Needs Identification and Feeling Adequately Skilled	119
Table 4.17	General Staff Training and Feeling Left Behind	120
Table 4.18	Provision of Resources for Development and Loyalty to Work	121
Table 4.19	Technologically aligned Staff Training and Satisfaction of Employees	122
Table 4.20	Consideration of External Environment when providing Staff Training and Sharing Relevant Information	123
Table 4.21	Hurdles to sharing Knowledge amongst employees and the way Management disseminates information	124

## LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 1.1	Conceptual Framework	6
Figure 2.1	Learning forms	25
Figure 2.2	The Training Cycle	35
Figure 2.3	The Conduit Model of Knowledge Transfer	41
Figure 2.4	Model of Knowledge Conversion	44
Figure 2.5	Voluntary Turnover Classification Scheme	64
Figure 4.1	Gender of Respondents	94
Figure 4.2	Age of Respondents	95
Figure 4.3	Length of Service of Respondents	96
Figure 4.4	Race of Respondents	97
Figure 4.5	Qualifications of Respondents	99
Figure 4.6	Frequencies of Statements Relating to the Impact of Staff Training on Employee Retention	101
Figure 4.7	Frequencies of Statements Relating to the Effectiveness of Staff Training on Knowledge Transfer	104
Figure 4.8	Frequencies of Statements Relating to the Types of Staff Training for Employee Retention	107

## **LIST OF APPENDICES**

Annexure A	Covering letter
Annexure B	Questionnaire
Annexure C	Letter of informed consent
Annexure D	Letter of approval
Annexure E	Editor's letter

# **CHAPTER 1**

## **BACKGROUND AND OVERVIEW OF THE STUDY**

### **1.1 INTRODUCTION**

Servcor Private Limited is a premier food company operating in the Hospitality and Catering industry. It has over 34 years experience in the Hospitality and Catering industry. The company has 240 employees and 30 senior managers. Servcor Private Limited has 5 customer-focused divisions, all operating under Servcor Private Limited. Each division focuses on its core competences, which align to the Professional Catering Solutions that the company provides. The divisions of Servcor Private Limited include the Executive division, Happy-Eater division, Schools division, Mine division and Milling division. Each of these divisions provide professional catering to customers such as the supply of traditional food boxes, conferences, corporate events, special events, snacks, western meals, weddings and banquets throughout Zimbabwe (Servcor Private Limited, 2013:1).

Dauti (2015:141) states that staff training is of paramount importance to companies seeking to gain an advantage amongst competitors. Nivethitha, Dyaram and Kamalanabhan (2014:35) affirm that the modern day Hospitality and Catering industry functions in a strongly competitive arena. According to Sasmita and Kalyani (2014:94), this has been witnessed by rapid competition growth for employees at different workplaces. In response to this growth, Peng, Moffett and McAdam (2010:158) state that organisations are attempting to adapt to a new paradigm shift in which knowledge can be transferred and employees be retained. Contemporary, Hospitality and Catering organisations are knowledge-based. Therefore, Zvobgo and Chivivi (2014:68) state that the ability to learn and change faster than the competitor enhances employees to stay. Ahmad (2011:240) states that any organisation devoid of staff training is bound to fail because it will lose its employees to rivals that lure them with technologically-aligned staff training. In the current competitive environment, Khawaja (2013:51) points out that the types and forms of staff training have been radically transformed. To cope with those changes, Yang (2010:20)

emphasises that the up-to-date training of employees is what can be used to develop the new knowledge and retain talented staff.

The most recent trends involve stiff competition for employees amongst organisations Wushe, Shenje and Ndlovu (2014:185). Choi and Dickson (2009:109) state that the competition lies in the intensified recognition of the importance of knowledge and amplified voluntary resignation of employees that possess valued knowledge, since they are headhunted by other companies. The narrow high skill base that exists in the Hospitality and Catering industry is being reduced at a very fast rate by the outflow of employees to other competing industries (Ayupp and Chung, 2010:351). Joia and Lemos (2010:410) postulate that the tacit knowledge that these employees possess is irreplaceable as well as invaluable. Lamb and Sutherland (2010:295) refer to these employees as golden-workers. Apparently, if these golden-workers exit the company, they leave with critical experience, knowledge and skills built up on the job over long periods of time (Nivethitha, Dyaram and Kamalanabhan, 2014:35).

Subsequently, Nnenna and Wilfred (2013:571) assert that the exiting of employees causes a loss of resources which are unaffordable to organisation in this prevailing epoch of global competition and economic downturn. Choi and Dickson (2009:103) highlight that an organisation's success chiefly rests on the experience and qualifications of employees. The new era of the knowledge economy needs the brains of employees in place of muscular employees in order to enhance organisational success (Wushe *et al.* 2014:185). In this regard, Ajay and Amitava (2015:168) declare that a suitable and critical initial point for addressing the issue of socio-economic and political development is correcting problems within companies. By inference, Baruah and Das (2013:9) reinforce the view that that it is important to prioritise the retention of employees in order to contain the cost of attrition.

## **1.2 PROBLEM STATEMENT**

Currently, workforce challenges are predominant in the Zimbabwean Hospitality and Catering industry (Wushe *et al.* 2014:185). Mapelu and Jumah (2013:43) report that the Hospitality and Catering sector has become susceptible to losing qualified employees due to headhunting by organisations in other sectors. Bagri, Babu and

Kukreti (2010:286) concur with Mapelu *et al.* (2013:43) and caution that competition for qualified employees is also found amongst organisations in the Hospitality and Catering sector. Due to the high levels of competition of staff training and growth opportunities in the Hospitality and Catering industry, Servcor Private Limited faces challenges in retaining its employees (Servcor Private Limited, 2013:3). Employees at Servcor Private Limited in Zimbabwe are leaving in pursuit of world-class training and the opportunity for professional development offered in competing organisations, both within and outside the Hospitality and Catering industry (Servcor Private Limited in Zimbabwe, 2013:4). The quitting of jobs is attributed to the lack of staff training by Servcor Private Limited, as well as inadequate ways of transferring the knowledge at the workplace (Servcor Private Limited, 2014:12).

Due to technological advancement and innovative capabilities in the environment, employees feel their skills are becoming irrelevant because of obsolescence. Therefore, they leave for organisations that upgrade their skills (Chan and Kuok, 2011:421). According to Choi and Dickson (2009:103), whatever staff training is obtained at the start, will become redundant with the passage of time. Baruah *et al.* (2013:9) highlight that employees require staff training to be a continuous process rather than a once-off activity. Failure to do so will result in employees leaving the organisation (Nnenna *et al.* 2013:571). Consequently, those who left the organisation take their tacit knowledge with them, resulting in knowledge transfer disintegration at Servcor Private Limited (Mahapa, 2013:76). Thus, this study seeks to investigate the effectiveness of staff training on knowledge transfer and employee retention at Servcor Private Limited in Zimbabwe.

### **1.3 DEFINITIONS OF KEY CONCEPTS**

#### **1.3.1 Staff Training**

According to Coetzee, Botha, Kiley and Truman (2009:48), staff training is referred to as a systematic course of action to transform the knowledge and behaviour of employees to accomplish organisational goals.



### **1.3.2 Knowledge Transfer**

Malefetjane (2011:27) states that “knowledge transfer is an area of knowledge management concerned with the movement of knowledge across the boundaries created by specialized knowledge domains”.

### **1.3.3 Employee Retention**

Jepngetich and Njue (2013:652) refer to employee retention as a move that is voluntarily undertaken by the organisation to create a conducive surrounding in order to lure employees to stay for a long time.

## **1.4 AIM OF THE STUDY**

The main aim of the study is to investigate the effectiveness of staff training on knowledge transfer and employee retention at Servcor Private Limited, operating in the Hospitality and Catering industry. The study seeks to explore how best staff training can reduce attrition rates and retain talented employees at Servcor Private Limited in Zimbabwe.

## **1.5 OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY**

The objectives of the study are the following:

- To determine the impact of staff training on employee retention at Servcor Private Limited.
- To examine the degree to which employees are satisfied with current staff training at Servcor Private Limited.
- To examine the effectiveness of staff training on knowledge transfer to employees at Servcor Private Limited.

- To show how Servcor Private Limited can institutionalise knowledge transfer practices in order to retain its employees.
- To explore types of staff training that can be put in place to address the potential loss of employees to other organisations.

## **1.6 RESEARCH QUESTIONS**

The research questions for the study are:

- How does staff training impact on employee retention at Servcor Private Limited?
- To what extents are the employees at Servcor Private Limited satisfied with current institutional staff training?
- How can Servcor Private Limited institutionalise knowledge transfer practices in order to retain its workforce?
- What are the types of staff training that Servcor Private Limited can put in place to address the potential loss of employees?
- How effective are the types of staff training at Servcor Private Limited in transferring knowledge to the work environment?

## **1.4 HYPOTHESES**

A hypothesis test is carried out to investigate statistically whether a claim is justified or not (Wilson, 2010:237). Hypotheses focus on the correlations between two variables, as well as the phenomenon causes under research (Best, 2012:5). The statements of the hypotheses for the problem being researched are as follows:

- Hypothesis 1: There is a significant relationship between staff training and employee retention at Servcor Private Limited.
- Hypothesis 2: There is a significant correlation between staff training and knowledge transfer at Servcor Private Limited.
- Hypothesis 3: There is a significant association between knowledge transfer and employee retention at Servcor Private Limited.

- Hypothesis 4: There is a significant relationship between on-the-job training and employee retention at Servcor Private Limited.
- Hypothesis 5: There is a significant correlation between off-the-job training and employee retention at Servcor Private Limited.
- Hypothesis 6: There is a significant relationship between coaching and employee retention at Servcor Private Limited.
- Hypothesis 7: There is a significant association between coaching and knowledge transfer at Servcor Private Limited.
- Hypothesis 8: There is a significant relationship between mentoring and knowledge transfer at Servcor Private Limited.
- Hypothesis 9: There is a mutual correlation between general staff training and thoughts of quitting the job at Sevcor Private Limited.
- Hypothesis 10: There is a significant correlation between training needs identification and feeling adequately skilled at Servcor Private Limited.
- Hypothesis 11: There is a significant relationship between general training and feeling left behind at Servcor Private Limited.
- Hypotheses 12: There is a significant correlation relationship between the provision of resources for development and loyalty to work at Servcor Private Limited.
- Hypotheses 13: There is a significant relationship between technologically aligned staff training and satisfaction of employees at Servcor Private Limited.
- Hypothesis 14: There is a significant association between consideration of the external environment when providing staff training and sharing relevant information at Servcor Private Limited.

Hypothesis 15: There is a significant relationship between the existence of hurdles to share knowledge amongst employees and the way management disseminates information at Servcor Private Limited.

## **1.8 RATIONALE**

Given the concerns pertaining to staff training, knowledge transfer and employee retention, this study is intends to determine the relationship between these variables as well as to envisage the extent to which staff training influences knowledge transfer and employee retention. The study findings will contribute to the effectiveness of the organisation's staff training, hence improves its competitive edge. This study would be of great benefit to the organisation, employees and other researchers. The findings of this study will provide the platform for the organisation to become more effective by understanding the drivers that relate to knowledge transfer and employee retention. The findings from this study will also add value to the body of knowledge already available. More importantly, other researchers carrying out similiar research will be able to make comparisons of their results with this study's results, thereby increasing knowledge to this field of study.

## **1.9 SCOPE OF THE STUDY**

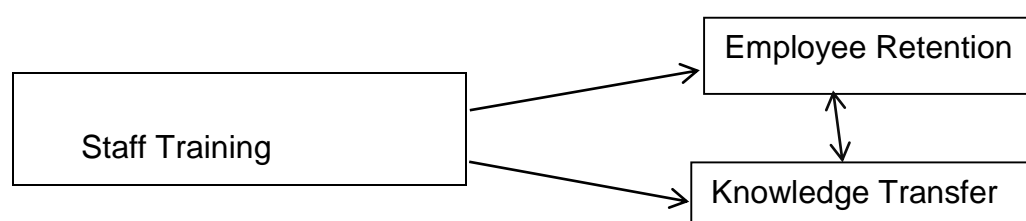
The study is confined to Servcor Private Limited, based in the Hospitality and Catering sector, located in the province of Harare in Zimbabwe. The study does not include other companies in Zimbabwe because situational factors differ.

## **1.10 LITERATURE REVIEW**

Khawaja (2013:51) states that the concept of staff training emerged in America in the 1970s. According to Amrik (2014:4), staff training is the enhancement of knowledge, skills, abilities and competencies of employees to perform their jobs. Erasmus, Loedoff, Mda and Nel (2010:2) further state that training is a practice of learning that enacts lasting conversion to an employee, thereby improving the capability to be productive in the organisation. Frash, Antun, Kline and Almanza (2010:398) explain

staff training as the process of raising the capacity of employee retention and knowledge transfer through self-development. According to Chan and Kuok (2011:421), employee retention refers to the organisation's voluntary movement to form an environment which engages employees for an exceptionally long time. Khan, Mahmood, Ayoub and Hussain (2011:8) attest that employee retention entails the stimulation of employees to stay in the organisation for their entire work-life or till the project ends. Baruah *et al.* (2013:9) state that since the 21<sup>st</sup> century, the issue of employee retention has been observed as critical in all disciplines in the Hospitality and Catering sector. Figure 1.1 below shows the conceptual framework proposed for this research study.

**Figure 1.1 Conceptual Framework**



**Source:** Mudor and Tookson (2011:41). Adapted.

In reference to Figure 1.1 above, Mudor and Tookson (2011:41) state that staff training directly connects to knowledge transfer as knowledge related to skill-specific work can be transferred through systematic and frequent training. In the same vein, Adi, Allan and Richard (2010:604) confirm that the transference of knowledge to those employees that do not have the know-how of accelerating their motivation prompts them to stay longer in the organisation.

### **1.10.1 THE IMPACT OF STAFF TRAINING ON EMPLOYEE RETENTION**

Research into staff training conducted by Mapelu *et al.* (2013:46) in Kenya indicated the dependence relationship between the training of staff and the retention of employees in the Hospitality and Catering sector. Ajay *et al.* (2015:170) state that employee retention involves a logical effort by the organisation to build an environment that addresses different employee desires so that employees will stay

longer. Employee retention relates to the means employed by the organisation to sustain a friendly environment of work that stimulate existing employees to remain in the organisation. In a study conducted on retention, Joan (2012:18) revealed that respondents to the research (93%) indicated that training aroused them to remain in the company for a long time. According to Govaets *et al.* (2011:37), employees rarely leave the organisation as long as they feel that they are growing and learning.

Nnenna and Wilfred (2013:577) highlight that employees feel that carrying out a job while having inadequate expertise can degrade and humiliate them hence they leave since they feel uncomfortable to remain in the organisation. To curb such humiliation, Amrik (2014:5) states that robust investment in staff training is needed which makes employees feel esteemed, resulting in them becoming more motivated to work. According to Jepngetich *et al.* (2013:652), where staff training is conducted, employees feel encouraged and this increases labour retention. Staff training is an effective tool that helps organisations within the hospitality and catering industry to build more committed employees who can in turn lengthen their employment (Nivethitha, Dyaram and Kamalanabhan, 2014:35). According to Allen and Bryant (2013:71), staff training lessens stress and increases organisational commitment, which in turn improves staff retention. Werner *et al.* (2013:156) agree with Allen and Bryant (2013:71) and affirm that in a highly competitive environment, employees who are constantly equipped with current expertise tend to stay permanently within organisations.

Nivethitha *et al.* (2014:35) suggest that Hospitality and Catering organisations should offer training to all employees, as well as increasing the variety of training programmes. Nnenna *et al.* (2013:577) attest to the existence of the social exchange theory which focuses on employer-employee psychological contract where each party would lay down its expectations in terms of the receiving and giving to one another. According to Joan (2012: 44), the social exchange theory indicates the benefits of staff training to both the employer and employee. Staff training eases employee attrition rates through improving job satisfaction, organisational stability and instilling a foreseeable working environment (Chen, 2014:357).

However, Chen, Wen and Ying (2010:41) argue that some employees in the Hospitality and Catering sector tend to look around for certain job vacancies outside the organisation after benefiting from the company's extensive training programmes. Ayupp and Chung concur with Chen *et al.* (2010:41) who emphasise that there is a fear of losing considerable investment, particularly of time and money in employee development because skilled employees are often susceptible to leaving for lucrative jobs. Peng, Moffett and McAdam (2014:259) agree with Gao and Clarke (2008:3) who assert that top management fear that employees are likely to be poached by competing organisations once they gain a considerable expertise level.

Bagri, Babu and Kukreti (2010:286) highlight that employees in organisations expect to obtain broad training that makes them more competitive, superseding their counterparts employed in other corporates. Therefore, many employers see staff training as too risky on investment to combat employee attrition at the workplace because employees are extremely unreliable (Rothwell, 2010:143). Choi and Dickson (2009:103) postulate that employers do not provide their employees with staff training for fear that they can leave. Nnenna *et al.* (2013:571) also highlight that top management is reluctant to devote resources towards staff training, assuming that employees will leave afterwards. Most organisations in the hospitality and catering industry have a notorious reputation for staff training, in which employees are seldomly empowered with staff training for fear that they would eventually leave (Ajay *et al.* 2015:169).

#### **1.10.2 THE EFFECTIVENESS OF STAFF TRAINING ON KNOWLEDGE TRANSFER**

To ensure the effectiveness of staff training, top managers should not only consider the needs analysis, training design and implementation but should also examine the work environment (Hayes and Ninemier, 2009:35). Jepnguich *et al.* (2013:1) support Hayes and Ninemier (2009:35) and recommend that the employer should examine external factors such as the work environment and character of the trainees themselves. According to Appaw *et al.* (2011:115), the key crucial training

programmes that openly transmit embedded knowledge from knowledge transferor to knowledge transferee are coaching and mentoring. In addition, Nnema *et al.* (2013:577) state that course-presentation workshops, forums of experts and storytelling also transfer knowledge to and amongst employees. However, Meng *et al.* (2009:41) note that experienced employees are unwilling to share their expertise with upcoming professionals. In this regard, Ben (2009:31) stresses that experienced employees fear to lose value on their job as a result of transferring their knowledge. Some employees believe that they only earn respect and authority when they accumulate and hoard knowledge (Govaerts *et al.* 2011:35). This is further supported by Coetzee *et al.* (2009:206) who state that some employees are often attached to experienced workers who are not in any way equipped to train others. Staff training is deemed a failure if it does not have mechanisms of transmitting knowledge acquired to the job (Khawaja, 2013:51).

Das and Baruah (2013:13) state that knowledge transfer efforts to the organisation are mostly improved by forms of staff training such as mentoring, discussions, professional coaching and apprenticeship. Denson (2012:15) notes that staff training is required at all levels as it facilitates and maintains the effective delivery of the learning system and organisational mission that values the significance of knowledge transfer. In this regard, Towler, Watson and Surface (2014:829) note that staff training strengthens the novel knowledge above the learning session in the current environment of constant escalation of technology. Singh (2014:28) highlights that the rapid acceleration of technology leads to staff training where competitive advantage is increasingly placed on the successful transfer of knowledge within the organisation.

Wilkenmann, Fischer and Wilkenmann (2009:464) state that knowledge transfer sources are comprised of external providers who are training specialists and internal sources, such as senior managers through coaching and mentoring. As a matter for concern, Atwood (2012:32) notes that when the knowledge gap between the knowledge transferors, (that is the trainers) and transferees, (who are the trainees) is too large, then the transferee will encounter challenges in adapting the knowledge conveyed. In relation to staff training, knowledge is transferred mainly between two forms, namely tacit and explicit knowledge (Malefetjane, 2011:27). Staff training can



transfer knowledge from explicit-to-explicit, explicit-to-tacit and tacit-to-tacit (Jashapara, 2011:279). The first two include codified and uncoded knowledge that is transmitted through staff training to the recipient by qualified transferors such as training consultants, in the form of novel ideas (Hislop, 2014:26). An explicit-to-tacit knowledge transfer is common in staff training, acquiring knowledge from reading written books (Mankin, 2009:36). Hawryszkiewicz (2010:111) highlights that tacit knowledge is transferred more efficiently by individuals with shared meanings and understandings, which is termed rational proximity. Explicit-to-explicit transfer is a type of knowledge transfer where ideas can be imitated without much difficulty, such as ideas adopted directly from training consultants (Dickmann *et al.* 2011:310).

Chen, Sun and McQueen (2010:228) highlight that through staff training, knowledge transfer can take place at the micro level and macro level of the organisation. Zafar, Ishaq, Shoukat and Rizwan (2014:56) attest that tacit knowledge is generated inside the organisation at the micro level, utilising forms of both individualised and collective staff training. Malefetiane (2011:40) highlights that seasoned employees' experiences can also be incorporated as another form of learning. At the macro level, inter-organisational links usually convey large explicit knowledge through engaging in workshops with other organisations and not overlooking several tacit knowledge forms which are also vital, such as conferences and discussions with others in the same sector (Werner, Shuler and Jackson, 2013:243). Mansour and Mahin (2014:114) proclaim that the conversion of tacit into explicit knowledge aids the redistribution of knowledge, while tacit knowledge can be transferred by face to face interaction within organisations.

According to Wang (2013:278), learning by observation knowledge transfer happens where the flow of information can be knowledge spillovers occur through observation, unplanned, and planned. According to Atwood (2012:32), when both knowledge receivers and suppliers are located in the same departments, they are classified as neighbours. Kase, Paawe and Zupan (2009:615) highlight that it is categorised as distant when knowledge providers and receivers are not in the same department. Singh (2014:28) state that middle management and employees focus more on

uncoordinated and unplanned staff training programmes than planned ones. In this case, observation is a chief form of knowledge transfer (Meng-Lei, Jeou-Shyan and Yu-Hua, 2009:41).

### **1.10.3 INSTITUTIONALISING KNOWLEDGE TRANSFER PRACTICES IN ORDER TO RETAIN EMPLOYEES**

Desounza and Paquette (2011:96) explain that the retentive capacity of the knowledge receiver is reflected by the capability to institutionalise the use of knowledge learned. Carina and Einar (2008:366) state that today's employees work in a rapidly changing technical environment. Masour *et al.* (2014:144) affirm that these employees gain knowledge through training but only some of this knowledge is formally documented in the organisation. Walker and Miller (2010:30) postulate that knowledge transfer can only be functional if the transferred knowledge helps the organisation to retain its knowledge and employees. Mishra (2009:151) states that the lack of that ability poses more challenges to the process of knowledge transfer that would result in the discontinuation of its use, thereby backsliding to earlier status. Reverting to an earlier state demotivates employees, who may respond by quitting the job (Mahapa, 2013:79).

However, Mahajan (2010:3) highlights that organisations in the hospitality and catering industry support staff training of employees but do not fully implement it. Joan (2012:1) emphasises that employees usually place more importance on staff training organised by the organisations in which the employer is helpful with regard to the transfer of knowledge. Davidson, Timo and Wang (2010:451) elucidate that workshops and seminars deliver outstanding settings to forming and acquire uncodified knowledge that originates from the contributors. However, Choi and Dickson (2009:103) highlight that there is a remarkable challenge in the Hospitality and Catering sector where superiors are unwilling to transfer their expertise generously. Khawaja (2013:51) supports the view that employees perceive that their distinctive competencies are the core purpose to being vital to the company and why the business keeps them in the job. In reinforcing this view, Ajay *et al.* (2015:169) highlight that managers are hesitant to disseminate essential information to others at

the workplace in a bid to become valuable to the organisation, which subsequently instills employment security in them.

Nivethitha *et al.* (2014:35) proclaim that the general trend in the Hospitality and Catering industry is knowledge hoarding, as it makes a person important and not be easily replaced. Allen *et al.* (2013:71) postulate that effective knowledge transfer requires a tendency of hoarding knowledge to be turned down and calls for those with information to be coaches and mentors to make sure that other employees in the organisation acquire the same knowledge that they have. Walker *et al.* (2013:328) urge that the provision of information to those who do not have such knowledge must become part of everyone's task in the organisation. DeSimone *et al.* (2013:79) warn superiors that knowledge will not be lost through transfer and knowledge is plentiful, only the capacity to utilize it is limited. Zvobgo and Orpah (2014:68) emphasise that knowledge is not being fully utilised, information is tied and the potential of employees' competencies, skills and ideas are not being recognised and valued. For these reasons, Jashapara (2011:170) highlights that considerable valuable knowledge flies out of the window at the end of the day as employees leave for organisations that make use of their knowledge. Semi-skilled employees mostly go away with the knowledge they obtain from the organisation (Sie and Yakhlef, 2009: 175).

According to Zvobgo *et al.* (2014:68), the Hospitality and Catering industry is a highly labour intensive sector which is also coupled with low employee retention. Rothwell (2010:143) warns that when employee retention is low, it is ostensible that there is a need for knowledge to be transferred and distributed. According to Werner, Shuler and Jackson (2013:243), for easy transference of knowledge from tacit to explicit, it is of paramount importance that appropriate processes, technology, culture, language and structures are available so that it is acquired and used in the organisation. Hwryszkiewicz (2010:111) states that if organisations fail to manage explicit knowledge cautiously, they create interruptions and conflicts in the day-to-day work procedures. Thus, the organisation must instill a sense of security in employees, motivate them with incentives, train and empower them with authority to ensure successful knowledge transfer (Atwood, 2012:38).

### 1.10.3.1

### SYSTEMS OF KNOWLEDGE TRANSFER

Yang (2010:6) indicates that the regulation systems, technological service and trade are three typical typologies that facilitate the transfer of knowledge. Explicit knowledge is mostly transferred through the trading of goods and services. Trade associations facilitate the transference of information. Perez and Cruz (2015:167) postulate that the purchasing and leasing of technology induces transference of knowledge, that is, the technological system. Zafar *et al.* (2014:56) report that much information is transferred when all the functional areas are in-house and are minimum when some functional areas are outsourced. According to Pauline and Sunson (2012:81), the regulation system undertakes many forms of penalties, prohibitions and mandatory actions. This system holds an extensive body of knowledge, which can be made available to individual organisations, in particular those relating to safety and health issues in the Hospitality and Catering companies (Malefetiane, 2011:41).

Benmoussa (2009:1) attests that through knowledge transfer, most organisations can transform knowledge into a beneficial asset as well as build a continuous learning organisation. Atwood (2012:32) points out that knowledge transfer will allow the organisation to get information from itself through transferring critical experiential skills and availing information to the entire company. Hislop (2014:25) postulates that by having a well-organised knowledge transfer procedures the entire organisation may get essential knowledge from individuals and teams in the organisation, which according to Allan and Richard (2010:604) will help to ensure that an appropriate employee with applicable information is utilised at the right time. Wilton (2013:390) argues that positive opportunities of viable knowledge transfer encompass lower dependencies on knowledge champions, employee reward systems, decreased rates of redevelopment and reduced monitoring.

#### **1.10.4 THE EXTENT TO WHICH EMPLOYEES ARE SATISFIED WITH STAFF TRAINING**

Yang (2010:33) states that employees are more satisfied when staff training is sought by training location, contexts and objects. Ninema *et al.* (2013:571) assert that staff training increases the knowledge of employees. An increase in job knowledge makes an employee feels more comfortable in doing the job and that they can be happy and therefore willing to stay longer. Mahajan (2010:42) reiterates that satisfaction can come from feeling comfortable within the organisation. The person-job-fit theory shows that the acquisition of skills by employees increases fitness in the job, thereby raise their willingness to stay longer in the organisation (Yowe and Chao, 2014:805). Ajay *et al.* (2015:170) state that staff training that provides employees with skills and competencies that the job demands can satisfy them to stay in the organisation. Moreover, McDowall *et al.* (2010:609) highlight that employees are satisfied with staff training that provides employees with growth opportunities. The majority of employees believe that upon training there is a likelihood that they will receive a promotion and are therefore willing to stay (Yang, 2010:33). In addition, Joan (2012:25) affirms that technologically-aligned staff training can contribute to more satisfied employees who remain in the organisation for exceptional periods.

Yang (2015:16) states that once employees received training, their frustrations which were attributed to the inefficiencies and ineffectiveness in performing their work can be minimised, thereby reducing the rate of quitting the job. Das *et al.* (2013:13) state that in future, improvement in the use of technology requires employees to be trained in a number of functional areas. According to Ahammad (2013:4), due to the multi-skilling nature of the industry, a high degree of insufficient staff training can be the root of low morale because it causes employees to feel unfit for the job. Consequently, Yang (2010:15) highlights that when employees are unhappy with their jobs, it accelerates the rate of attrition. According to Mapelu *et al.* (2013:43), effective staff training is one such business practice that can contribute to greater employee loyalty and a stable workforce. Mankin (2009:141) affirms that continuous

staff training is an appreciable way to ingrain skills into employees' development. According to Walker *et al.* (2013:79), such staff training assists employees to enhance their knowledge and competencies whilst the organisation benefits through improved productivity. Erasmus *et al.* (2010:202) highlight that continuous staff training pleases employees as it boosts their confidence in assuming greater responsibilities in the organisation.

#### **1.10.4.1 CATEGORIES OF STAFF TRAINING WITHIN THE ORGANISATION**

According to Nnenna *et al.* (2013:571), staff training is categorised into diverse sub-groups. Middle management is the first group, supervisory level is the second group and lower level employees that perform daily operations of the organisation is the third group. Erasmus *et al.* (2010:244) state that the middle management team which incorporates line management and assistant management monitor activities within the organisation. Mankin (2009:141) attests that staff training should be about building proper leadership skills and monitoring activities. The supervisory management group is the team that provides support to the organisation. This includes supervisors and team leaders, to mention a few. Lynton and Pareek (2012:128) state that supervisors must acquire knowledge regarding customer service, in which they should specialize in complaints and guest requests. DeSimone *et al.* (2013:227) postulate that line employees perform the real operation of the organisation. Hence, skills development of the profession and technical experience should be the focus of the training of lower level employees.

Dickmann *et al.* (2011:158) point out that staff training can be sorted out by internal or external location. Dickman *et al.* (2011:158) further highlight that off-the-job training, on-the-job training and in-house training are typical forms of training that are categorized according to the location. Dauti (2015:141) points out that by making use of organisational facilities, usually training rooms and staff canteens, in-house staff training is promoted. This form of training is encouraged by human resources managers. Nestoroska and Petrovska (2014:5) state that when a qualified employee trains a novice employee at the workplace, in particular if the training is held in a

certain department or section of the organisation, then it is called on-the-job training. Coetzee *et al.* (2009:166) point out that off-the-job training refers to training that is conducted outside the organisation. Khan, Mahmood, Ayoub and Hussain (2011:7) elucidate that training is also carried out outside the company and in some instances abroad. Training of this nature is commonly through attending conferences and seminars.

Ahammad (2013:2) states that staff training is held for different purposes. Ahammad (2013:2) further highlights that some staff training is organised to help employees to adapt to technology and some for improving employees' professional skills. For this reason, Dauti (2015:141) state that staff training can be divided by content. Wilton (2013:4) states that staff training helps in fostering sound relationships amongst employees and beyond that, between top managers and employees. In addition, Noe (2007:287) highlights that it improves commitment and loyalty towards work. Lynton and Pareek (2012:128) report that the staff training requires certification which implies that at the end of the training, employees get a professional certificate on practical or theoretical tests. In terms of the theoretical tests, Walker and Miller (2013:334) highlight that hospitality technical staff training concentrates on innovation and creativity to align with constant environment predicaments within the industry, for instance, the introduction of new menus and styles and the use of today's complicated machinery.

#### **1.10.5 TYPES OF STAFF TRAINING FOR EMPLOYEE RETENTION**

Mapelu *et al.* (2013:45) state that nearly each year, due to the advancement of technology, many types of staff training are introduced. Ayupp and Chung (2010:564) point out that employees in the Hospitality and Catering sector value practical and operational skills. A number of employees prefer internal staff training which is known as on-the-job training (Walker *et al.* 2010:30). Choi and Dickson (2009:115) state that on-the-job training allows trainees to practice behaviour in reality or simulation. The development of practical skills and change of attitude are improved through behaviour (Khawaja, 2013:51). On-the-job training incorporates

workshops, mentoring, job rotation and coaching (Mudor *et al.* 2011:41). Some employees prefer off-the-job training as it demonstrates relationships and avails both verbal and written information (Hayes and Ninemeier, 2009:35). Off-the-job training usually encompasses simulations, lectures, computer-based training and study, games and simulations (Ninema *et al.* 2013:573).

Mapelu and Juma (2013:43) state that in the Hospitality and Catering Industry, employees perform their work in direct contact with clients. In this regard, Erasmus *et al.* (2010:202) highlight that considerable staff training needs to be conducted on-the-job in order to acquire the actual job skills that are essential for job performance. Walker *et al.* (2013:334) elude that off-the-job training is performed away from the place of work and the majority of organisations in the Hospitality and Catering sector seldomly embrace it due to intense work and cost. Walker *et al.* (2013:334) further state that to effectively improve employee retention, refresher courses should be form part of staff training. For staff training to succeed within organisations, constant learning measures should be executed. Mapelu *et al.* (2013:43) highlight that the significance of in-house staff training cannot be ignored, as 81% of employers depend on this method of staff training. Wilton (2013:253) proposes that the deployment of both informal and formal training is critical to yield efficient and effective staff training. DeSimone *et al.* (2013:228) indicate that on-the-job training may fall under informal staff training, whilst off-the-job may be grouped under formal training. Mahajan (2010:7) highlights that repetitive training needs to be provided to current groups of employees that record high attrition rates.

## **1.11 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY AND DESIGN**

Peter (2011:114) states that the research methodology reveals how the research will be conducted and how the data will be collected and analysed. It mainly focuses on the following: research design, data collection, questionnaire design and data analysis.



### **1.11.1 SECONDARY DATA**

Secondary data refers to the information collected by individuals or organisations other than the researcher (Dan, 2012:122). Secondary data for this study was obtained from journals, e-journals, media articles, government publications, other dissertations and theses and company reports.

### **1.11.2 PRIMARY DATA**

Theresa *et al.* (2013:86) highlight that primary data is personally collected by the researcher or can be acquired from a direct observation. The data was collected using a closed-ended questionnaire (Annexure B) structured in a quantitative form. The questionnaire (Annexure B) was administered personally by the researcher. The questionnaires with a covering letter (Annexure A) were hand delivered by the researcher to the respondents. The study therefore employed a personal data collection method. Two weeks were given to respondents to return the questionnaire. A five-point Likert scale format was utilised in order to solicit the degree to which respondents agreed or disagreed with statements about the main theme (Saunders *et al.* 2009:123-127). Theresa *et al.* (2013:91) affirm that questionnaire design is vital to ensure that the questions asked are relevant to the problem being studied, are accurate and are unbiased.

### **1.11.3 RESEARCH DESIGN**

The study utilised a quantitative approach (Fredrick and Lori-Ann, 2012:158). It provides an important association between quantitative relationships expressed in mathematics and the empirical examination of quantitative relationships of staff training, knowledge transfer and employee retention (Yin, 2009:33). Quantitative research is a method that logically uses numerical data, particularly taken from a given subgroup of a studied population, so that outcomes of the research can be generalised to the entire population (Daniel, 2012:83).

#### **1.11.4 THE CASE STUDY APPROACH**

A case study approach refers to a wide-range study of a particular situation such as an individual, family or organisation, individual or family. An in-depth study of a programme, event or specific individual for a given period of time reflects a feature of a case study. This research adopted a case study approach, at Servcor Private Limited in Zimbabwe. It is aimed at acquiring better insight on the effectiveness of staff training on knowledge transfer and employee retention (Maree, 2007:76).

#### **1.11.5 TARGET POPULATION**

The target population refers to the whole group of members likely to be engaged in the study, while a smaller group is selected and referred to as a sample (Carrie and Kevin, 2014:33). The target population for this study comprised all employees of Servcor Private Limited except senior management. The target population was obtained from the Human Resources Department of Servcor Private Limited. The identified target population equated to  $N = 240$ , which included all employees except senior top management.

#### **1.11.6 SAMPLING METHOD**

Probability sampling allows the researcher to consider all the potential respondents in the population (Jan and Tony, 2012:165). The sampling frame for the quantitative research design was the list of employees obtained from the Human Resource Department in which each unit of analysis is only listed once in an alphabetical order. A systematic sampling technique is used as it is supported by a sampling frame (Yin, 2009:33). Jan *et al.* (2012:43) state that a systematic sampling technique provides each member in the target population with an equivalent opportunity of being selected.

### **1.11.7 SELECTION OF THE SAMPLE**

For this study, the target population equated to 240 employees and a sample size of n=120 was considered as appropriate. The sample was selected by picking every odd number from the sample frame utilising the systematic sampling technique under the ambit of probability sampling methods. The selection of the sample produces significant statistical results for generalisations and also eliminates sampling errors (Saunders *et al.* 2009:156).

### **1.12 PILOT STUDY**

According to Dan (2012:15), the overall objective of a pilot study is to fine-tune the questionnaire by eliminating or correcting ambiguous words and statements. In this study, 20 homogeneous respondents who were not part of the sample respondents were chosen randomly to participate in the pilot study for questionnaire testing, thereby allowing the required amendments to be performed before final questionnaires were administered to the selected main sample grouping (Burns and Bush, 2010:71).

### **1.13 VALIDITY AND RELIABILITY**

Validity refers to the extent to which the research assesses what it proposed to assess and to approximate the truthfulness of the results (Yin, 2009:145). The questions were designed, generalised and made suitable for the respondents at Servcor Private Limited. Validity is subdivided into four categories: content, criterion-related, predictive and construct validity (Jan *et al.* 2012:301). To demonstrate construct validity, the researcher investigated the degree to which this construct was a representative sample of the population (Theresa *et al.* 2013:141). For this study a pilot test will be conducted to detect possible flaws in measurement, to identify unclear formulated items.

Reliability entails the extent to which the study obtains the same or slight difference outcomes from two or more samples of a homogeneous population (Carrie and Kelvin, 2014:55). Fredrick *et al.* (2012:173) state that reliability is subdivided into

four categories: test-retest, internal consistency, parallel-forms and inter-rater. To measure the reliability of internal consistency, the researcher evaluated the extent to which two or more tests that investigate equal constructs produced the same outcomes (Theresa *et al.* 2013:86). For the purpose of this study, reliability will be established by computing Cronbach's Coefficient Alpha (Fredrick *et al.* 2012:173) .

#### **1.14 PRETESTING**

According to Jan *et al.* (2012:165), pretesting is carried out to ensure that the questionnaire is clear and understandable to the respondents, thereby increasing accuracy on the questionnaire. For the purpose of ensuring accuracy to questions asked, three colleagues were chosen randomly to complete the questionnaires so that unclear question could be corrected.

#### **1.15 DATA COLLECTION METHOD**

In this study, primary data was collected using structured close ended questionnaires. The questionnaires with a covering letter were hand delivered to the respondents. According to Dan (2012:122), this method ensures a high response rate compared to other methods. The sample respondents were asked to return the questionnaires within two weeks.

#### **1.16 ANALYSIS OF DATA**

The Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) version 24 for Windows was used to analyse the data by employing appropriate statistical tests (Carrie *et al.* 2014:55). The responses to the close-ended structured quantitative questionnaire were captured to form a data set.

#### **1.17 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS**

Participation was voluntary. In addition, informed consent from the relevant participants was ensured. Furthermore, respondents were reassured of confidentiality and the questionnaire clearly stated that the responses will only be

used strictly for the purposes of statistical analysis (Theresa *et al.* 2013:51). No names of the respondents were required on the questionnaire (Donald *et al.* 2011:49). The participants could, at any stage, without prejudice, withdraw his or her consent and participation in the study (Peter, 2011:43).

## **1.18            STRUCTURE OF THE DISSERTATION**

Chapter 1 covers the background as well as an overview of the research. It addressed the problem statement, key objectives and significance of the research and a brief literature review.

Chapter 2 reviews the framework of the research theory and the present literature. The chapter presents a review of literature on staff training, knowledge transfer and employee retention in the Hospitality and Catering sector at Servcor Private Limited.

Chapter 3 describes the research methodology and design. It includes a detailed discussion on the sample selection, the collection of the primary data, development of the measurement instrument, as well as the gathering of secondary data.

Chapter 4 discuss the findings and analyses the data in detail.

Chapter 5 covers the conclusions, as well as recommendations based on the findings of the research.

## **1.19            LIMITATIONS**

The study was limited to a review of literature concerning staff training, knowledge transfer and employee retention in hospitality and catering organisational settings. Due to constraints of time and logistics, the study was confined to Servcor Private Limited in Zimbabwe, hence, the results cannot be generalized to other organisations as situational factors may differ. All employees should have formed part of the sample but this was beyond the scope of this study as it would have consumed much time.

The study investigates the effectiveness of staff training on knowledge transfer and employee retention at Servcor Private Limited in Zimbabwe. Altarawneh *et al.* (2012:46) explain that it is important that the retention of employees should be prioritised to contain the cost of attrition. The literature adds essential new knowledge that can assist staff training to increase the level of knowledge transfer and employee retention. Peter (2011:114) states that the research methodology reveals how the research will be conducted and how the data will be collected and analysed. The next chapter reviews the literature pertaining to the study.

## CHAPTER 2

### LITERATURE REVIEW

#### 2.1 INTRODUCTION

According to Kabote, Vengesayi, Mamimine and Mataruse (2014:65), the hospitality industry differs from the manufacturing and other industries in that it is labour intensive. Chitambura (2012:3) asserts that Zimbabwe's hospitality sector is relatively labour intensive, though it is not as intensive as that of agriculture. Mkono (2010:301) claims that the Zimbabwean Hospitality industry is characterised by a diverse workforce. Maphosa (2015:1) highlights that the hospitality industry tends to be re-active and not pro-active in learning and acquiring skills. However, in Zimbabwe, the Hospitality Acts of 1967 and 1968 encourages employees to be well-trained.

According to Davidson *et al.* (2010:451), repetitive staff training is needed to effectively ingrain important concepts in the minds of employees. This view is supported by Khawaja (2013:51) who elucidates that the skills of employees are honed and, equally, the organisation gains through improved efficiency and productivity. Choi *et al.* (2009:103) hold the view that since there can be similarities amongst employees and their positions in the Hospitality and Catering industry, employers tend to find ways to make training generic. Research conducted by Choi *et al.* (2009:105) has associated poor training in the hospitality industry with high turnover predicaments, mainly of full-time employees. Ajay *et al.* (2015:169) state that the number of employees who need formal training in the hospitality and catering sector increased by about 25 per cent, from 16 000 to 20 000 people annually by the end of 2015. These employees include chefs, kitchen porters, accounting employees, sales employees, middle managers, store employees, technicians and general workers.

Boella and Goss-Turner (2014:105) report that of every ten employees in the Hospitality industry, one employee lacks the preliminary skills necessary to perform the work. Nestoroska *et al.* (2014:5) affirm that staff training builds and improves employee knowledge irrespective of the position or job of an employee, from apex level to shopfloor level. In this regard, Amrik (2014:2) advocates that Hospitality and Catering organisations train their employees by creating and providing a conducive environment and team spirit between management and employees. Mansour *et al.* (2014:144) note that the nature of the Hospitality and Catering industry poses a challenge to the transfer of knowledge. Mansour *et al.* (2014:144) further state that different cultures and different community practices render mistrust between the recipient of knowledge and knowledge transferor.

## **2.2 STAFF TRAINING**

According to Amrik (2014:2), staff training is the development and modification of attitudes, knowledge and skills through experiential learning to accomplish job demands in a systematic and planned manner. Similarly, Ahammad (2013:2) states that staff training is a process of learning which focuses on acquiring knowledge and skills to stimulate the performance of employees to the assigned activity. However, Walker *et al.* (2013:328) posit that in a Hospitality industry setting, staff training denotes teaching employees how to perform a given task. This includes instruction and guidance to a learner towards procedures and facts (learning knowledge) and prerequisite skills to perform to the required skills standard (for example, operating a sophisticated griller) (Walker and Miller, 2013:328). Rothwell (2010:77) attests that staff training equips employees to achieve acceptable and outstanding results through attitudes, skills and knowledge. Khan (2011:7) emphasises that staff training enhances skills, knowledge and overcomes inefficiencies. For the purposes of this study, staff training is referred to as a process of modification of skills, knowledge and attitude systematically through experiential learning (Rothwell, 2010:77).



Dauti (2015:141) claims that new skill acquisition and behavior change should be a priority for staff training in an organisation. This indicates that when employees practically demonstrate aspects, actions and concepts they were not able to do earlier, then staff training is deemed to have been undertaken properly. Ahammad (2013:2) highlights that the prime motive of staff training at the workplace is to build the skills of the employees so that present and forthcoming organizational manpower needs can be met. Nestoroska *et al.* (2014:5) state that staff training increases employee satisfaction and self-confidence since an employee can grasp the contribution and role of his or her job portion to the entire organisation. Noe (2007:149) recommends that employees have refresher courses because they are likely to experience decay in learned capabilities.

Chen, Hwang and Raghu (2010:21) state that staff training curtails obsolescence, as skills and abilities of the knowledge worker are re-built to tally with the current demands of the dynamic environment. Wilton (2013:253) highlights that for non-managerial staff, on-the-job training is the most common form of learning and development activity, while for managers the most common delivery method of training is off-the-job training, that is, once-off conferences and seminars. To maintain the competitive edge in the current business arena, Ahammad (2013:3) recommends a progressive and innovative learning culture as the base line for staff training.

**Figure 2.1 Learning forms**



**Source:** Grant (2012:178). Adapted.

According to Grant (2012:178), formal learning is a form of traditional, generic training course that can be presented in a highly formalized manner (Figure 2.1). In other words, the goals of the overall processes are pre-defined. However, experiential learning is defined as the learning processes that occur when the professional employee performs the work (Hislop, 2014:86). For DeSimone *et al.* (2013:506), action learning is about bringing together a group of people with varied levels of skills and experiences. It combines the best of both concepts (Figure 2.1).

## **2.2.1 FACTORS INFLUENCING STAFF TRAINING IN THE HOSPITALITY AND CATERING INDUSTRY**

Walker and Miller (2013:17) indicates that the demand for multiskilling, proliferation of technology, the knowledge society and lack of employee fit have ignited the demand of staff training in organisations from the Hospitality industry. Yang (2010:6) exposes a similar view and asserts that technological change, workforce diversity and changing skill requirements are imperative for staff training in the Hospitality industry.

### **2.2.1.1 IMPACT OF TECHNOLOGY**

Rothwell (2010:79) expresses concern about the failure of organisations in the hospitality sector to offer staff training continuously to keep their employees' skills current. Singh (2014:28) attest that social development such as technological innovation places pressure on employees to improve their skills. Employers should afford employees the chance to learn and grow so that employees do not feel redundant and are retained in the company. Gosh, Satyawadi, Josh, Ranjan and Singh (2012:194) caution that knowledge and skills need to be sharpened and upgraded as the environment is changing at a faster rate. According to McDowall and Saunders (2010:609), there is polarisation of skills levels within the organisations, with technology deskilling a large number of jobs yet also crafting highly trained individuals, the technocratic elite. Das *et al.* (2013:13) highlight that

employees feel happy when their skills are kept in line with latest technologies and further recommend that constant modifications and redesigns of training activities must be streamlined within Hospitality and Catering organisations in order to thwart obsolescence. Yang (2010:15) states that an employee can be a highest performer today and can be out of the line some other day due to the fact that the skills that the employee possesses no longer matches present technologies. Therefore, Ahammad (2013:4) iterates that perpetual technological advancement means that employees in Hospitality and Catering organisations need staff training to promote a continuous learning culture. Boella *et al.* (2014:105) affirm that the Hospitality and Catering industry is upgrading regularly towards the technology of today. Rothwell (2013:79) concludes that good staff training increases confidence and satisfaction since it narrows performance gaps between what an employee knows and feels and what they must know to perform their current jobs successfully.

#### **2.2.1.2      IMPACT OF EMPLOYEE FIT**

Boella and Goss-Turner (2014:105) elucidate the importance of the compatibility between the individual and the organisation, declaring that a workforce that is unfit for the organisation's task demands experiences demotivation and often quit the job. Allen and Bryant (2013:5) identify three forms of employee fit which include person-job, person-organisation and person-environment fit. Khan (2011:8) highlights that person-organisation fit is substantial in defining employee retention. Dickmann *et al.* (2011:154) state that staff training which incorporates principles at work, skills and knowledge supports the ability of an individual to align with business expectations. Therefore, a lack of training or insufficient training causes employees to leave the job (Allen *et al.* 2013:71). Dickmann *et al.* (2011:159) postulates that staff training should provide knowledge about beliefs and norms found in the company. Yang (2010:15) highlights that team spirit will be built amongst employees and they can understand each other better if the organisation trains their employees in a harmonious environment.

### **2.2.1.3 DEMAND FOR MULTI-SKILLING**

According to Erasmus *et al.* (2010:244), multiskilling refers to the employees' acquisition and usage of wider skill ranges at the workplace. This implies the development of skills far above the scope of current job requirements. By doing so, an employee can be flexible, able to adapt to change and able to perform a wide range of tasks. Coetzeen *et al.* (2009:175) explain that employees want to be equipped with a wide range of skills for them to carry out more than one job. Licheng and Michelle (2011:25) contend that a significant number of qualified employees join the company not only for monetary benefits, but more importantly to get learning opportunities for them to grow, as well as getting a chance to acquire a wider range of skills. Chebolu (2013:634) highlights that the possession of additional and varied skills would only give an employee his dream role or desired stature in the organisation and further clarifies that the capability to multitask makes the employee more responsible and increases the desire to remain in the organisation. Indications are that organisations prefer to employ multi-talented employees who can handle teams, do project management and motivate their subordinates (Boella *et al.* 2014:105). Although, managers can be trained to be multi-skilled, so can production line operators, supervisors and clerks as well. Job rotation is a staff training method in which multi-skilling can be promoted (Jashapara, 2011:308). Employees can acquire new skills through rotating on different jobs. Wilton (2013:237) proposes that job rotation, secondment and work-shadowing can be used to multiskill workers and understanding of the wider organisation and its processes. Wilton (2013:237) further emphasises that the change of skills in a workplace requires top management to understand the changes and continue to provide the best experiences for employees.

### **2.2.2 TYPES OF STAFF TRAINING**

Rothwell (2010:77) highlights that staff training can be carried out off-the-job, on-the-job and near-the-job. Coetzee *et al.* (2009:166) attest that most organisations in hospitality and catering utilise mainly two training methods, namely, off-the-job

training and on-the-job training. Mapelu *et al.* (2013:43) affirm that off-the-job training is undertaken outside the organisation. However, due to the high work intensity in this industry, Hospitality organisations seldom consider this training method. On-the-job training is preferred by employers for their operational staff where they work either with senior co-workers, supervisors or consultants and upon completion they get a certificate. Mapelu *et al.* (2013:43) advise that for updating employees with existing trends in the hospitality industry, on-the-job training is ideal. However, Towler, Watson and Surface (2014:829) contend that on-the-job training limits the time spent on training employees outside the company. Nestoraska *et al.* (2014:437) emphasise that off-the-job training is preferred for general and development managers by participating in seminars, workshops or conferences. Wilton (2013:237) highlights that for non-managerial staff, on-the-job is the most common form of learning and development activity. There is no single form of staff training that suits every condition and each situation may require a different method of training (Ahammad, 2013:5). Ahammad (2013:5) further states that whilst some goals can be smoothly accomplished through a single method, other goals can complement different methods.

#### **2.2.2.1 ON-THE-JOB TRAINING METHODS**

According to Dickmann *et al.* (2011:281), on-the-job training is conducted at the workplace while performing job-related tasks and further identify five major staff training methods, namely coaching, mentoring, job rotation, understudy and simulations. Jashapara (2011:308) suggests that on-the-job staff training can be part-time courses that lead to externally validated qualifications. Jashapara (2011:308) further states that there is a rise in the use of the intranet as a medium for on-the-job training, particularly for developing technical knowledge and skills.

### 2.2.2.1.1 ROLE OF MENTORING

According to Mankin (2009:141), mentoring involves a more skilled, veteran employee that assists to develop an inexperienced employee, focusing on supporting the employee's ability to achieve his or her ambitions. Wilton (2013:253) asserts that mentoring occurs when an experienced senior employee and junior employee engage in a long-lasting developmental relationship, where the senior assists the protégé to acquire knowledge regarding important aspects of the job, as well as future advancement preparations. DeSimone *et al.* (2013:227) posit that in mentoring, skilled veteran employee is teamed with an inexperienced low-rank employee with the aim of providing support and preparing an employee for higher responsibilities. Regular communication between mentor and protégé is of paramount importance for mentoring to be successfully. Career support associated with psychosocial advice is what a mentor is expected to provide to the protégé. Coetzee *et al.* (2009:175) report that mentoring can increase employees' competencies, achievement and understanding of the organisation. Usually, mentors counsel their protégés on how to advance and network in the company, and they sometimes offer personal advice.

The coincidence of similar or same interests makes the mentoring relationship between mentor and protégé develop unplanned (Mankin, 2009:141). Protégés with certain personality characteristics usually tend to look for a mentor that shares the same characteristics. On the other hand, Werner *et al.* (2013:264) are of the opinion that mentorship relationships may also be arranged formally where the organisation pairs the successful veteran employee with an inexperienced employee, which is called formal mentorship. Formal mentoring has become increasingly popular it is believed to offer benefits to both the organisation and employee and helps to instill loyalty and commitment to the organisation (McDowall and Saunders, 2010:609). Erasmus *et al.* (2010:202) indicate that the protégé may not comfortably be open and trust a mentor who the protégé is in a direct line seniority relationship with. Hence the mentor should be in indirect seniority with the mentor for mentoring to successfully. Preferably, a protégé should be given a mentor from an absolutely

different department and which does not in any way influence the protégé (Joia *et al.* 2010:410). As such, various capacities of psychological backing can be provided to the mentee, namely, friendship, knowledge that pertains to internal policies and organizational structure (Appaw-agbola *et al.* 2011:115). Psychosocial backing is also associated with various aspects such as being a role model, providing a conducive environment, as well as adequate opportunity to share areas of concern.

According to McDowall and Saunders (2010:609), the following are typical mentoring characteristics:

- The relationship of mentor and protégé can be terminated by either party without prejudice because it is voluntary participation.
- Successful past records and the desire to take the role of a mentor are the two key bases for selecting mentors.
- Successes and failures discussion amongst protégés is encouraged.
- Evaluation of mentoring is key to identifying areas that have been improperly performed or not performed at all.
- Mentoring is rewarded as it is well-known that staff training consumes time and effort.

#### **2.2.2.1.2      ROLE OF COACHING**

Mankin (2009:141) indicates that coaching occurs when a peer or manager motivates, helps and develops skills that provide reinforcement and feedback to a coachee. Wilton (2013:253) explains that coaching is a short term relationship between the employee and the immediate line manager that aims to develop the employee's abilities, improving performance. Walker and Miller (2013:328) report that coaching occurs spontaneously and unplanned at the workplace of an employee or officially and in a planned manner by conducting coaching sessions at a designated place at work. Coetzee, Botha, Kiley and Truman (2009:175) explain that in coaching, an inexperienced employee is assigned to an experienced employee who is told to familiarise the inexperienced employee with the workplace and job, and

may also involves a superior who motivate subordinates, assist in building their skills, gives support and updates them with feedback. Erasmus *et al.* (2010:50) state that nowadays, executive coaching is critical for most business, relating to the coaching relationship of individuals that hold executive authority and responsibility in the company. A coach is an individual who has in-depth knowledge of behavior change and organizational functioning (McDowall *et al.* 2010:609). DeSimone *et al.* (2013:227) highlight that more often, the coachee falls in a line relationship with the coach. Often the experienced manager is the role model for correct behavior or skills (Appaw-agbola *et al.* 2011:115).

According to McDowall *et al.* (2010:609), the challenges of coaching are:

- In a situation where the coacher is less qualified than the coachee, the coacher tends to prevent confrontation by avoiding discussions on performance issues; and
- The coacher may have perceptions that coaching might be the platform for much scrutiny and criticism by the coachee.

#### **2.2.2.1.3      ROLE OF JOB ROTATION**

According to Erasmus *et al.* (2010:202), job rotation refers to the movement from one job assignment to another within the same organisation. Each assignment usually lasts for up to six months. DeSimone *et al.* (2013:227) affirm that an experienced superior monitors the learner, particularly the superior who carries out the duties of training and evaluating the learner. Over this cycle of training, the learner should study the way each department operates, encompassing crucial policies and procedures (Ahammad, 2013:3). On completion of the training, the compiled assessments determine learner readiness, as well as the department where the individual may be permanently placed (Appaw-agbola *et al.* 2011:115). Coetzee, Botha, Kiley and Truman (2009:175) highlight that job rotation turns specialists into generalists. A specialist whose entire career is spent in one functional area may not develop a general perspective of the enterprise. Job rotation provides the experienced manager with a general understanding of the organisation, its purpose and goals (Mapelu *et al.* 2013:43). Managers, in particular, need a general outlook



as they spend an increasing amount of time managing an entire organisation and less time managing a specialized functional area. Jashapara (2011:308) highlights that job rotation equips employees with versatile skills and in times of business slump or change, managers may be flexible to take new responsibilities.

#### **2.2.2.1.4      ROLE OF AN UNDERSTUDY**

An understudy refers to an individual who assumes the duties of an assistant to a veteran employee (Erasmus *et al.* 2010:202). Nnemna *et al.* (2013:571) explain that on day-to-day basis the understudy perform duties under the supervision and instruction of the senior employee to learn the way job is performed. In non-critical areas, the understudy can undertake the duties of senior employee in the senior employee's absence. Coetzee *et al.* (2009:175) state that an understudy relieves a superior of selected responsibilities, thereby allowing him or her to learn certain aspects of the superior's job.

#### **2.2.2.1.5      ROLE OF SIMULATIONS**

Jashapara (2011:308) refers to simulation as a method of training that portrays real life conditions where trainees' decisions result in conclusions that reflects what could take place on the actual job. Simulation provides an opportunity for trainees to recognize and understand the effects of their decisions in an environment which is free of risk (Noe, 2007:211). Simulation is used to demonstrate expected skills in Hospitality and Catering service processes. The simulator replicates the actual tools that the workforce actually uses on the job. The two most common simulation methods are role-playing games and in-basket exercises (Lynton and Pareek, 2012:128). Erasmus *et al.* (2010:244) state that a trainee learns the consequences of every action taken and that role-playing exercises operate in two-person settings where participants assume the roles of characters and supplementary roles to case studies.

### **2.2.2.2 OFF-THE-JOB TRAINING METHODS**

According to Coetzee *et al.* (2009:166), workshops, business conferences, business seminars and lectures are forms of off-the-job training. For the development of competences of the foundation, off-the-job training is the most appropriate method as it facilitates learners in having control over how, when and what to learn at a particular time (Gosh *et al.* 2012:194).

#### **2.2.2.2.1 ROLE OF SEMINARS AND WORKSHOPS**

Seminars are the oral delivery of well-planned information to an audience, usually by an expert that specializes in that particular field (DeSimone *et al.* 2013:228). Maphosa (2015:1) states that seminars and workshops need to be more practical, interesting and participatory in order for them to be well received by the participants. Coetzee *et al.* (2009:166) highlight that seminars and workshops facilitate two-way communication because active participation is encouraged and trainees are given the chance to receive feedback and share views.

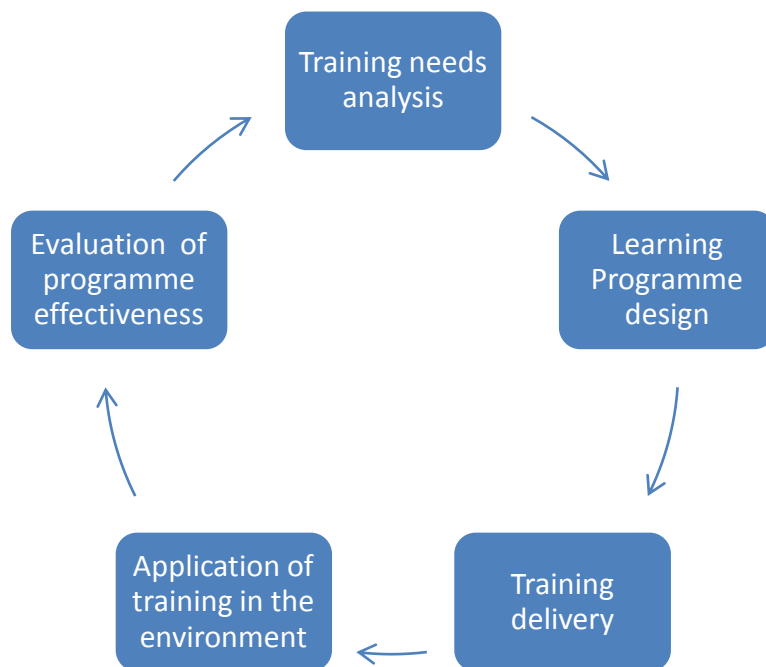
#### **2.2.2.2.2 ROLE OF LECTURES**

Gosh *et al.* (2012:194) state that lectures provide overall comprehension of the practical to be undertaken and shape the behavior of the employee. Ahammad (2013:3) indicates that lecture-based sessions also encompass features such as audio-visual aids, white boards and electronic projectors. Bhatti and Kaur (2010:656) emphasise that knowledge transfer is performed when employees acquire not only applicable competences, but also common procedures and theoretical standards regarding the content of the training.

### 2.2.3 STAFF TRAINING STRATEGIES AND PROCESSES

Depth, breadth, value and value are key staff training tactics (Chen, Hwang and Raghu, 2010:26). Breadth relates to a strategy that entails the multi-skilling of employees in the organisation (Coetzee *et al.* 2009:175). Singh (2014:28) explains depth as a tactic to ensure that each field has a magnificent quantity of experts. On the value-tactic, for the purpose of increasing flexibility and earnings, the skills in high demand are made available to employees (Licheng and Michelle (2011:25). Chen *et al.* (2010:26) claim that in the age-tactic, new expertise in the market is provided to employees. Figure 2.2 below depicts the five steps of the staff training, as per (Coetzee *et al.* 2009:120).

**Figure 2.2 The training cycle**



**Source:** Coetzee *et al.* (2009:120). Adapted.

#### STAGE 1: IDENTIFICATION OF STAFF TRAINING NEEDS

Mankin (2009:141) highlights that there are two broad types of training needs, namely, demand-driven and supply-led (Figure 2.2). Wilton (2013:253) explains that an employee can identify the need for development. For example, an employee may

need to align skills with current technology. This is called demand-driven training. For an organisation to accomplish certain strategic objectives, supply-led training is introduced. Supply-led training has to be addressed in order for an organisation to be capable of achieving strategic goals (Amrik, 2014:2). This phase assists those who are responsible for the identification of training needs to scrutinize the reason for conducting training and the expectations of the outcome.

## **STAGE 2: STAFF TRAINING INTERVENTION DESIGN**

Some of the key issues to address at the beginning of staff training are: the objectives of learning (Figure 2.2); entry behaviour of learners; the budget; and time constraints (Towler, Watson and Surface, 2014:829). Bhatti *et al.* (2013:273) state that in designing training, the content of training and learning have to be considered. Ahammad (2013:4) suggests that the design of staff training is aimed at ensuring that training is systematic and consistent.

## **STAGE 3: STAFF TRAINING INTERVENTIONS DELIVERY**

Wilton (2013:253) asserts that this stage introduces learning improvement interventions that respond to learning developments (Figure 2.2). The entire training phase should display enthusiasm and fun. Dauti (2015:141) indicates that there are many factors to consider in delivering effective learning interventions, including whether it should be delivered in-house or externally provided, or whether it should be carried out on an individual or collective basis. Ahammed (2013:4) affirms that the effectiveness of the training is maintained at this stage, as well as the opportunity for the trainee to learn.

## **STAGE 4: APPLICATION OF STAFF TRAINING**

Gosh *et al.* (2012:194) state that the reinforcement and application of learning outcomes to the workplace is done at this phase. Chen (2014:354) notes that this phase assists those responsible for the monitoring of trainee development and reviewing their progress (Figure 2.2).

## **STAGE 5: EVALUATION OF STAFF TRAINING INTERVENTION**

King (2009:5) states that this phase in Figure 2.2 assesses the training's impact. Kirkpartricks Model is the most famous and most used model to evaluate training. The Model comprises four evaluation levels, namely reaction, learning, behavior and results (Gosh *et al.* 2012:194). Reaction relates to the favourability of participants' responses to training. Learning entails the extent to which training participants gain the skills and knowledge they need. Behaviour relates to the extent to which training participants utilize the skills and knowledge they get from training in their jobs. Results relate to the extent to which expected results are obtained as a result of the training event.

## **2.3 KNOWLEDGE TRANSFER**

Knowledge management is a widely accepted factor for success in organisations dealing with complex tasks (Wilkesmann *et al.* 2009:464). Denson (2012:15) highlights that knowledge transfer is the prime subject of knowledge management that is worth discussing. There is a cumulative trend in knowledge appreciation to the extent that it is regarded as an asset that substitutes capital (Mahapa, 2013:76). According to Carina and Einar (2008:366), hospitality is a knowledge-demanding industry owing to the kind of services and products it provides. Therefore, effective delivery takes place on account of effective knowledge transfer among veteran and

inexperienced employees. Intra-organisation, inter-organisation and individual-to-individual are key levels of knowledge transfer (Wilkenmann and Wilkenmann, 2011:96). Ding, Liu and Song (2013:69) report that regardless of the fact that knowledge transfer occurs on the inter and intra organisational levels, individual-to-individual is more valuable for organizational success. Consequently, there is a dire need for managers to understand the transfer of knowledge (Choi and Dickson, 2009:103). Coetzee *et al.* (2009:206) attest that the transfer of knowledge requires the application of competencies and behaviours acquired during training to the actual job.

### **2.3.1 THE SIGNIFICANCE OF KNOWLEDGE TRANSFER**

According to Paulin and Sunson (2012:81), knowledge transfer refers to the concentrated, single-direction transmission of knowledge amongst employees, departments or organisations to the extent that the receiver of knowledge gains an adequate understanding and capability of applying the know-how. Rothwell (2013:143) defines knowledge transfer as a means of transmitting specialized know-how from one individual or group to others. Knowledge transfer holds the knowledge provider and knowledge recipient view and is therefore expressed as the process of conveying know-how from the knowledge provider so that the recipient can acquire and apply it (Easterby-Smith and Lyles, 2012:106). Furthermore, Easterby-Smith *et al.* (2012:107) state that knowledge transfer entails the sharing of knowledge from the source to where it is required. Benmoussa (2009:1) affirms that the practice is to foster the flow of knowledge among individuals. Knowledge transfer is executed by distributing and applying knowledge chosen from the organisation or outside the organisation (Mansour *et al.* 2014:144). Perez *et al.* (2015:167) state that knowledge transfer requires a willingness on the part of those individuals who possess it to share and communicate.

Rothwell (2011:118) highlights that when employees leave an organisation, both explicit and tacit (learned from experience) knowledge is likely to be lost. Thus, an

important challenge that many organisations face today is to find practical ways to transfer the knowledge of their most experienced workers to those less experienced (Daghfous and Ahmad, 2015:158). Malefetjane (2011:41) contends that employees nowadays work in an extremely dynamic technical setting, which emphasises the need for constant transfer of knowledge. Furthermore, Joia *et al.* (2010:410) raise similar concerns and claim that senior employees gain experiential knowledge, but only a small part is formally documented and shared. There are benefits to documenting knowledge transfer, including a lower dependence syndrome on knowledge gurus, as well as redevelopment reduction (Mahapa, 2013:76). The prominent system of knowledge that is currently used by organisations is differentiated into theoretical and contextual (Bosch-Sijtsema, Ruohomaki and Vartiainen, 2010:183). Joo (2010:69) suggests that theoretical knowledge represents codified standards and conceptions which have general common significance, while, contextual knowledge relates to tacit and ungeneralizable knowledge, linked to specific contexts of application. Perez *et al.* (2015:167) express knowledge transfer as the practice of jointly exchanging tacit and explicit knowledge between employees.

### **2.3.2 TYPES OF KNOWLEDGE**

There are two main types of knowledge, namely tacit knowledge and explicit knowledge (Grant, 2012:13). Mahapa (2013:76) suggests that explicit and tacit knowledge are acquired as individuals engage in their work practice. Zhang, Long, Wang and Teng (2015:611) attest that the complete disembodiment of knowledge from the tacit form into a wholly explicit form is impractical. Table 2.1 below shows the characteristics of explicit and tacit knowledge.

**Table 2.1 Characteristics of tacit knowledge and explicit knowledge**

<b>Explicit Knowledge</b>	<b>Tacit Knowledge</b>
It is impersonal	It is personalised
It is objective	It is subjective
It can be codified	It cannot be codified
It is independent to a context	It is specific to a context
Can be shared easily	Sharing is difficult

**Source:** Benmoussa (2009:262). Adapted.

### **2.3.2.1 EXPLICIT KNOWLEDGE**

According to Atwood (2012:32), explicit knowledge is information that can be documented because it can be represented in text; figures and symbols; and it can be written and stored. Chen *et al.* (2010:228) highlight that explicit knowledge is acquired from resource manuals, process-flow documents, policies, procedures, manuals, textbooks and training class manuals. Wilton (2013:390) defines explicit knowledge as the codification and systemization of procedural knowledge, for instance, work processes and procedures in the form of data. Mansour *et al.* (2014:114) state that explicit knowledge can be codified and transferred in documents and electronic databases. As shown in Table 2.1 explicit knowledge can be codified into tangible form. As soon as it is codified, knowledge beneficiaries may access it as the knowledge becomes open to distribution (Joia *et al.* 2010:410). Hislop (2014:21) concludes that explicit knowledge is expressed as impersonal and it is unattached to individual ideologies and social beliefs.

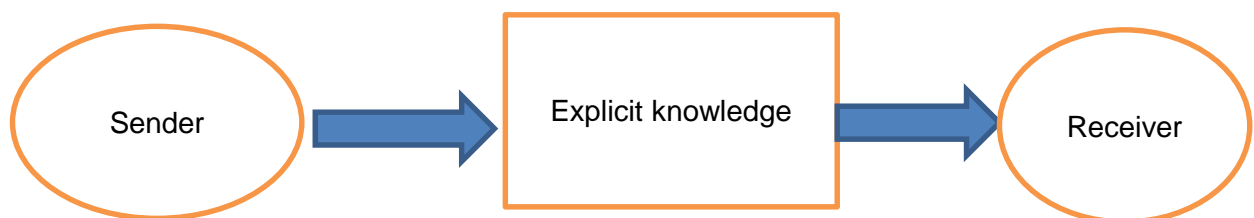
The explicit dimension is categorized into two, namely object-centered and rule-centered (Mansour *et al.* 2014:114). Knowledge codified in formulae, numbers and documents is termed object-centered. Carina *et al.* (2008:366) highlight that rule-based knowledge is obtained when knowledge is codified as instructions, rules and guidelines. Again, Kumar and Ganesh (2009:161) state that rule-based knowledge is split into four forms of procedures: Firstly, task performance for accomplishment of



organizational tasks and facilitating the transfer of learning; secondly, the application of standing rules on how and what the organisation should do to maintain its records; thirdly, the drafting of rules relating to information-handling that imply the system of communication in the organisation; and fourthly, rules that relate to the planning process as well as resource allocations to organizational activities or departments. However, Atwood (2012:32) reports that many knowledge sources which were previously entirely paper documents are now part of electronic networks. Wilton (2013:243) confirms that there is no doubt that explicit knowledge is easier to transfer. Atwood (2012:32) expresses the following explicit knowledge sources:

- Operating manuals for office and manufacturing equipment, process manuals, catalogs and user manuals for products the organisation makes.
- Education and development tools such as facilitator guides, background research, photographs and illustrations.
- Training materials, including textbooks, class manuals, handouts and learning aids.
- Audiovisual displays, including training videos.
- Checklists for equipment, customer service processes and safety practices.
- Information technology forms.

**Figure 2.3 The Conduit Model of Knowledge Transfer**



**Source:** Hislop (2014:25). Adapted.

According to Hislop (2014:25), the Conduit Model (Figure 2.3) indicates that information is conveyed through codified knowledge from a far located sender to a far situated receiver. The main idea that the Conduit Model (Figure 2.3) portrays is that a far situated sender produces complete explicit knowledge in isolation from the

receiver and can produce some fully explicit knowledge then send it to the receiver (Wilkenmann *et al.* 2011:96). Once received, the knowledge-recipient uses it without any further interaction with the knowledge-sender. Parez *et al.* (2015:167) are of view that through this form of transfer, the knowledge-sender and knowledge-receiver are likely to come-up with the same knowledge meaning.

### **2.3.2.2 TACIT KNOWLEDGE**

According to Hawryszkiewicz (2010:111), tacit knowledge is knowledge that employees possess but which cannot be easily codified. Hislop (2014:21) highlights that tacit knowledge represents knowledge that employees possess that builds the way they think and act, but which cannot be explicitly expressed wholly and that tacit knowledge resides within an employee's skills in carrying out duties at the workplace. Wilton (2013:390) further states that tacit knowledge is of paramount importance especially when an employee is undertaking a task in an unexpected and new situation. Atwood (2012:32) asserts that tacit knowledge involves know-how that exists in the heads of employees; unwritten rules and processes; and problem-solving procedures. Carina *et al.* (2008:366) propose that the tacit facet is grounded in experience, intellect and state of mind in a particular setting, and it constitutes technical and cognitive parts. The technical part relates to in-depth knowledge and skills that can be applied to a particular environment, whereas the cognitive part relates to an individual's mental thoughts, principles, standards and perspectives (Kumar and Ganesh, 2009:161). It also relates to the capability to transmit experiences and knowledge from one setting to the other.

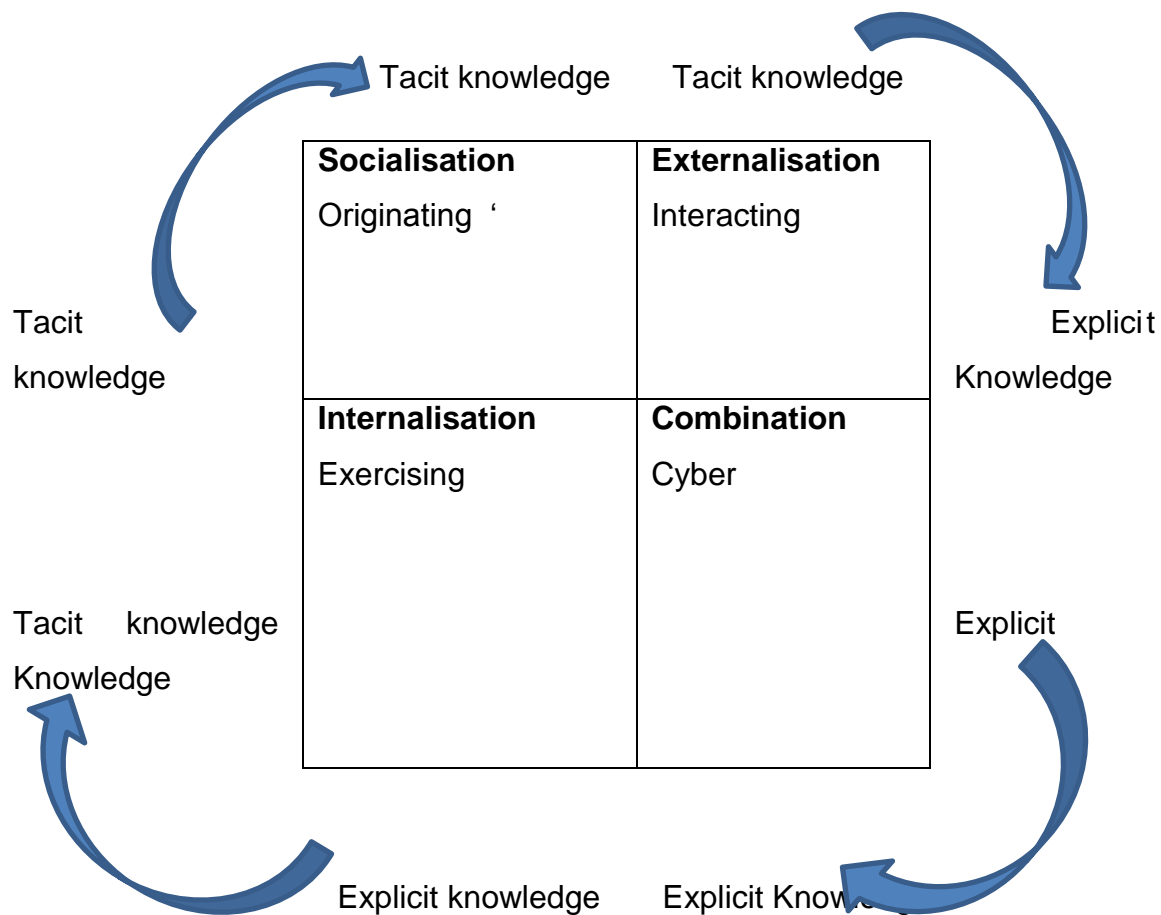
Furthermore, Hawryszkiewicz (2010:111) posits that tacit knowledge relates to the combination of physical facts and cognitive processes used by employees. This knowledge is usually not easy to codify. Kumar *et al.* (2009:161) reinforce that tacit knowledge incorporates skills of cognitive nature, for instance, employees' values. When knowledge is not easy to codify and disembodiment and is seems too personal, then it is tacit knowledge (Chen *et al.* 2010:228), due to the fact that tacit knowledge

is subconscious. It is the way that a person approaches and solves a problem (Purez *et al.* 2015:167). Tacit knowledge cannot be stored. Atwood (2012:32) attests that tacit knowledge is more difficult to identify as it includes networks, contacts and relationships. Collecting tacit knowledge is time-consuming, but its collection and subsequent transfer are done with sensitivity and honest appreciation of the people who hold this knowledge (Joia *et al.* 2010:410). However, its collection can yield a stronger knowledge base and can create a more collaborative work environment. According to Atwood (2012:32), this knowledge is in the memories, experiences and expertise of the organisation's employees. It takes effort to compile this wisdom but the results can be invaluable because this helps star employees to succeed in the performance of their daily activities. Knowledge is converted into different forms to facilitate knowledge transfer, as depicted in Figure 2.4 below.

### **2.3.3 KNOWLEDGE CONVERSION FOR KNOWLEDGE TRANSFER**

Adi, Allan and Richard (2010:604) note that the transformation of tacit to explicit knowledge stimulates the continuous re-distribution of knowledge, while tacit knowledge on its own requires face-to-face transfer. Mansour *et al.* (2014:114) reiterate that tacit knowledge is advantageous in a competitive environment because it is difficult to imitate, whereas explicit knowledge is easily imitated. Jashapara (2011:279) affirms that tacit knowledge and explicit knowledge may be, to some extent, jointly convertible in four ways, namely tacit-to-tacit; tacit-to-explicit; explicit-to-explicit; and explicit-to-tacit as illustrated in Figure 2.4 below.

**Figure 2.4 Model of knowledge conversion**



**Source:** Jashapara (2011:279). Adapted.

### 2.3.3.1 SOCIALISATION AS A MEANS OF KNOWLEDGE CONVERSION

According to Jashapara (2011:279), socialisation involves the transfer of knowledge from one individual to another, that is, tacit knowledge to tacit knowledge (Figure 2.4). *Adi et al.* (2010:604) highlight that socialization facilitates tacit-to-tacit knowledge transference where concepts are shared. *Kumar et al.* (2009:161) emphasise that tacit knowledge is deeply rooted in an individual's principles and ideologies. Socialisation facilitates the sharing of feelings, reactions and experiences (*Joia et al.* 2010:410)

### **2.3.3.2 EXTERNALISATION AS A MEANS OF KNOWLEDGE CONVERSION**

As illustrated in Figure 2.4, the conversion of tacit knowledge into explicit knowledge is called externalization (Ding, Liu and Song, 2013:69). By normal interaction using narratives, images and metaphors the conversion occurs (Zhang *et al.* 2015:611). Adi *et al.* (2010:604) suggest that externalization occurs, for instance, by seminar brainstorming. Atwood (2012:32) mentions the following sources that can be utilised for tacit knowledge to be compiled into explicit knowledge sources:

- Experiences of current, retiring and past employees gathered in recorded oral histories, interviews and written communications;
- Notes from best practices recorded from discussions during informal training sessions, evaluations and question-and-answer lists;
- Employees' verbal or written reports on training sessions attended and their recommendations thereof; and
- Notes from brainstorming sessions, including recommendations for action and ideas shelved for future consideration.

### **2.3.3.3 COMBINATION AS A MEANS OF KNOWLEDGE CONVERSION**

The articulation of explicit knowledge into an explicit form that is more composite is known as combination (Jashapara, 2011:279), which mostly occurs as a result of integrating and capturing novel explicit knowledge (Hung *et al.* 2008:84). This combination propels database usage and the knowledge to be documented. Adi *et al.* (2010:604) advocate that knowledge transfer of explicit to explicit may take the form of hardcopy of documents to another form such as softcopy of the database (Figure 2.4).

### **2.3.3.4 INTERNALISATION AS A MEANS OF KNOWLEDGE CONVERSION**

Ding, Liu and Song (2015:69) state that internalisation relates to the conversion of explicit into tacit knowledge (Figure 2.4). This normally takes place through engaging

in experiential learning. Internalization is characterized by reflection through staff training (Joia *et al.* 2010:410). Adi *et al.* (2010:604) emphasise that explicit to tacit knowledge transfer or internalization involves novel idea innovation generated from experiential learning or written documents, for instance, procedure application from a manual. However, there are some challenges on the transfer of knowledge.

#### **2.3.4 CHALLENGES TO EFFECTIVE KNOWLEDGE TRANSFER**

Carina *et al.* (2008:366) warn that it is irrelevant and meaningless to invent knowledge transfer remedies while lacking information regarding the hindrances and obstacles to knowledge transfer in Hospitality organisations. Malefetjane (2011:41) stresses that knowledge transfer held by an expert is a major concern and challenge in Hospitality industry. Meng-Lei, Jeou-Shyan and Yu-Hua (2009:41) indicate that knowledge transfer in the Hospitality industry has both problems and opportunities. Knowledge hoarding penetrates the Hospitality and Catering industry emphasising the power that knowledge holds. For instance, most chefs are now keeping their secret recipes as stiff competition heightens in the industry (Mansour *et al.* 2014:114). Paulin and Sunson (2012:81) state that some senior employees are engaging in half-done knowledge transfer. In this case, the sharing of knowledge is only limited to selected less important aspects of a particular case instead of sharing all of it. Wilton (2013:244) reports that employees tend to safeguard knowledge of high importance that they exclusively possess and normally transfer valueless and less costly knowledge. Wang (2013:278) holds the view that employees who have greater reserves in a particular field of expertise are unwilling to be involved in knowledge transfer because they are afraid to lose authority. There is a perception that professional respect and authority may be lost if knowledge is transferred (Joia and Lemos, 2010:410). Daghfous and Ahmad (2015:158) highlight that employees fear a loss of status if the knowledge generated result in actions detrimental to the organisation. Consequently, employees may be resistant to a program that makes them share knowledge because it prompts them to feel dispensable and replaceable (Kang and Han, 2014:758).

#### **2.3.4.1 KNOWLEDGE HOARDING AS A CHALLENGE TO KNOWLEDGE TRANSFER**

Wilton (2013:244) postulates that knowledge is a power syndrome therefore knowledge hoarding is always prevalent. Consequently, some employees are reluctant to share knowledge (Hawryszkiewycz, 2010:109). The following are reasons why employees are reluctant to transfer their knowledge (Atwood, 2012:38):

- They often do not value what they know;
- Anger over evaluations that someone else will get credit for their knowledge inhibits knowledge transfer;
- The idea that knowledge transfer is not part of their job description may keep employees from participating; and
- When knowledge transfer is not modeled by supervisors, managers and executives, resistance is intensified.

Hu *et al.* (2009:43) state that it is of great significance to inspire employees to share knowledge as the eradication of a hoarding attitude is a challenge facing most organisations in the Hospitality and Catering industry. Mansour *et al.* (2014:144) highlight that knowledge transfer implies a freely decentralized setting where individuals are allowed to share knowledge at any time without restrictions. Peng *et al.* (2010:158) state that top management should encourage employees to lower greed and raise self-confidence in knowledge transfer.

#### **2.3.4.2 LACK OF SOCIAL RELATIONS AS A CHALLENGE TO KNOWLEDGE TRANSFER**

Perez *et al.* (2015:167) posit that knowledge transfer depends on employees' willingness to transfer knowledge and whether the knowledge held by individuals can move from one individual to other organizational departments. According to Kang and Han (2014:758), a lack of solid social relationships amongst employees decreases group cohesiveness, team spirit and reliance, hence lowering the transfer

of knowledge. Social capital enhances the transfer of knowledge from both the provider's and receiver's viewpoints.

#### **2.3.4.3 LACK OF OPPORTUNITY TO PRACTICE AS A CHALLENGE TO KNOWLEDGE TRANSFER**

Coetzee *et al.* (2009:206) highlight that there is a lack of opportunity to practice acquired skills. If learners do not immediately have the opportunity to practice new competencies in the job situation, they will find it difficult to relate the knowledge to their jobs (Nikandrou, Brinia and Bereri, 2009:255). McDowall *et al.* (2010:609) affirm that the chance to apply newly acquired expertise may not arise immediately, which may affect knowledge transfer. Rothwell (2010:155) describes the following organisational challenges to transfer effective knowledge:

- The failure of the top organisation to identify who possesses important knowledge;
- The inability of the organisation to focus on how to make special knowledge available to those who need it in practical ways;
- The inability of the organisation to deal with differences in culture and beliefs;
- The inability of the organisation to overcome issue of trust;
- The inability of the organisation to make it worthwhile for those who possess special knowledge to transfer it; and
- The inability of the organisation to overcome issues of political conflict amongst different groups in the organisation.

Despite having obstacles to transferring knowledge, organisations should maintain and encourage knowledge transfer.



### **2.3.5 ENCOURAGING EFFECTIVE KNOWLEDGE TRANSFER**

Lamb and Sutherland (2010:295) state that employees' career develop through knowledge transfers, experiences and exposures. Hawryszkiewicz (2010:111) asserts that organisations should establish a belief that knowledge transfer is good and foster this by providing motivation and support. Kang and Han (2014:758) emphasise that top management should facilitate a culture of knowledge transfer in the whole organisation. Atwood (2012:38) also asserts that top management should encourage a culture of knowledge transfer in the organisation. As a result, management should concentrate on how to co-ordinate employees with diverse and social trends in order to be effective on knowledge transfer. Wang (2013:278) states that much of the knowledge that is possessed by senior employees can be lost as they move out of the organisation. Daghfous *et al.* (2015:158) suggest that in order to capture this knowledge top management must provide the tools and methods to simplify knowledge structures. Therefore, employees require more chance of experimentation and transference of the freshly acquired abilities and competencies (Nikandrou *et al.* 2009:255). Coetzee *et al.* (2009:206) contend that employees should be provided with greater chances of experiential and practical tasks. Employees are motivated to learn and remain in the organisation when they can transfer the knowledge to the work setting (Singh, 2014:28).

#### **2.3.5.1 INCENTIVE SCHEMES TO ENCOURAGE EFFECTIVE KNOWLEDGE TRANSFER**

According to Jashapara (2011:279), knowledge transfer can be cultivated by incentive schemes that encourage transfer-related behavior. This knowledge includes technical knowledge on specific disciplinary issues and the methods and procedures concerning rules. Zafar *et al.* (2014:56) propose that employees transfer their knowledge related to their competencies when they are intrinsically motivated. Bhatti and Kaur (2010:656) indicate that incentives have two important roles in knowledge transfer. Firstly, incentives are a reward of process itself and secondly, it

is the source of enhancing individual participation in knowledge transfer. Werner *et al.* (2013:252) clearly support this view and claim that incentives are offered to encourage employees to participate in knowledge transfer activities. Towler, Watson and Surface (2014:829) emphasise that those employees who successfully use new competencies should be recognized and rewarded with promotions. Sie and Yakhulef (2009:175) clearly support this view and warn that employees may decline to share knowledge if they are not stirred with rewards. Therefore, Nikandrou *et al.* (2009:255) assert that top management should incentivise participation in knowledge transfer. For continuous extension of knowledge transfer to take place, genuine recognition and rewards of value have to be awarded to knowledge transferees (Sie *et al.* 2009:175). Knowledge comes from the brains of employees, therefore top managers should bear in mind that except if qualified, knowledgeable employees are inspired to transfer knowledge, transfer cannot happen (Benmoussa, 2009:262).

#### **2.3.5.2 MINIMAL DISTANCE TO ENCOURAGE EFFECTIVE KNOWLEDGE TRANSFER**

According to Paulin and Sunson (2012:81), proximity enhances knowledge transfer. This implies that while the transfer of explicit knowledge is relatively straightforward, tacit knowledge require the source and recipient to be in close physical proximity (Sie *et al.* 2009:175). Proximity plays an important part as it develops robust levels of trust and mutual understanding between the knowledge transferor and knowledge transferee. Dickmann *et al.* (2011:310) explain that transfer from source to recipient is referred to as dyadic transfer. Amrik (2014:2) cautions that large physical distance can also create communication difficulties. Knowledge transfer is enlarged when the gap in knowledge between the knowledge transferor and transferee is not big (Baruch, 2011:310). Amrik (2014:2) further highlights that assimilating the transferor's knowledge may be a challenge if the knowledge gap is too wide with the transferee. Large knowledge gaps pose difficulties in knowledge transference.

### **2.3.5.3      REMOVAL OF PUNISHMENT FOR MISTAKES TO ENCOURAGE EFFECTIVE KNOWLEDGE TRANSFER**

Werner, Shuler and Jackson (2013:252) highlight that top management must inform employees that there are no hidden punishments for participating in knowledge transfer. Joia *et al.* (2010:410) report that systems that penalise those who make mistakes discourage the transfer of knowledge. Sie *et al.* (2009:175) support this view and claim that under normal circumstances an error at the workplace has instant repercussions and once that happens, it is rare for the learner to be given another chance to repeat. Therefore, knowledge transference should allow room for mistakes and failures. In addition, DeSimone *et al.* (2013:79) explain that the knowledge recipient is required to reconstruct and adapt knowledge of a complex nature, as well as an ambiguous one.

### **2.3.5.4      USE OF ACTIONS PLANS TO ENCOURAGE EFFECTIVE KNOWLEDGE TRANSFER**

McDowall *et al.* (2010:609) contend that the utilization of action-plans prompts knowledge transfer. An action plan refers to a planned document that outlines the relevant procedures that the transferor and receiver adopt to accelerate the transfer of knowledge (Mahapa, 2013:76). Action plans indicate the schedule of the progress check, focusing on the actual times and dates when the knowledge transferor and receiver organise to hold their meetings and teachings (Carina *et al.* 2008:366). Managers must oversee the checklists and topics scheduled to guarantee that the skills are transferred from the source to the recipient (Singh, 2014:28). Managers have to also embark on follow-ups with the receiver to check progression on the utilisation of the developed skills.

### **2.3.5.5 INTERPERSONAL RELATIONS TO ENCOURAGE EFFECTIVE KNOWLEDGE TRANSFER**

According to Hu *et al.* (2009:41), one of the most fundamental premises is that an experienced employee's willingness to transfer knowledge to or source knowledge from colleagues is shaped by the quality of interpersonal relations that exist between employees. Therefore, interpersonal-relations between employees should be encouraged (Kase, Paauwe and Zupan, 2009:615). Consequently, Coetzee *et al.* (2009:206) state that employees should be encouraged to disclose and exchange ideas freely, without cynicism or personal attacks. Conflict and poor interpersonal skills should be managed. Amrik (2014:2) highlights that successful knowledge transfer mostly needs the setting up of a sense of belonging amongst employees. Knowledge transfer is facilitated when parties hold similar social identities (Kang *et al.* 2014:758). Relationship distance describes the extent of connection of societal identities of the employees engaged in the transfer of knowledge. Werner *et al.* (2013:243) emphasise that knowledge-holders should be ready to share their experience and also embrace other people's ideas and skills.

The combination and the exchange of ideas are leveraged when a high level of trust is planted in employees' minds (Perez *et al.* 2015:176). Such exchange generates new-fangled knowledge through harnessing earlier untapped ideas or through reconnecting old ideas to be more valuable in a fashionable way (Wilkensmann *et al.* 2009:464). Furthermore, knowledge transfer can be made a social practice through leveraging rigorous technology means (Zvobgo and Chivivi, 2014:68). Employees prefer to share their knowledge in a social setting as the social atmosphere provides motivation in the form of intrinsic reward which may be more arousing than monetary rewards (Benmousaa, 2009:262). In every instance, Chen *et al.* (2010:228) states that the existence of supporting beliefs that stir the desire to develop ways of correcting errors and clearly transferring of knowledge to the workplace is essential. Forming a culture that cheers cooperation and accessibility to ideas is an important topic for knowledge transfer.

### **2.3.6 KNOWLEDGE TRANSFER PROCESS**

Carina *et al.* (2008:366) state that though knowledge transfer is also found in the Hospitality and Catering industry, it is carried out informally and spontaneously. Confusion infests the industry and employees are unaware of the value of knowledge, as well as the way they should handle it. Benmoussa (2009:262) suggests that employing a formal knowledge transfer process is vital in the company. Williams and Butler (2010:604) contend that the need to retain employees causes organisations to form a formal and systematic knowledge transfer system. According to Chen *et al.* (2010:228), unstructured, in an informal and unplanned process, and structured are two main facets of the processes of knowledge transfer. Malefetjane (2011:40) indicates that intra-organisational transfer of inner knowledge consists of four phases that follow a chronological order, namely the initiation phase, the implementation phase, the ramp-up phase and the integration phase. Problems are always experienced at every phase of the process (Chen *et al.* 2010:228).

#### **STAGE 1: INITIATION OF KNOWLEDGE TRANSFER**

Initiation stickiness is experienced once the knowledge gap and knowledge to fill such gap is obtained inside the firm (Joia *et al.* 2010:410). Malefetjane (2011:40) affirms that the first ground breaking is called the transfer seed and states that this is the initial stage that recognizes an improvement in the work systems or the discovery of new knowledge or the existence of a knowledge gap. Chen *et al.* (2010:228) report that the new knowledge discovery incorporates research for a prospective remedy to a problem.

#### **STAGE 2: IMPLEMENTATION OF KNOWLEDGE TRANSFER**

Malefetjane (2011:40) describes that the decision criterion as the second stage. Having chosen to transfer knowledge, the information exchange between the

knowledge transferor and receiver is the key emphasis (Malefetjane, 2011:40). Sie *et al.* (2009:175) posit that the knowledge transferor and receiver are likely to tie and agree on specific ideas to be transferred. Furthermore, Sie *et al.* (2009:175) highlight that information and resource flow increase and reach a peak at this stage. Chen *et al.* (2010:228) postulate that cultural values and language incongruities usually hinder the implementation stages success. Therefore, much attention is required to address the communication gap.

### **STAGE 3: RAMP-UP OF KNOWLEDGE TRANSFER**

Sie *et al.* (2009:175) state that as soon as the knowledge receiver starts to apply the knowledge acquired, then great strides are made in the identification and resolution of unforeseen difficulties that draw the receiver back from aligning and surpassing post transfer expectations. Malefetjane (2011:40) cautions that challenges are likely to be experienced at this stage due to ambiguous knowledge transfer practices in most businesses. Chen *et al.* (2010:228) propose that all challenges and constraints should be addressed to maintain satisfaction on the part of the receiver. Therefore, the ramp-up stage gives a comparatively precise window to address unpredicted predicaments.

### **STAGE 4: INTEGRATION OF KNOWLEDGE TRANSFER**

Malefetjane (2011:40) state that as soon as excellent results are achieved, routinization in the usage of the new knowledge steadily takes the stage. For social trends to recur in an organisation, a built-in progression of routines is required. According to Chen *et al.* (2010:228), new knowledge is routinised and blended into the organisation to systemize the knowledge transfer. However, Chen *et al.* (2010:26) argue that in case complications are encountered, the novel knowledge can be thrown away and revert to the earlier knowledge, if it is still possible. When the new knowledge pose more constraints, stoppage in its usage and integration is

ideal as it is not beneficial to the business. The integration phase is said to have achieved its purpose when all obstacles and strongholds to the knowledge routinisation are removed (Joia *et al.* 2010:410). Chen *et al.* (2010:228) highlight that the integration stage starts as soon as the receiver attains pleasing outcomes as a result of the transferred knowledge.

### **2.3.7 TYPES OF KNOWLEDGE TRANSFER**

Kase, Paawe and Zupan (2009:615) state that in an organisational context, knowledge transfer deals much with the management of knowledge workers and building their relations. According to Denson (2012:15), all employees that require constant learning are referred to as knowledge-workers and the term knowledge-worker is not limited to employees of a particular grade. Kang *et al.* (2014:758) suggest that the desire of employees to stay in the organisation lies in the extent to which they grasp transferred knowledge from both the within an organisation and in between departments. This means that employee retention resulting from the satisfaction of employees with the knowledge acquired is enhanced by knowledge transfer. For this reason, effective processes and methods of knowledge transfer need to be given more attention in order to increase the retention of employees in organisations. The main types of transferring the knowledge are: serial-transfer, near-transfer, far-transfer and strategic-transfer (Kang *et al.* 2014:758)

#### **2.3.7.1 SERIAL TRANSFER OF KNOWLEDGE**

The serial transfer of knowledge refers to the transfer of knowledge through a group that moves from place to place sharing its organizational experience and once finished its job in the first place it moves to the next place, until all places are reached (Kase *et al.* 2009:615). The team demonstrates the same skills and uses the uniform experiences of the knowledge which is exclusive to it but moves from one place to another (Masour *et al.* 2014:144). This happens because employees that work in the

kitchens of in most catering companies are usually found in different places. This method ensures that there are little to no errors and addresses the repetition of mistakes, since the cost is too high for organizations in the Hospitality and Catering industry. Consequently, the group becomes both the provider and the recipient of the knowledge, which can be explicit or tacit or both (Mishra, 2009:151).

#### **2.3.7.2 NEAR TRANSFER OF KNOWLEDGE**

Near transfer of knowledge implies the transference of expertise from the knowledge provider represented by a certain team to the receiver, which is another team that further transfers to others at a different location (DeSimone *et al.* 2013:79). Amrik (2014:2) states that this type of transfer ensures that standardized knowledge is delivered from one team to another. Dickman *et al.* (2011:310) highlight that this method of knowledge transfer mainly explicit-knowledge. For example, at Servcor Private Limited explicit-knowledge transfer is prevalent as the executive chef and the traditional food sections align to the operations manager.

#### **2.3.7.3 FAR TRANSFER OF KNOWLEDGE**

Nikandrou *et al.* (2009:255) state that this method focuses on the transference of tacit-knowledge inherent in expert-group's brains. DeSimone *et al.* (2013:79) highlight that the expert-group moves around with a purpose of assisting other groups to gain experiential knowledge which then delivered by the first team to the second team. For example, when a group travels to a distant place to learn about new dishes for cooking with the aim of transferring those abilities acquired to the following group, in this case, the tacit-knowledge remains in the initial group.



#### **2.3.7.4 STRATEGIC TRANSFER OF KNOWLEDGE**

The different levels between the transferor group and transferee group triggers complexity in the method of transferring knowledge (Coetzee *et al.* 2009:176). For example, the calibre of knowledge to handle novel service calls for a meeting to share opinions with divisions and sub-divisions of the organisation that may subsequently require a shared mission.

#### **2.3.8 INSTITUTIONALISING KNOWLEDGE TRANSFER**

According to Jashapara (2011:134), institutionalisation is a learning process to ensure that routinised actions occur because successful actions over time often become embedded in organisational routines. Chen *et al.* (2010:26) suggest that a developmental blueprint that involves the input of a knowledge worker is required in order to ensure that knowledge transfer takes place. Nikandrou *et al.* (2009:255) assert that the organisation should document the way employees can transfer knowledge. According to Nikandrou *et al.* (2009:255), the effectiveness of staff training rests on the continuous transference and application of learned skills by employees. Denson (2012:15) states that institutionalisation is important to ensure that the knowledge transfer process is continuously checked and abnormalities are nullified. Long-standing consistent behaviour towards knowledge transfer is the typical characteristic of institutionalisation. Carina *et al.* (2008:366) state that static-knowledge-view and dynamic-knowledge-view are two crucial knowledge facets in the Hospitality industry. The static-knowledge-view focuses on working with recognised routines, whereas a dynamic-knowledge-view demands the constant development of procedures (Carina *et al.* 2008:366).

Joia and Lemos (2010:410) emphasise that in institutionalisation, knowledge transference has to focus on the re-utilization of codified knowledge. The re-utilization of encoded knowledge implies that knowledge should be kept in the records of the database, where all employees within the organisation can have

access to it (Joia *et al.* 2010:410). It is critical to lay out a process that enables individuals to transfer and report their knowledge (Benmoussa, 2009:262). Mahapa (2013:76) supports this view and reports that the collection and recording of explicit and tacit knowledge is essential as is the need to channel for dialogue and the flow of views. Carina *et al.* (2008:366) caution that the quitting of experienced employees who have quality ideas to transfer to the other employees may cause the entire process of knowledge transfer to be discontinued. Therefore, Hospitality organisations may benefit from knowledge transfer systems when the process is codified (Carina *et al.* 2008:366).

#### **2.3.8.1 PROMOTION OF THE INSTITUTIONALISATION OF KNOWLEDGE TRANSFER**

To promote the institutionalisation of knowledge transfer, Atwood (2012:32) suggests that the organisation should prioritise knowledge written in organisational guidebooks and operating processes. As tacit knowledge is rarely codified, top management relies much on employees' experiences. Joia *et al.* (2010:410) warn that the knowledge worthiness lies in the ease of access, not in the individuals that own it. This means that knowledge only has value if it is used. Atwood (2012:38) affirms that for knowledge transfer to be institutionalised swiftly, it should be modeled by supervisors, managers and executives. Furthermore, Perez *et al.* (2015:167) emphasise that top management should encourage employees to expand the utilization value of the exchanged knowledge.

According to Mahapa (2013:76), by having employees participating in the knowledge transfer cycle where the sharing of knowledge takes place, absolute understanding can be gained as well as overall satisfaction of the employees. Hu *et al.* (2009:41) postulate that if Hospitality businesses clearly understand how knowledge is transferred, they can greatly improve the skills of employees. However Benmoussa (2009:262) states that most managers fail to create an atmosphere that encourages the sharing and usage of knowledge by all employees. An environment that

stimulates the transfer of knowledge is the key to eradicating the tendency of hoarding knowledge at the workplace by employees that fear risking their jobs (Nikandrou *et al.* 2009:255). Benmoussa (2009:262) states that management is required to assure personnel that no ideas get lost or stolen at the process of sharing with their workmates (Ding *et al.* 2013:69). Management must be in the forefront and be exemplary in knowledge transfer activities.

#### **2.3.8.2 LEARNING FOR THE INSTITUTIONALISATION OF KNOWLEDGE TRANSFER**

Wilkenmann and Wilkenmann (2011:96) describe knowledge transfer as an event in which an individual gains experiential learning from another. Kumar and Ganesh (2009:161) state that institutional knowledge transfer supports the application of current knowledge to accomplish the organisation's objectives. However, knowledge cannot be completely transferred at the same time since learning dwells in the progressive construction of knowledge on the part of the mind of the recipient (Wilkesnmann *et al.* 2011:96). For the organisation to insttutionalise knowledge transfer, intuiting at the individual level and interpreting and integrating at the group level should have taken place. In order to institutionalise knowledge transfer, Mansour *et al.* (2014:114) suggests that an adoption of continuous learning in which knowledge transfer catalyses the receiver's experience is needed in the organisation in order to configure the needs of the knowledge. Kumar *et al.* (2009:161) state that organisational learning is an outcome of knowledge transfer institutionalisation (Table 2.2).

**Table 2.2 Organisational learning framework**

Level of learning	Process of learning	Inputs/Outputs of learning
The individual level	Relates to intuiting	Metaphors Experiences Images
	Relates to interpreting	Dialogue Language Cognitive maps
The group level	Relates to integration	Interactive systems Shared understanding
The organizational level	Relates to institutionalisation	Rules and regulations Routines Diagnostic systems

**Source:** Carleton (2011:459). Adapted.

In Table 2.2 above, Gadille and Machado (2012:350) describe *intuiting* as it relates to the personal subconscious, which is termed theorising, practicing and particularising by experience. Carina *et al.* (2008:366) define *interpreting* as an explanation that incorporates the use of words and actions for someone to get an insight into the subject. *Interpretation* can be different to the same stimulus since employees develop their own minds. *Integrating* entails the development of mutual understanding and employing coordinated activities through mutual adjustments. For

the development of a greater understanding, group dialogue is very important activity. *Institutionalising* relates to the transmission of knowledge rooted in the minds of certain individuals or groups to the entire organisation (Mansour *et al.* 2014:114).

## **2.4 EMPLOYEE RETENTION**

Chen (2014:357) asserts that employee retention is a business aspect that requires continuous attention by management because a deep comprehension of how employees eventually reach the decision to leave is vital for the success of the business. According to Mahajan (2010:42), employee retention is an organisational effort to retain positively evaluated employees in an organisation to avoid spontaneous voluntary resignation. Davidson (2010:451) note that employee retention can be traced back to research conducted by March and Simon (1958:5) studied the relationship between organizational commitment and satisfaction with the job. Ajay *et al.* (2015:169) claim that recruiting qualified employees to fill spaces in the organisation is crucial to the employer but that the importance of retaining the employees is greater than recruiting them because many organisations are hunting those people. Normally, poorly satisfied employees end up leaving the job for other organisation that are seemingly better (Govaerts *et al.* 2011:35).

In the Hospitality industry, low employee retention is generally acknowledged to be larger in comparison with other industries (Mahajan, 2010:1). Kabote, Vengesayi, Mamimine and Mataruse (2014:65) state that the major challenge to organisations operating in the Hospitality and Catering industry is low employee retention as much of the turnover is due to movement within the industry. According to Wisikoti and Mutanga (2012:48), companies that are operating in the Hospitality industry, in particular in Harare Zimbabwe, are facing employee retention challenges. Servcor Private Limited has been experiencing high voluntary resignation since 2011. Khan, Mahmood, Ayoub and Hussain (2011:7) postulate that the industry thrives on semi-skilled and skilled employees, hence a dire need to retain those employees that are scarce. Wilton (2013:146) proposes that employee retention must be taken seriously in organisations. In actual fact, it should be considered as one of the management

goals in the Hospitality industry. Wilton (2013:146) further iterates that failure to take appropriate action can result in a horrible situation.

#### **2.4.1           EMPLOYEE RETENTION IN THE CONTEXT OF EMPLOYEE EMBEDDEDNESS**

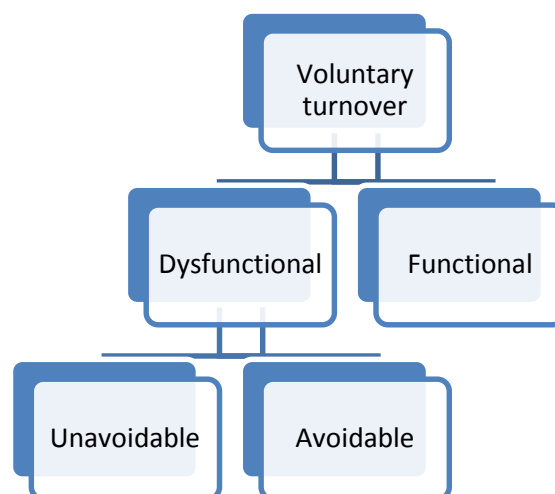
McWilliams (2011:70) states that numerous factors affecting how employees stay in the organisation are incorporated in the job embeddedness model. McWilliams (2011:70) identifies the main three criteria by which employees are retained within the organisation, namely links, fit and sacrifice. Links denotes an employee's planned and unofficial relations with workmates, such as when a mentee bonds with mentor (Mankin, 2009:141). Fit refers to the compatibility of the job of an employee with individual beliefs (Dickmann *et al.* 2011:159). Yang (2010:15) emphasises that employee fitness on the job significantly lowers job quit. Sacrifice focuses on disadvantages that befall an individual as a result of leaving the job. For example, benefits of training can be lost (Jepngetich *et al.* 2013:652). The employee's embeddedness is indicated by a simultaneous combination of sacrifice, fit and links at the same time.

Presently, the profitability and competitive of the organisation is achieved through the retention of skilled employees (Chen, 2014:357). Rothwell (2010:143) supports this view and warns that when experienced employees leave an organisation, they take their experiences and their institutional memory with them. Dismissal, voluntary resignation and retirement are three key aspects showing how the way employees leave their companies (Baruah *et al.* 2013:9). Voluntary resignation refers to an individual's decision to leave, whereas dismissal and retirement are driven by the organisation (Chen, 2014:357).

## 2.4.2 POOR EMPLOYEE RETENTION CATEGORIES

Chen *et al.* (2010:41) state that pull and push are the major motives influencing the turnover of employees. Dissatisfaction with a job is referred to as a push motive, whereas the availability of a competitive chance to develop a career in outside organisations is termed a pull motive. Davidson *et al.* (2010:498) state that though voluntary and involuntary turnover have been pointed out as two types of employee turnover, Kuria, Peter and Alice (2011:195) extend the classifications of employee turnover through the addition of more two versions, namely dysfunctional-turnover and functional-turnover. According to Kabote *et al.* (2014:65), voluntary turnover is when employees decide to leave of their own will, as illustrated in Figure 2.5 below. Davidson, Timo and Wang (2010:498) caution that voluntary turnover is treated as a major problem that requires attention. Therefore, employees leave if they are unhappy with their jobs and if job alternatives are available. Kabote *et al.* (2014:65) are of the opinion that staff attrition can force the few employees to overwork in an attempt to fill the void left by employees who have resigned. This can contribute to more resignations by the remaining staff due to the overload factor (Sasmita and Kalyani, 2014:94). Figure 2.5 below depicts the classes of voluntary turnover.

**Figure 2.5 Voluntary Turnover classification scheme**



**Source:** Allen and Bryant (2013.2013:5). Adapted.

In relation to Figure 2.5 above, Allen *et al.* (2013:5) state that dysfunctional and functional turnover are two further categories worth discussing. Voluntary turnover that causes problems for the organisation is dysfunctional (Chan and Kuok, 2011:142). This may encompass the exit of qualified skilled employees, the leaving of department gurus or the excessive leaving of employees from any level in the organisation that results in a disruption of production. Wilton (2013:146) emphasises that dysfunctional labour turnover is likely to cost the organisation when a less experienced employee replaces an experienced worker. Ajay and Amitava (2015:168) affirm that the lion's share of turnover due to dissatisfaction of employees is not desirable.

Allen *et al.* (2013:5) attest that voluntary turnover can positively impact the functioning of the business. Examples might include the leaving of slackers or the leaving of employees that necessitate the organisation matching costs with current business performance. Wilton (2013:146) affirms that functional turnover may open doors for flesh-blood employees. Fresh-blood employees are first timers within an organisation who usually bring new ideas and knowledge into the organisation (Chan and Kuok, 2011:142). Chen *et al.* (2010:41) are of the view that turnover can be very welcome to employees that do not fit properly or are ill-suited in the organisation. Hence, not all employee turnover is bad. This means that sometimes organisations even encourage employees to leave to get rid of slackers in the organisation (Choi and Dickson, 2009:103).

#### **2.4.2.1 VOLUNTARY TURNOVER OF EMPLOYEES IN ORGANISATIONS**

Blomme, Rheede and Tromp (2010:144) suggest that with regard to voluntary turnover it may be interesting to notice most exiting employees' reasons for exiting, as well as the organisations they are leaving for. Chan *et al.* (2011:421) report that in the ambit of voluntary turnover, that is when an employee comes up with an ultimate choice to leave, there is unavoidable and avoidable turnover. Allen *et al.* (2013:5) emphasise that unavoidable and avoidable turnover are the main reasons of



employees exiting organisations. Usually, avoidable turnover is perpetuated by factors that are controllable by organisations (Jepngetich *et al.* 2013:653). Examples include inadequate growth opportunities and poor training and development. However, Werner, Shuler and Jackson (2013:177) highlight that to some extent, even though the organisation can bring everything to employees' tables they still exit the company for motives beyond the control of the company. Furthermore, Werner, Shuler *et al.* (2013:177) state that some employee turnover is unavoidable, even in the best organisations. Examples of unavoidable turnover may include turnover driven by health problems. McWilliams (2011:70) advises that organisations should maintain an optimal point between too much turnover with excessive replacement costs, reduced efficiency and loss of knowledge and too little turnover which promotes inflexible and change-averse organisations.

### **2.4.3 THE COST OF POOR EMPLOYEE RETENTION**

Werner *et al.* (2013:153) state that turnover poses intangible costs in connection with hiring an employee and tangible costs which are all the costs that can be quantified in monetary value. Allen *et al.* (2013:5) express a similar view and claim that turnover costs can be classified into separation costs and replacement costs. When somebody leaves, there are usually direct separation costs for overtime or temporary employees to cover the exiting employee's duties in the short-run, as well as accrued time off. Lower morale amongst overworked employees who must pick up the extra work created when a colleague leaves; lost knowledge that only the departing employees has; and the business contacts that the departing employees may have been able to use to build the business are all part of the cost of turnover (Choi *et al.* 2009:103). Nivethitha *et al.* (2014:35) highlight that there may also be a myriad of indirect or intangible costs associated with turnover, such as organizational memory, teamwork disruptions, loss of productivity or diminished diversity. There may also be separation costs associated with replacing the departing employee, namely costs associated with induction, hiring, selection and even costs associated with poor quality and productivity (Davidson *et al.* 2010:451). Employer turnover costs include the expenses associated with the costs generated by replacing unqualified workers,

for instance errors on paperwork and products spoiled (Chen *et al.* 2010:41). Especially in the Hospitality and Catering industry, many organisation lose clients simply because an employee who is favoured by clients leaves (Blomme *et al.* 2010:144).

## **2.5 STAFF TRAINING AND EMPLOYEE RETENTION**

Govaerts, Kyndt, Dochy and Baert (2011:35) state that staff training is considered an important retention-enhancing strategy. Amrik (2014:5) highlights that a majority of employees expect staff training to build their career paths. Jepngetich and Njue (2013:652) affirm that the most preferred organisation is where the largest number of employees crave to work and stay. Jepngetich *et al.* (2013:652) postulate that to become the most preferred organisation, training and development should be provided. Khan (2011:7) reports that a study carried out in Serena Faiblbad, indicated that the main reason employees exited the luxury hotel was superior training offered by competitors. Poornima (2009:26) claim that in organisations where employees receive valued training to develop their career paths, turnover is rarely experienced. It is essential to note that the organisation can only enjoy the benefits of its extensive training if employees value it and stay in the organisation (Choi *et al.* 2009:103).

### **2.5.1 STAFF TRAINING ENCOURAGES EMPLOYEE RETENTION**

Ajay *et al.* (2015:168) state that organisations should focus on job security, compensation, staff training and the environment of the workplace in order to retain employees. Das *et al.* (2013:8) posit that staff training is a typical strategy of retention that constitutes a significant margin in retaining employees. Joan (2012:5) highlights that one of the important aspects for employees is investment in training and career development. Khawaja (2013:51) affirms that staff training stirs employees through the provision of all the necessary information required to perform

their work. Khawaja (2013:51) reiterates that staff training is the key to promoting united employees and competitiveness at the workplace. The retention of employees is actually compromised by the absence of staff training (Mapelu *et al.* 2013:43). Poornima (2009:26) is of the view that employees are more motivated by non-financial rewards, such as staff training, to remain in the organisation.

Boella *et al.* (2014:105) assert that the stress challenges of employees in the Hospitality industry can be reduced by giving formal training to staff in such matters as technical skills, interpersonal skills and behavioural skills. These possible remedies are all focused on the ultimate aim of retaining the most skilled and competent workers within the industry (Amrik, 2014:2). Boella *et al.* (2014:105) caution that chefs tend to leave their current jobs in a planned and strategic manner, aiming for personal professional skills development by learning from renowned chefs in other organisations. Werner *et al.* (2013:156) support this view and claim that most employees look for an organisation that will assist them to build skills that are of value to their long-term careers. Therefore, if an organisation considers the career development of employees, turnover rates are likely to be lower (Choi *et al.* 2009:103). Mudor and Tooksoon (2011:41) caution that trained employees can quit easily again when their skill upgrade is without commensurate increase in pay.

#### **2.5.1.1 LOYALTY AS A RESULT OF STAFF TRAINING**

A problematic area for management in addressing staff retention is training and development (Wilton, 2013:146). Furthermore, Wilton (2013:146) states that developing employee skills contribute to favourable psychological contracts. Kase *et al.* (2009:615) postulate that formal training opportunities are crucial to knowledge workers. It must be noted that even though providing training is a potentially two-edged sword for organisations, failure to give progressive, satisfactory staff training will result in employees leaving anyway (Mudor and Tooksoon, 2011:41). Joan (2012:1) points out that in a continuous cycle, insufficient staff training may cause not only high staff turnover but also contributes to other workplace challenges, thereby

aggravating turnover and reinforcing the cycle. Top management in the Hospitality industry needs to be aware that high turnover can probably lead to other negative effects on their employees (Yang, 2010:15).

Investing in staff training yields many benefits, particularly improved employee retention (Mudor *et al.* 2011:41). In the 21<sup>st</sup> century, employees expect skill development and career advancement in exchange for their efforts (Nivethitha *et al.* 2014:35). Employees may be less likely to consider changing jobs if their current employers offered greater training and development opportunities (Sasmita and Kalyani, 2014:94). Mapelu *et al.* (2013:35) note that in modern times, employees prioritise and value career adaptability. Employees need development opportunities from the employer, which determines whether to stay in the organisation or to leave (Mapelu *et al.* 2013:35).

#### **2.5.1.2 SATISFACTION OF EMPLOYEES AS A RESULT OF STAFF TRAINING**

Chen (2014:357) advocates that for qualified employees to remain in the firm longer, effective staff training is required because the majority of employees strive to acquire new knowledge in order to qualify for new responsibilities. Staff training stimulates an employee and builds loyalty since it instills the feeling that the organisation is assisting them to accomplish their career ambitions. According to Samson-kuria (2012:394), systematic staff training opportunities have to be provided to employees in order to improve their competencies and capabilities and motivate them to remain in the organisation for long periods. Amrik (2014:2) emphasises that any finance invested in training should be treated as a valuable investment, with expectations of extensive benefits in the long run. Ghosh, Satyawadi, Josh, Ranjan and Singh (2012:194) state that usually, employees do not feeling equally competitive with their counterparts in the industry in terms of career development if they are not learning. Therefore, Dochy, Michelson and Moetaert (2009:195) state that employees start hunting for opportunities outside the organisation because there is no means for

growth. Nivethitha, Dyaram and Kamalabhan (2014:35) advise that to increase bonding between employees and the organisation, management should channel money towards employee development. Staff training creates opportunities of promotion and competencies, thereby increasing the internal employability for employees (Nivethitha *et al.* 2014:35).

Staff training can increase retention when it meets the needs of employees (Amrik, 2014:2). Ghosh *et al.* (2012:194) claim that meeting employee needs through training occurs when delivered information seems valuable and useful in the minds of employees. If the organisation is serious about retaining its employees, it has to provide more training and development that is considered useful. Ghosh *et al.* (2012:194) note that mostly employees exit the organisation with crucial trade secrets of their employers, thereby exposing the employer to counter attack by competitors.

## **2.5.2 STAFF TRAINING DISCOURAGES EMPLOYEE RETENTION**

McDowall *et al.* (2010:609) highlight that a considerable number of employers do not provide staff training, because of the belief that staff training benefits other firms when employees leave the organisation after training. Walker and Miller (2013:334) support this view and claim that employees leave just as they get trained, meaning that the employer spends all the time, money and effort for nothing. Walker *et al.* (2013:334) reiterate that training does not eradicate turnover but only decreases it, because the Hospitality industry is characterized by high recruiting and high quitting rates in general. Wilton (2013:146) states that training improves the skills of employees and hence increases their employability outside the organisation. This usually happens when organisations provide employees with transferable skills instead of organisation-specific skills (Wilton, 2013:146). Nivethitha *et al.* (2014:35) are also of the view that these properly developed employees are frequently headhunted by other organisation and are likely to be offered high positions. This contention is in line with the argument by Nnema *et al.* (2013:571) who state that

employers are unwilling to empower their workers with training in case they subsequently leave the organisation.

Davidson *et al.* (2010:451) indicate that employees in the Hospitality industry adopt a norm that they enter the industry for only a short period due to scarce opportunities for career growth. King (2009:5) raises similar concerns and warns that many organisations see staff training as a mere wastage of resources since they are witnessing serious mobility of employees. Allen *et al.* (2013:71) assert that staff training is seen as two-edged sword in terms of turnover. Management fears that training can increase employees' mobility and in particular, these trained employees may be attractive to competitors. Wilton (2013:146) warns that if training is not cautiously handled the investment in training may benefit competitors as they get already-skilled-employees. Allen *et al.* (2013:71) postulate that human capital theory shows that training of employees on general skills is likely to increase turnover.

### **2.5.3 PRINCIPLES OF STAFF TRAINING FOR EMPLOYEE RETENTION**

The following are four principles of staff training in order to increase employee retention (Allen *et al.* 2013:72):

- Managers should provide employees with training opportunities to reduce the propensity to turnover (Mapelu *et al.* 2013:43);
- Less market mobility is associated with more job-specific training and development (Chen, 2014:354). This creates a low turnover environment where job-specific training is coupled with internal career advancement opportunities;
- Staff training and its impact on tenure and employee retention (Khan, Mahmood, Ayoub and Hussain, 2011:7); and
- Training supervisors and managers, especially in effective leadership and management skills, can increase retention amongst frontline employees, supervisors and managers (Dauti, 2015:141).

### **2.5.3.1 PROVIDING TRAINING OPPORTUNITIES TO INCREASE EMPLOYEE RETENTION**

Staff training retards any preconceived desire to leave the firm (Mapelu *et al.* 2013:46). Staff training builds a positive perception amongst employees that the firm cares about them (Singh, 2014:28). Employee morale is boosted, which ultimately reduces the chances of them leaving the organisation (Ahammad, 2013:10). Peng, Moffett and McAdam (2014:259) caution that employees also leave just after receiving staff training if they realise that there are no prospects of developing their careers in the organisation. For this reason, Bagri, Babu and Kukreti (2010:286) emphasise that staff training should be associated with career growth.

### **2.5.3.2 JOB-SPECIFIC TRAINING TO REDUCE EMPLOYEE MOBILITY**

Ajay and Amitava (2015:168) suggest that training and development opportunities that increase employees' general skills may also increase retention. Allen *et al.* (2013:72) advocate that one way to increase employees' skills and abilities without increasing their external mobility is to offer less general and more job-specific training. According to Allen *et al.* (2013:72), external mobility refers to the ease of movement to another firm. Job specific training is training specific to the procedures and processes of the organisation that is not easily transferable to other organisations (Choi *et al.* 2009:103). This job specific training can satisfy a valuable employee's desire for career advancement only if there are viable options for internal mobility means, that is, mobility within the current employer (Khawaja, 2013:51). Therefore, job-specific training can increase retention provided employees notice a valid linkage of internal career with staff training in the organisation.

### **2.5.3.3 STAFF TRAINING AND ITS IMPACT ON TENURE AND RETENTION**

Allen *et al.* (2013:72) attest that if general knowledge is the outcomes of staff training, it is wise to tie training and development opportunities to tenure requirements. This training can result in lower turnover because it has multiple advantages of being job specific training tied to tenure requirements and opportunities for rapid career development (Mapelu *et al.* 2013:43).

### **2.5.3.4 TRAINING SUPERVISORS AND MANAGERS MAY INCREASE RETENTION AT ALL LEVELS**

Joan (2012: 15) states that employers should train supervisors and managers in employee management and leadership skills. Joan (2012: 15) also states that immediate management contribute immensely to the staying in or quitting of the organisation. Training of management may increase morale and also increase retention (Singh, 2014:28). Providing managers with personnel management skills such as workforce diversity and employee performance appraisal reduced turnover from 89% to 57% in one year (Allen *et al.* 2013:72). Therefore, training supervisors and managers in both human resource and technical related skills can increase retention amongst the ranks of supervisors, managers and frontline employees.

### **2.5.4 SOCIAL EXCHANGE THEORY AND ITS RELATIONSHIP WITH STAFF TRAINING AND EMPLOYEE RETENTION**

The social exchange theory is based on unsupported evidence that outlines what employees and employers assume and expect from each other (McDowall *et al.* 2010:609). Nivethitha *et al.* (2014:35) explain that there is a perception that employees feel they owe the employer if training is provided, and employers owe them if training is not provided. Allen *et al.* (2013:5) indicate that expectations of



reciprocity encourage positive attitudes towards work. Wang (2013:278) emphasises that the use of social exchange theory investigates the exchanges between employer and employee and that in the event that they get support from the organisation in for instance staff training, they can eventually build bonds with their employer and hence feel indebted to return through loyalty. Davidson *et al.* (2010:498) reinforce the view that the social exchange theory refers to expectation of either giving or receiving from each other with regard to staff training relations. McDowall *et al.* (2010:609) state that fostering staff training is vital in keeping the best employees rather than predominantly depending on monetary compensation. McDowall *et al.* (2010:609) affirm that mobile employees seek staff training that can assist them to align to the current environment.

Perez *et al.* (2015:167) claim that in social exchange theory, employees assume that employers provide them with staff training that advances their career ambitions. Providing valuable staff training can be viewed as a great concern (Joo, 2010:69). Since staff training provision expresses that employers value employees. The views of caring for employees provoke an obligatory feeling, to be loyal and to stay longer in the organisation (Werner *et al.* 2013:156). Amrik (2014:2) proposes that systematic training cuts work pressures due to improved skills, thereby increasing enjoyment at work. Training increases the self-confidence by reducing doubts, which makes employees like work more (Amrik, 2014:2). The growth in the value of training upholds numerous benefits and the training value is evident to both the employers and employees. Nivethitha *et al.* (2014:35) state that a lack of staff training opportunities in the Hospitality and Catering industry make employees leave their job.

## **2.6 STAFF TRAINING AND KNOWLEDGE TRANSFER**

Malefetjane (2011:41) indicates that knowledge maps, storytelling, videotaping, story boards, process documentation, after action reviews and staff training are typical enablers of knowledge transfer which can be an individual, group or organisational level. For staff training, Grant (2012:129) clarifies that knowledge can be transferred

through facilitated technical training (during project period); shadow posting; on the job training; encouraging key personnel to attend international conferences; and seminars. Dickmann *et al.* (2011:281) highlight that the effectiveness of different types of training on knowledge transfer depends on whether what is being taught are facts or skills. Dickmann *et al.* (2011:281) further content that if employees are to learn facts and work rules, lectures are effective. However, if employees are to acquire abilities that may include communication skills or utilising new equipment, then discussion and role playing work better. Kase *et al.* (2009:615) assert that much unplanned knowledge transfer can be facilitated by employing mentoring and coaching. The common aspect between mentoring and coaching is their transference of knowledge from a qualified employee to a junior, less experienced employee. Joia *et al.* (2010:410) highlight that the transfer of tacit knowledge is usually encouraged by mentoring and coaching. According to Carina *et al.* (2008:366), knowledge transfer through on-the-job mentoring, in particular tacit knowledge, can refine interpersonal and customer-care skills in the Hospitality and Catering industry. According to Lee *et al.* (2010:473), the process of mentoring is the key to knowledge transfer. The interpersonal transfer of knowledge is fueled by coaching and mentoring.

### **2.6.1 TACIT KNOWLEDGE AND EXPLICIT KNOWLEDGE AS A RESULT OF STAFF TRAINING**

Nikandrou *et al.* (2009:255) emphasise that staff training should be welcomed and integrate formal and informal sources of knowledge. Mankin (2009:36) asserts that employees acquire novel competencies during the training, both tacit knowledge and explicit knowledge. The chief objective of staff training is to ensure that employees acquire necessary competencies, as well as the application of those skills on the daily basis (Amrik, 2014:2). Joia *et al.* (2010:410) highlight that explicit knowledge is normally exchanged through formal training such as classes and presentations. Codified knowledge transference, where procedure and rules are made, can best be facilitated by formal training. This type of training is appropriate for codified

knowledge transference, such as rules and procedures. Tests are used to measure the level of knowledge absorbed and acquired.

Kase *et al.* (2009:615) state that management always aim to provide broad staff training rather than skills-based-training to promote experiential learning. Kase *et al.* (2009:615) emphasise the knowledge-related benefit of staff training as it facilitates the development of sound social relations which may encourage employees to share knowledge in the future. According to Hu *et al.* (2009:43), reliable knowledge transfer in the Hospitality industry setting is stimulated through direct interaction between employees. Hu (2009:43) further clarify that direct communication between mentor and mentee promotes the inherent transfer of tacit knowledge. Appaw-agbola, *et al.* (2011:115) highlight that there is dominance of on-the-job training in the Hospitality and Catering industry since it enables employees to immediately transfer knowledge and skills acquired in the work situation.

## **2.6.2 ABSORPTION AND USAGE OF KNOWLEDGE ENSURES KNOWLEDGE TRANSFER**

Joia and Lemes (2010:410) affirm that knowledge transfer depends on the way in which the firm values staff training for their workers. However, Daghfous *et al.* (2015:158) elucidate that attending a seminar cannot guarantee that an employee acquired all the knowledge successfully. Daghfous *et al.* (2015:158) further state that absorbing and using knowledge are vital aspects of knowledge that goes beyond the transmission of knowledge. Moreover, the application of knowledge is totally different from the assimilation and understanding of knowledge. Mahapa (2013:76) states that for easy capturing of tacit knowledge, workshops and seminars are the best. Discussions can be a platform for capturing tacit knowledge as tacit knowledge can be captured during the discussions. According to Carina *et al.* (2008:366), in Hospitality and Catering organisations a significant margin of knowledge is acquired through communications with competitor's employees and also through team seminars. As a result, employees become skillful and gain knowledge about the

Hospitality and Catering business. However, Benmoussa (2009:262) warns that codification of tacit knowledge produces information which may be of no use since it is challenging to comprehend, trivial and inaccurate. Dickmann *et al.* (2011:159) highlight that staff training is offered for technical jobs with clearly defined procedures where the job situation itself supports immediate knowledge transfer. Dickmann *et al.* (2011:159) further illustrate that the chef must use the menu ingredients skills promptly on return to the job. In these situations, the practice problems can be identified promptly and appropriate corrective actions taken quickly. However, Govaerts *et al.* (2011:35) argue that staff training that is offered in complex, less clearly defined skills, for example interpersonal communications, the opportunity to apply new skills may not arise immediately to support transfer of those skills. This is because practical problems may not be identified easily and corrective actions could never be taken in an organised way.

## **2.7 STAFF TRAINING, EMPLOYEE RETENTION AND KNOWLEDGE TRANSFER**

Allen *et al.* (2013:72) affirm that employers need to ensure that once trained, their employees are afforded the chance to utilize the new abilities in the advancement of their own careers. Nikandrou *et al.* (2009:255) indicates that when an organisation provides a platform for sharing experiential learning, teamwork is propped up, which in turn allows retention to blossom. Nikandrou *et al.* (2009:255) further highlights that the satisfaction of the knowledge receiver has to be ensured since this can decrease the resistance to adaptation and usage of the knowledge, as well as lead to a reduction in repetition. If only the receiver sufficiently understands knowledge and adapts it to allow its use, it will ultimately increase motivation. According to Carina *et al.* (2008:366), an inspired standpoint is the view that a growth in knowledge transfer brings a social glue that stimulates top management together with employees to work in harmony to accomplish organisational goals. Carina *et al.* (2008:366) state that the existence of tacit knowledge is a crucial social glue that makes people function together. Staff training must assist to widen employees' abilities so that they can feel confidence to share their knowledge with their peers. Together with the use of

training and development programmes should help to develop the general level of self-efficacy amongst organisational employees so that they feel more assured of their abilities and will be more likely to exchange knowledge with others.

Perez *et al.* (2015:167) assert that managers attempt to boost employees' desire to share their knowledge to avoid knowledge loss if a specific employee leaves the organisation. Joan (2012:2) stresses the importance of training to employees as the acquisition of competencies and abilities is becoming the need of daily life. Carina *et al.* (2008:366) highlight that the Hospitality and Catering industry requires non-stop development because it is regarded as a knowledge intensive sector. Great value is placed on training that is respected by employees' managers and colleagues.

## **2.8 CONCLUSION**

The literature indicates that staff training is effective for knowledge transfer, as well as retention of employees. Wilton (2013:146) suggests the staff training is one of the tools that top management should take seriously in order to retain their employees. Failure to do this may pose problems for the organisation as employees quit and join competitors. Although the literature reveals that staff training plays an important role to knowledge transfer, hoarding of knowledge by knowledge transferors becomes worrisome and a very big concern. Despite the prevalence of on-the-job training in the Hospitality and Catering industry, it appears that the appointed mentors and coaches are hoarding essential knowledge and only deliver valueless knowledge in order to maintain authority over the overall work.

## **CHAPTER 3**

### **RESEARCH METHODOLOGY AND DESIGN**

#### **3.1 INTRODUCTION**

According to Stokes (2011:110), research methodology relates to the approach and philosophy that is employed to fully comprehend, examine and study the field of research and phenomena. Anderson (2013:52) attests that research is crucial in an organisation to discover new information and knowledge that encourages innovation and creativity. This stimulates organisations to remain competitive in an ever-turbulent market. This chapter discusses in detail the methodology and design of the research. The chapter discusses the research design, population under investigation, data collection procedures, instrumentation to be utilised for the research, validity and reliability testing. The maintenance and assurance of ethics is also discussed in this chapter.

#### **3.2 PRINCIPLES OF RESEARCH DESIGN**

Walliman (2011:171) affirms that the research study is mainly designed according to three types, namely mixed, quantitative and qualitative methods. According to Yin (2009:33), based on grounded theory, characteristics of qualitative research incorporate softness, dependence, speculation and flexibility. In contrast, Scheyvens (2014:2) states that the testing of hypotheses, surveying, fixedness, hardness and independence are some of the key characteristics of quantitative research. Fredrick *et al.* (2012:158) report that a number of quantitative design proponents dispute qualitative design's accuracy in delivering the correct results. Daniel (2012:83) attests that the objectives of the researcher should be the base and criteria that determine the research method to be selected.

Furthermore, Sekaran *et al.* (2010:103) are of the view that a study can take the nature of hypotheses testing, descriptive or ethnographic. There are several types of research that can be carried out. According to Brynard, Hanelcom and Brynard (2014:33), an ethnographic is the first type, which is the study of human behavior.

This type of research is carried out to reveal participants' cultures and in this case data is collected from certain groups of people within their real setting (Sekaran and Bougie, 2010:103). The second type of study is an action study which is used to describe interactive research. The researcher applies the skills in order to iteratively diagnose, action change and continuously evaluate research in a cyclical process. The third type of study is the descriptive study. This type of study is used to depict a true picture of the situation on which the researcher needs to collect data (Maree, Creswell, Ebersohn, Ellof, Ferreira, Ivankova, Jansen, Niewenhuis, Pieterse, Plano Clark and van der Westhuizen, 2009:291). Descriptive research describes the population's characteristics and structure and usually answers questions related to who and how, which are included in the research study (Peter, 2011:114). Full comprehension of the nature of the research problem facilitates the use of descriptive research (Voordijk, 2011:338). A descriptive study is conducted to give an account on the variables' characteristics within a given setting (Gray, 2014:351).

### **3.3 RESEARCH DESIGN**

According to Leedy and Ormrod (2010:2), research entails gathering, examining and evaluating of information systematically in order to have an in-depth understanding of the phenomenon of concern. Stokes (2011:110) notes that there is no specific technique for planning research. The design relates to the description of procedures to carry out the study, mainly focusing on circumstances under which the data is obtained. The design of research is determined by the idea of fitness for purpose. The research goals determine the methodology and design of the study. According to Wisker (2009:20), the research design is chosen based on the skills and practices of the research that impact the researcher's techniques for the collection of data. Denscombe (2010:4) notes two fundamental purposes of designing research. Firstly, it allows the researcher to develop techniques and arrange the logistics required to conduct the research. Secondly, it guarantees the objectivity and accuracy of the study through the maintenance of quality procedures. In this study, the quantitative research design is used to test the effectiveness of staff training on knowledge transfer and employee retention.

### **3.4 THE CASE STUDY APPROACH**

Scheyvens (2014:2) states that a case study is an in-depth analysis of a singular episode, entity or unit with boundaries. Case study research method was selected for this study. The study focused on the effectiveness of staff training on knowledge transfer and employee retention as a case study. Case studies are research method approach in which the researcher explores a single phenomenon restricted by activity and time (Creswell, 2008:12). The case study approach is the most appropriate description of the research method being used to conduct an in-house investigation at Servcor Private Limited.

### **3.5 QUANTITATIVE RESEARCH**

According to Anderson (2013:130), quantitative research is a research process that uses data of a numerical nature, systematically and objectively, from a chosen subsection of the population to generalize the outcomes of the research to the entire population. Scheyvens (2014:41) states that research of a quantitative nature displays connections between current theory and the actual research. Quantitative research uses a structured questionnaire in which options of responses are pre-coded. Scheyvens (2014:41) further states that quantitative research is linked to closed-ended questions. A quantitative study helps to define the relationship and significance of the dependent and independent variables or constructs in the study. Creswell (2009:175) posits that quantitative research tests, through statistical measures and analyses numeric data in order to scrutinize the correlation between variables. Gray (2014:351) postulates that in quantitative research, the researcher is expected to construct mathematical expressions which indicate the variables' relationships and interpret data that relates to the research problem. Denscombe (2010:4) highlights that a quantitative study necessitates mathematically defined procedures that allow the evaluation of the population structure within a small margin of error to the researcher. Moreover, quantitative research is usually adopted to construct statistical graphs and is the best approach for technique of collecting data, such as questionnaires.



### **3.6 PRIMARY DATA**

Primary data relates to the direct collection of data on given variables, with the aim of accomplishing a certain objectives of the research study (Brynard, Hanekom and Brynard, 2014:33). According to Adam (2009:4), first-hand information gathered by the researcher is called primary data. Questionnaires and interviews are typical techniques of collecting primary data. Questionnaires of a closed-ended nature (Annexure B) were utilised to gather primary data in this study.

### **3.7 SECONDARY DATA**

Secondary data is defined as information that was gathered by a certain person for a particular purpose of the research (Dan, 2012:122). Brynard, Hanekom and Brynard (2014:33) concur with this assertion and claim that secondary data refers to data gathered from sources that already exist. For the effectiveness of the study, valuable facts are needed on the area of research. This data was collected by reviewing text books, the Internet, journal articles, media articles, reports, government publications, trade magazines and periodicals.

### **3.8 TARGET POPULATION**

Carrie and Kelvin (2014:33) describe the target population as the totality of all elements, individuals or entities with an identifiable boundary consisting of specific well-defined characteristics. Wellman and Kruger (2003:119) define target population as the number of possible respondents that could be included in the research study. One of the tasks of the researcher is to identify and adequately describe the population to which the results are intended to apply (Jan *et al.* 2012:43). The target population for this study includes all employees except top management at Servcor Private Limited. Hence, the target population comprised 240 employees.

### **3.9 SAMPLING TECHNIQUES**

According to Jan *et al.* (2012:43), sampling is the process of choosing the right individuals or objects from the sampling frame, which is representative of the entire

population. A sampling procedure draws a representation of the sample that incorporates every element around the globe (Yin, 2009:33). Scheyvens (2014:45) highlights that all sampling methods fall under two typical techniques, non-probability and probability. For a research study to have a sample which is good, equal inclusion opportunity to the study should be afforded to each element within the target population. Denscombe (2010:4) emphasises that the recognition of a study stands or falls not only by the appropriateness of the methodology and instrumentation, but also by the suitability of the sampling technique that has been chosen. A discussion of probability and non-probability follows.

### **3.9.1 PROBABILITY SAMPLING TECHNIQUES**

According to Anderson (2013:130), the determination of a statistically representative sample of the entire population is important. Leedy and Ormrod (2010:204) define probability sampling as a process of randomly choosing samples from a population where equal selection opportunity of each element of the population is maintained. Loseke (2013:104) attests that members of the sample are wholly randomly selected where the procedure of selection is unbiased. The most appropriate technique of choosing a representative sample of the target population is probability sampling (Sekaran *et al.* 2010:270). Saunders *et al.* (2009:156) state that a big sample allows for drawing more representatives for the selection of a sample. In simple terms, a bigger sample has less incidence of sampling errors. In contrast, smaller sample may not give adequate room for generalization. Jan *et al.* (2012:43) mention simple random, systematic, stratified, cluster and multiphase as sampling techniques under probability sampling that apply to quantitative studies. This study utilised systematic sampling to select the sample. Peter (2011:10) states that systematic sampling entails the selection of every *n*th member that constitutes the frame of the sample. Systematic sampling draws the selection of a given size of the sample with minimum errors (Best, 2012:5).

### **3.9.2 NON-PROBABILITY SAMPLING TECHNIQUES**

According to Anderson (2013:130), non-probability sampling techniques include snowball sampling, convenience sampling, quota sampling and judgemental

sampling. The population elements in non-probability sampling have unequal selection opportunities (Walliman, 2011:5). The probability of selecting elements within the population is unknown. Daniel (2012:83) also expresses concern that non-probability sampling techniques produce a selection that may be biased and non-representative of the target population.

### **3.10 SELECTION OF THE SAMPLE**

Willemse (2009:19) states that the sample design refers to the technique that is utilized in sample population selection. Willemse (2009:19) further states that the sample size is determined by population size, population variation and sampling mistakes. Anderson (2013:130) reports that the sample size and selection is vital to the usefulness of any survey and the truthfulness of the findings. Systematic sampling will be used as the preferred type of probability sampling for this research. According to Yin (2009:33), systematic sampling affords every element of the population equal opportunity to be incorporated in the sample. The sample in this study will be selected by picking every odd number from the list of employees' names, which comprised 240 elements. The source list of all employees was obtained from the Human Resources Department at Servcor Private Limited. Thus, using the systematic sampling technique, a sample of 120 respondents were selected.

### **3.11 QUESTIONNAIRE CONSTRUCTION**

A questionnaire is a combination of questions that focus on a particular subject and respondents are requested by the researcher to complete them (Stokes, 2011:104). The researcher will utilise a questionnaire that is close-ended. Thesesa *et al.* (2013:91) purport that the usage of questionnaires is the preferred instrument for collecting data in quantitative research. According to Fredrick *et al.* (2012:301), the use of the questionnaire benefits the study as it provides the participants with enough time to think before the response is finalised. The research instrument consists of two parts, namely a covering letter to the respondents (Annexure A) and the final questionnaire with instructions (Annexure B)

In this study, the questionnaire has two sections. Biographical information constituted 5 questions in Section A, that is; age; gender; education; and length of service. Section B comprised 38 questions that covered constructs on staff training, knowledge transfer and employee retention. Section B used the 5-point Likert Scale, with scale responses varying between; 1-strongly agree; 2-agree; 3.-neutral; 4-disagree; and 5-strongly disagree. Denscombe (2010:4) states that a Likert Scale is most appropriate for measuring attitudes.

### **3.12 CHARACTERISTICS OF GOOD QUESTIONNAIRE**

Wiid and Diggines (2009:171) state that questionnaires are formulated to obtain the information needed to achieve the objectives of the research study. For a questionnaire to be effective, it should meet three vital requirements (Wiid *et al.* 2009:171). Firstly the questionnaire should convert the required information into questions which respondents answer. Secondly, respondents should be encouraged and motivated to participate in completing the questionnaire. Thirdly, errors of response must be minimized (Denscombe, 2010:4).

### **3.13 PILOT TEST**

A pilot study relates to a test-run that is usually carried out to prepare for the research project (Burns *et al.* 2010:71). Stokes (2011:116) eludes that a pilot study allows a researcher to truly test approaches in the field in order to eliminate any possible difficulties. A pilot test will be conducted using the questionnaires to identify potential faults in measurement and to also detect vague formulated items. The required amendments were made to the final questionnaire before administering the questionnaire to the selected sample respondents. Pilot studies also help the researcher to determine the adequacy of instructions and how well they flow (Yin, 2009:93). The aim of the pilot test is to make sure that the expectations of the researcher are met by the questionnaire, based on data given by respondents (Best, 2012:21). Anderston (2013:101) states that a pilot study is carried out to perfect the questions in order to alleviate problems associated with the interpretation of the questions during the real empirical research undertaken. Walliman (2011:239) argues that a pilot study assists the researcher to value the strength and

dependability of the data collected through the questionnaire. The draft questionnaire was distributed to twenty (20) participants who were not part of the target population but within the same organisation. The feedback obtained from pilot testing was utilized for questionnaire amendments in order to eliminate any ambiguity. The fine-tuned questionnaire is then administered to all 120 target respondents at Servcor Private Limited.

### **3.14 VALIDITY AND RELIABILITY CONSTRUCTS**

Validity and reliability of the questionnaire are the major key criteria for evaluating quantitative instruments. Consistency is linked to the term reliability, while accuracy is associated with the term validity (Fredrick and Lori-Ann, 2012:301).

#### **3.14.1 VALIDITY CONSTRUCT**

For an instrument to be valid, it must measure that which it is intended to measure (Denscombe, 2010:4). Stokes (2011:131) states that validity relates to the extent to which the study accurately responds to its objectives. According to Adams *et al.* (2015:17), construct validity, content validity and criterion-related validity are the three dominant mechanisms for measuring the validity of quantitative data instruments. This study utilised construct validity as well as content validity in assessing the instrument's validity, specifically focusing on measurements of relevancy, inclusiveness and accuracy of the questionnaire of the study. Yin (2009:149) describes four aspects of validity as follows: Content validity which entails the magnitude of an instrument to measure the entire content it is supposed to measure. The second aspect is construct validity which is needed for standardisation and depicts the degree to which different teams of interconnected items appropriately measure the construct using the same instrument. Criterion validity, the third aspect, is seen as the final test to ascertain that intended the measurement is performed accurately by the instrument. Finally, face validity entails an instrument that seems to be measuring the right characteristics. Jan *et al.* (2012:43) state that the validity of the questionnaire reflects how well the questionnaire helps the researcher in solving the research problem. This means that the questionnaire must measure what it set out to accomplish. For this study a pilot

test will be conducted to detect possible flaws in measurement, to identify unclear formulated items.

### **3.14.2 RELIABILITY CONSTRUCT**

According to Stokes (2011:110), reliability is a measure applied to all research and it aims to measure the degree to which the data collection and analyses would be similar or almost similar if the work were to be repeated by the researcher. Welman *et al.* (2005:145) affirm that reliability assesses the ability of the instrument for collecting data to obtain accurate and consistent results. Stokes (2011:11) states that reliability occurs when the researcher obtains same findings in a case where the very same measurement tool is utilised to the same population at different times. Burns *et al.* (2010:71) elaborate that consistency of the same results from the questionnaire reflects high reliability of the measuring instrument. According to Adams and Lawrence (2015:17), reliability is categorized into four groups, namely inter-rater reliability; internal reliability; test-retest reliability; and split-half reliability. Internal consistency reliability denotes that the assessment recognized attributes by sub-parts of the measuring tool (Burns *et al.* 2010:71). For the purpose of this study, reliability will be established by computing Cronbach's Coefficient Alpha (Stokes, 2011:11). To ensure reliability, after conducting the pilot study, questions will be reworded to eliminate any ambiguities and the questionnaire will be subsequently refined for administration to the main sample respondents.

### **3.15 DATA COLLECTION METHODS**

The data collection method relates to a decision and action concerning the collection of the information needed to answer research questions (Dan, 2012:122). According to Dan (2012:122), data can be collected using face-to-face, computer methods, postal, telephone and group. For this research project, data will be collected using the personal method through questionnaires administered to all 120 selected respondents at Servcor Private Limited. All questionnaires will be hand-delivered by the researcher. With regard to using the personal method, Gray (2014:351) highlights that the decision the questionnaire to be self-administered is made by the researcher. Gray (2014:351) highlights that self-administered questionnaires are divided into two

kinds. Firstly, questionnaires completed when the researcher is in attendance and secondly, the questionnaires completed in the absence of the researcher. For this study, the researcher was not present when the respondents were completing the questionnaire. All completed questionnaires were collected personally by the researcher.

### **3.16 HYPOTHESIS TEST**

A hypothesis test is carried out to investigate statistically whether a claim is justified or not (Wilson, 2010:237). A hypothesis is based on numerical statistics and the statistical value that is drawn from numbers in order to either prove or reject a claim (Wilson, 2010:237). Hypotheses focus on the correlations between two variables, as well as the phenomenon causes under research (Best, 2012:5). A good hypothesis should be testable and better than its counterpart. For this study, the following hypotheses will be tested:

- Hypothesis 1:       There is a significant relationship between staff training and employee retention at Servcor Private Limited.
- Hypothesis 2:       There is a significant correlation between staff training and knowledge transfer at Servcor Private Limited.
- Hypothesis 3:       There is a significant association between knowledge transfer and employee retention at Servcor Private Limited.
- Hypothesis 4:       There is a significant relationship between on-the-job training and employee retention at Servcor Private Limited.
- Hypothesis 5:       There is a significant correlation between off-the-job training and employee retention at Servcor Private Limited.
- Hypothesis 6:       There is a significant relationship between coaching and employee retention at Servcor Private Limited.
- Hypothesis 7:       There is a significant association between coaching and knowledge transfer at Servcor Private Limited.

- Hypothesis 8: There is a significant relationship between mentoring and knowledge transfer at Servcor Private Limited.
- Hypothesis 9: There is a mutual correlation between general staff training and thoughts of quitting the job at Sevcor Private Limited.
- Hypothesis 10: There is a significant correlation between training needs identification and feeling adequately skilled at Servcor Private Limited.
- Hypothesis 11: There is a significant relationship between general training and feeling left behind at Servcor Private Limited.
- Hypotheses 12: There is a significant correlation relationship between the provision of resources for development and loyalty to work at Servcor Private Limited.
- Hypotheses 13: There is a significant relationship between technologically aligned staff training and satisfaction of employees at Servcor Private Limited.
- Hypothesis 14: There is a significant association between consideration of the external environment when providing staff training and sharing relevant information at Servcor Private Limited.
- Hypothesis 15: There is a significant relationship between the existence of hurdles to share knowledge amongst employees and the way management disseminates information at Servcor Private Limited.

### **3.17 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS**

According to Scheyvens (2014:163), ethics relates to acceptable and unacceptable behavior, values and conduct. The conduct of the researcher should align with



expected and accepted standards. According to Best (2012:21), ethics refer to the suitability of the researcher's behaviour in relation to the rights of those who become the subjects. Walliman (2011:239) highlights that ethics are commonly in relationship with morals, as well as aspects associated with good and bad within a community. Anderson (2013:130) highlights the three basic ethical principles as the basis for research involving human subjects, namely respect for justice, people and beneficence. Adams and Lawrence (2015:72) emphasise that these ethical codes should maintain a participant's well-being and that studies have to be centred on trust between the two parties.

There are three typical phases of the research study where ethics have to be considered. Firstly, when recruiting respondents; secondly, at the invention period; and lastly, when the results obtained from the study are released. Ethical issues incorporate respondents participating voluntarily; respondent's consent to participate; respondent's harm or risk free; maintenance of anonymity; and keeping all information confidential. The researcher requested, in writing, authorisation to conduct research at Servcor Private Limited (Annexure C). The covering letter (Annexure A) guarantees participants that participation is voluntary and also that withdrawal from participation can take place at any time. The researcher will ensure anonymity of the research respondents at all costs throughout the research and after the research (Brynard *et al.* 2014:33). The covering letter also highlights that outcomes from the research project will not be given on an individual basis to the respondents. Instead, a summary of the findings of the research will be accessible to all the respondents should they wish to read it.

### **3.18 ANALYSIS OF THE DATA**

Data analysis is referred to as a systematic and structured process that aims to bring meaning to the data collected (Jan *et al.* 2012:17). Carrie *et al.* (2014:55) state that once the empirical investigation is completed according to its planned design, the results obtained must be interpreted. For the purposes of capturing data accurately, the questionnaires were collected and referenced numerically. Soon after editing and cleaning the data, the data was captured in the data set for statistical analysis. Statistical analysis is a fundamental tool that organizes, highlights and extracts data

to develop hypotheses and give conclusions to the results (Scheyven, 2014:222). The relevant statistical tests will be applied for the analysis of the data. The raw data will be edited to ensure that it is free of mistakes. The researcher utilised the services of a statistician to analyse the data collected from the respondents of Servcor. The data will be captured and statistically analysed utilising the latest version of the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) version 24 for Windows (Yin, 2009:93). Descriptive statistics summarise and arrange data through the use of bar graphs, pie charts and tables.

### **3.19 CONCLUSION**

This chapter emphasised the empirical part the study. The chapter outlined the empirical research steps that were followed. The aim of the research methodology and design is primarily to plan and structure a given research project (Burns *et al.* 2010:71). Quality assurance criteria for the research instrument, namely, reliability and validity, as well as the ethical considerations were explained. In the next chapter, the data analysis and discussion of the findings is presented.

## **CHAPTER 4**

### **ANALYSIS OF DATA AND DISCUSSION OF THE FINDINGS**

#### **4.1 INTRODUCTION**

This chapter details a detailed analysis of the results and discusses the findings obtained from the analysis of the data. The structured questionnaires were personally distributed to the 120 respondents. Two questionnaires were discarded because the majority of questions were not answered and hence resulted in 118 responses. Therefore, response rate of 98.3% was obtained. Section A of the questionnaire consisted of the biographical information of the respondents and Section B comprised specific statements to determine the effectiveness of staff training on knowledge transfer and employee retention. The research design was quantitative in nature. The latest Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) version 24.0 for Windows was utilized to analyse data collected from the respondents. Descriptive and non-parametric tests were used to analyse the data. Descriptive statistics in the form of frequency distribution tables and graphs were used to analyse the preliminary data. Non-parametric tests in the form of the Pearson Chi-square and Spearman correlation tests were used to statistically analyse the hypotheses.

##### **4.1.1 DESCRIPTIVE ANALYSIS OF THE RESULTS**

Descriptive statistics entails the summary and presentation of quantitative data. Statistical results are yielded through evaluating and analyzing data using descriptive statistical techniques (Treiman, 2009:114). Descriptive statistics that focus on the biographical information was initially analysed using Microsoft Excel. In this study, descriptive statistics that constitute tables, bar graphs and pie charts analyse the results of the data for Section A. Summarised frequency tables that highlight the total percentages of the Likert scale responses with regard to each theme in the questionnaire were analysed using descriptive statistics for Section B.

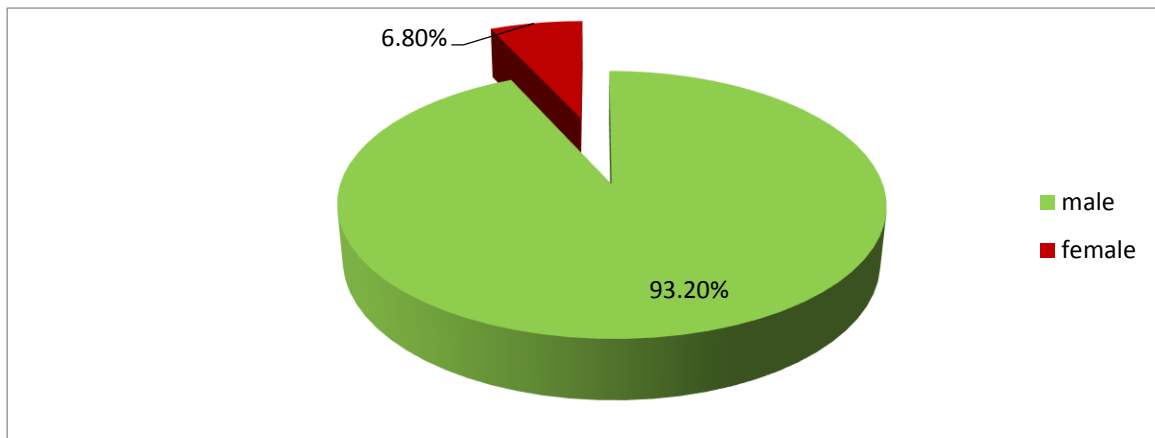
## 4.2 RELIABILITY TESTING

Reliability refers to the measurement instrument that provides similar outcomes for similar inputs (Burns *et al.* 2010:71). Treiman (2009:245) notes that reliability is the percentage of the variability in the responses to the survey that is the result of differences in the respondents. Cronbach's Alpha was used to measure the reliability of the questionnaire administered to the employees. Mathematically, reliability is as the proportion of the variance in the responses to the survey that is the result of difference in perceptions of the respondents. The reliability outputs as presented in Tables 4.1 below are for the positively aligned statements in the research questionnaire.

**TABLE 4.1 RELIABILITY OF THE ITEMS IN THE MEASURING INSTRUMENT**

Section		Number of Items	Cronbach's Alpha
B6	Effectiveness of staff training on employee retention	12	0.624
B7	Effectiveness of staff training on knowledge transfer.	12	0.706
B8	Types and forms of staff training	12	0.775
Overall		38	0.844

The overall reliability score of 0.844 for Section B as shown in Table 4.1 above shows a high degree of acceptance. A reliability coefficient of 0.70 or higher is considered as highly acceptable (Treiman, 2009:245).

**FIGURE 4.1**      **GENDER OF RESPONDENTS (n=118)**

The pie chart in Figure 4.1 above illustrates the total number of male and female respondents who participated in this study. The analysis indicated that the majority of respondents (93.20%) were male employees, whilst the minority of 6.80% were female employees. Similar findings have also been reported by Kuria (2011:55) who conducted research on factors influencing labour turnover in three and five-star rated Hotels in Nairobi, Kenya. Kuria (2011:55) found that the nature of the Hospitality and Catering industry is associated with long working hours and intensive manual labour, thereby curtailing a majority of females joining the industry.

**FIGURE 4.2**                    **AGE OF THE RESPONDENTS (n=118)**

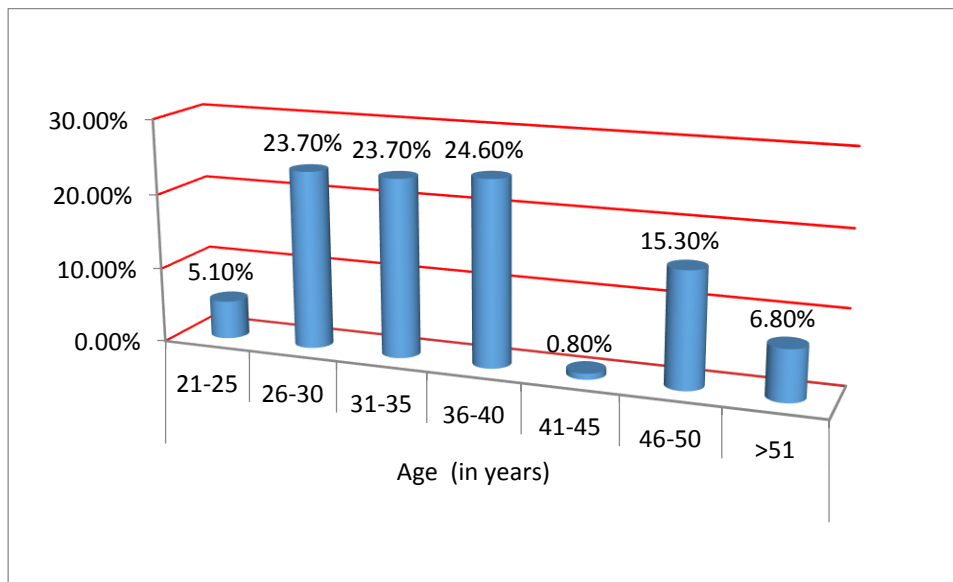
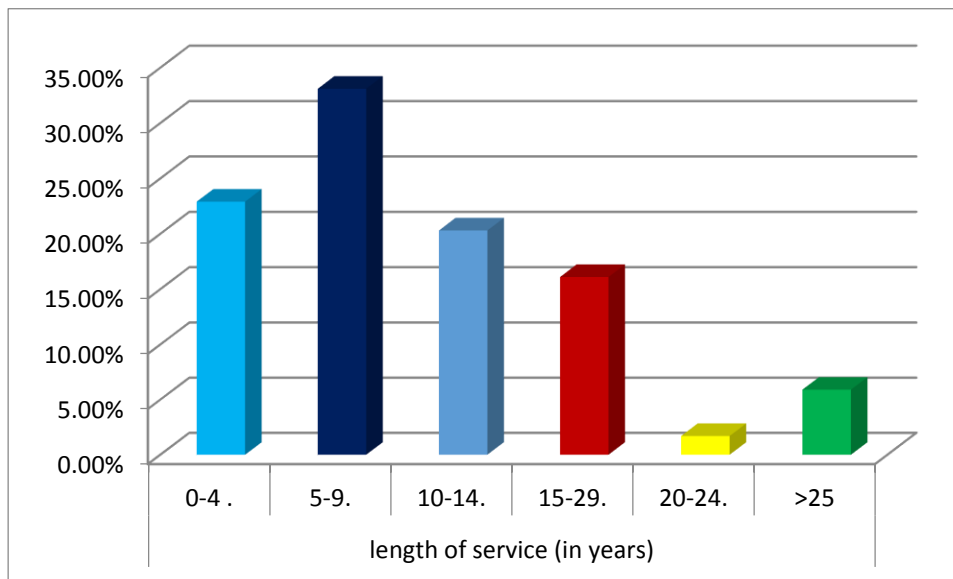


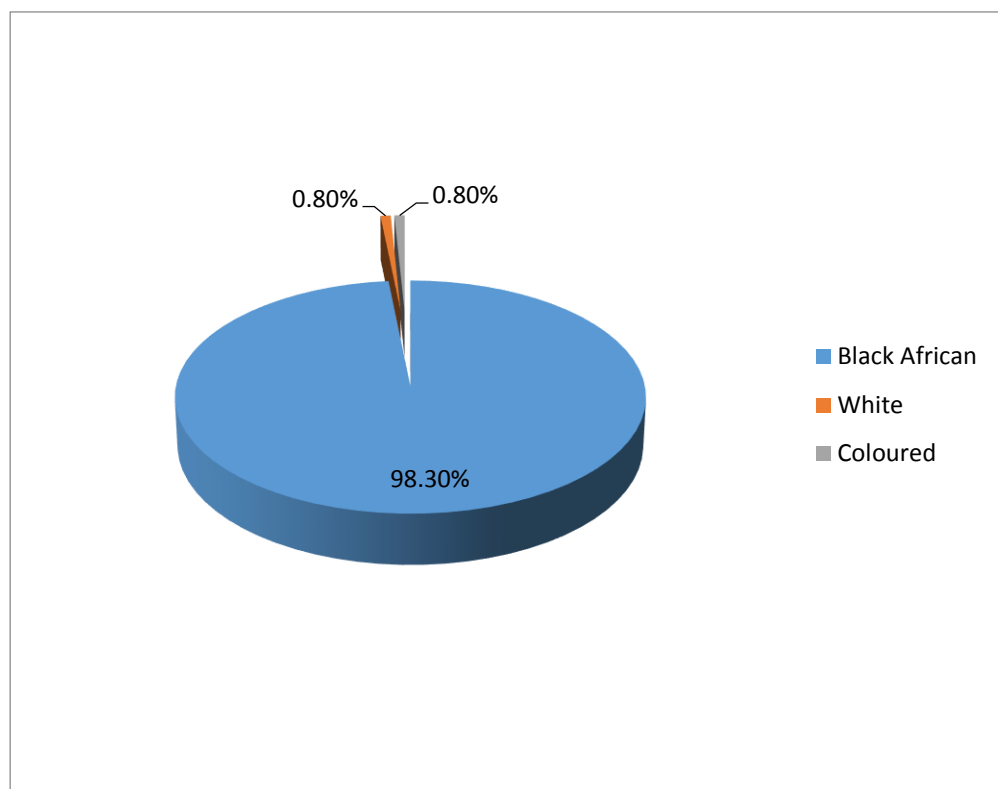
Figure 4.2 above depicts the ages of respondents that extended from 21 years to older than 50 years of age. The analysis indicated that the small margin of respondents (5.60%) who participated in the study were in the age groups of 21-25 years. A total of 23.70% of respondents were between the ages of 26-30 years old, while 23.70% of respondents were between the ages of 31-35 years old. The respondents that were between 36-40 years old were 24.60%. A very minor percentage of the respondents (0.80%) were in the age group of 41-45 years and 15.30% were respondents in the age group of 46-50 years. The findings established that the majority of respondents {72% (23.70%+23.70%+24.60)} were between 26-40 years of age. The results of the study were supported by Amrik (2014:6) who conducted research on the emergence of training programs in small scale hotels in the Punjab region of India. Amrik (2014:6) found that those employees in the age group of 26-40 are more able to adjust easily in a fast-changing environment.

**FIGURE 4.3**                      **LENGTH OF SERVICE OF RESPONDENTS (n=118)**



The bar graph in Figure 4.3 above provides an indication of the respondents' length of service at Servcor Private Limited. Figure 4.3 shows that 33.10% respondents had 5-9 years working experience with Servcor Private Limited. Meanwhile, 22.90% of the respondents only had 4 years of service and 20.30% had 10-14 years of service. A total of 16.10% of respondents fell between 15-19 years of service, whilst respondents with more than 25 years of service constituted 5.90%. A meagre percentage of 1.70% of respondents had between 20-24 years of service. The analysis of the study showed that 56% (33.10%+22.90%) of the respondents had only 9 years or less of service in the organisation.

**FIGURE 4.4**                      **RACE OF RESPONDENTS (N=118)**



The pie chart in Figure 4.2 above depicts the respondents' race distribution. Black Africans constituted the significant majority of the respondents (96.70%), whilst Coloured employees comprised 0.80% of respondents and another 0.80% were White respondents.



**TABLE 4.2 CROSS-TABULATION OF AGE AND YEARS OF SERVICE (n=118)**

		Please indicate your age group (years)							Total
		21-25	26-30	31-35	36-40	41-44	45-49	> 50	
Please indicate how long you have been with the organisation (years))	0-4	Count	4	16	6	1	0	0	27
		% within Please indicate your age group	66.7	57.1%	21.4%	3.4%	0.0%	0.0%	22.9
		% of Total	3.4	13.6%	5.1%	0.8%	0.0%	0.0%	22.9
			%						%
	5-9	Count	2	12	15	5	0	4	39
		% within Please indicate your age group	33.3	42.9%	53.6%	17.2	0.0%	22.2	33.1
		% of Total	1.7	10.2%	12.7%	4.2%	0.0%	3.4%	33.1
			%						%
	10-14	Count	0	0	6	12	1	2	24
		% within Please indicate your age group	0.0	0.0%	21.4%	41.4	100.0	11.1	20.3
		% of Total	0.0	0.0%	5.1%	10.2	0.8%	1.7%	20.3
			%			%			%
	15-19	Count	0	0	1	9	0	7	19
		% within Please indicate your age group	0.0	0.0%	3.6%	31.0	0.0%	38.9	16.1
		% of Total	0.0	0.0%	0.8%	7.6%	0.0%	5.9%	16.1
			%						%
	20-24	Count	0	0	0	1	0	1	2
		% within Please indicate your age group	0.0	0.0%	0.0%	3.4%	0.0%	5.6%	1.7
		% of Total	0.0	0.0%	0.0%	0.8%	0.0%	0.8%	1.7
			%						%
	>25	Count	0	0	0	1	0	4	7
		% within Please indicate your age group	0.0	0.0%	0.0%	3.4%	0.0%	22.2	5.9
		% of Total	0.0	0.0%	0.0%	0.8%	0.0%	3.4%	5.9
			%						%
	Total	Count	6	28	28	29	1	18	118
		% within Please indicate your age group	100.0	100.0%	100.0%	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
		% of Total	5.1	23.7%	23.7%	24.6	0.8%	15.3	100.0
			%			%		%	%

Table 4.2 above indicates that the majority of respondents who between 20-35 years of age only had 9 years of service, whilst those respondents who were 40 years and above had 15 years of service. The results of this analysis confirm the study of Blomme, Bleede and Tromp (2010:160) which revealed that the age group between 22-33 years of age had only 5 years of service.

**FIGURE 4.5**                      **QUALIFICATIONS OF RESPONDENTS (n=118)**

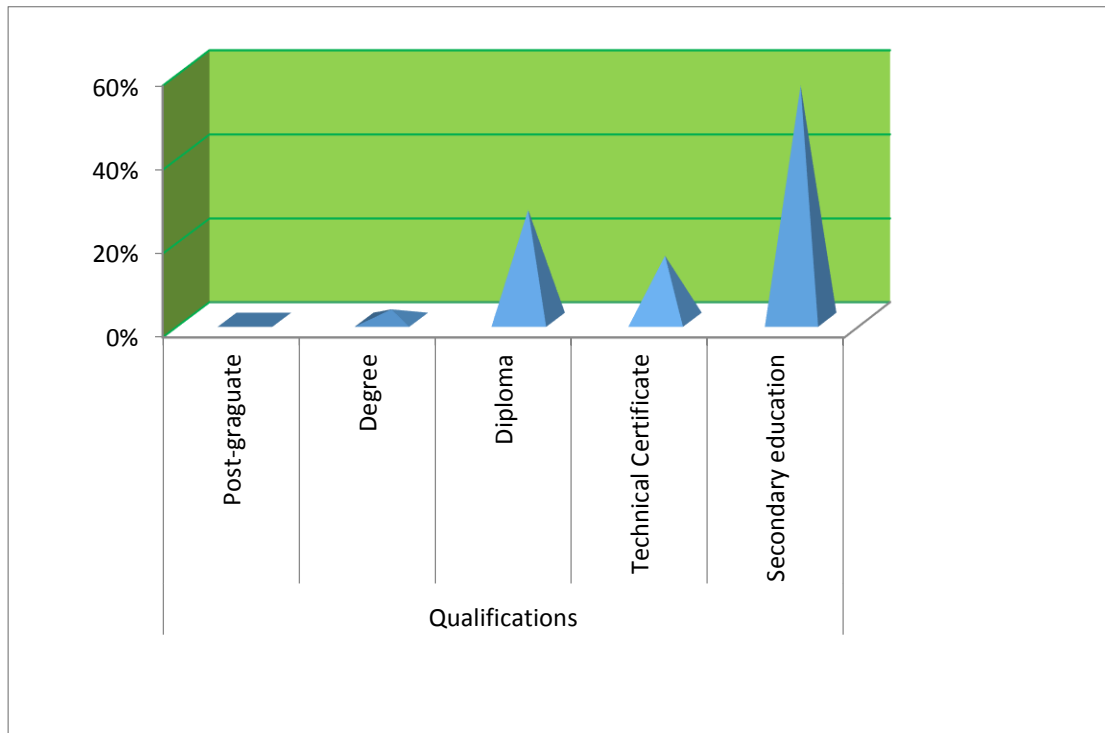


Figure 4.4 above shows the educational qualification of the respondents who participated in the study. Figure 4.4 reveals that the majority of respondents (55.90%) had only secondary school (Ordinary level) as their highest qualification. A total of 15.30% of the respondents were in possession of a Technical certificate. Diploma holders were 26.30%, whilst a small margin of respondents (2.50%) held a University degree.

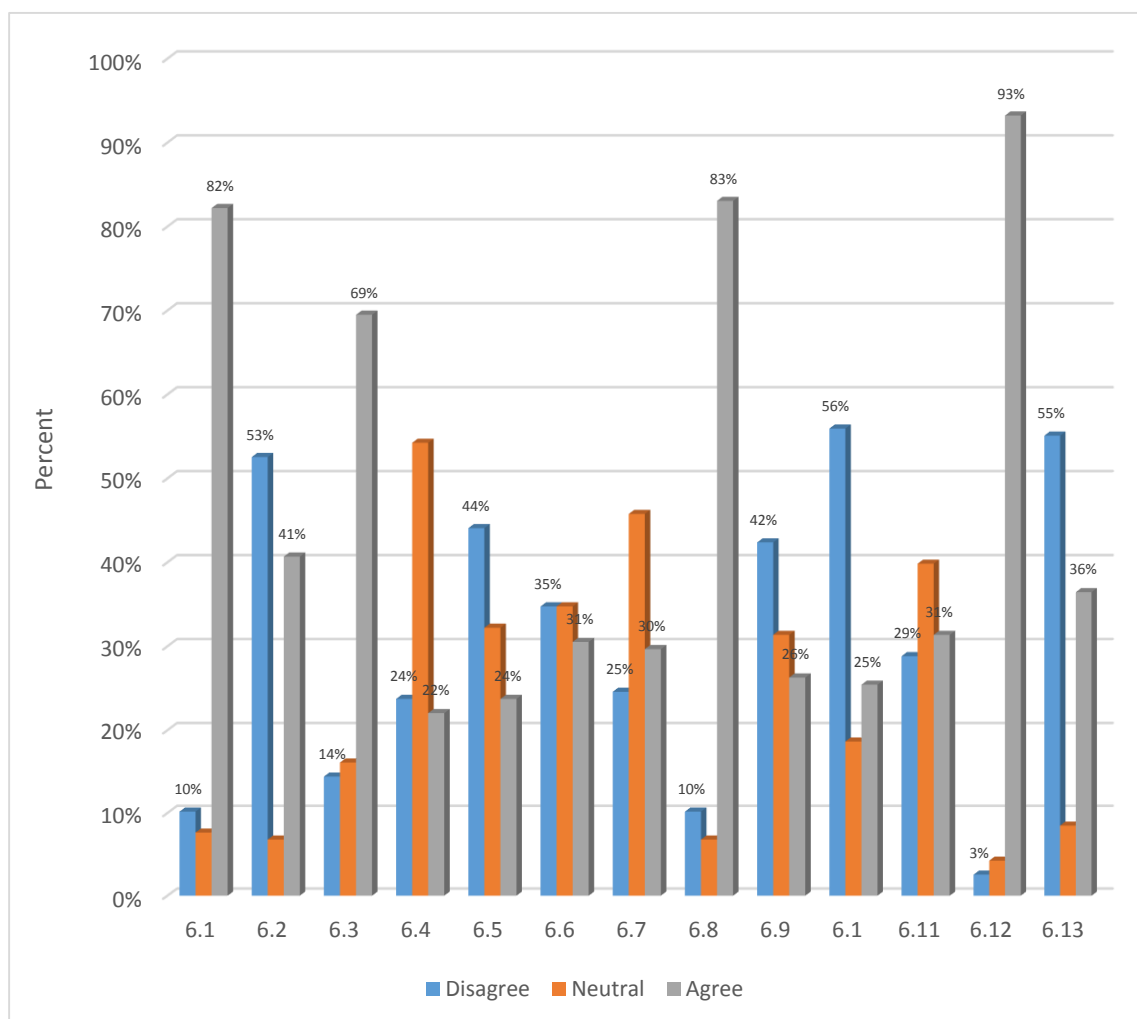
**TABLE 4.3 CROSS-TABULATION OF AGE AND QUALIFICATION (n=118)**

			Please indicate your age group (years)							Total
			21-25	26-30	31-35	36-40	41-43	46-50	> 50	
Please indicate your qualification	Degree	Count	0	1	1	0	0	0	1	3
		% within Please indicate your age group	0.0%	3.6%	3.6%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	12.5%	2.5%
		% of Total	0.0%	0.8%	0.8%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.8%	2.5%
	Diploma	Count	2	3	9	8	0	7	2	31
		% within Please indicate your age group	33.3%	10.7%	32.1%	27.6%	0.0%	38.9%	25.0%	26.3%
		% of Total	1.7%	2.5%	7.6%	6.8%	0.0%	5.9%	1.7%	26.3%
	Technic	Count	1	1	5	3	0	6	2	18
		% within Please indicate your age group	16.7%	3.6%	17.9%	10.3%	0.0%	33.3%	25.0%	15.3%
		% of Total	0.8%	0.8%	4.2%	2.5%	0.0%	5.1%	1.7%	15.3%
	Secondary	Count	3	23	13	18	1	5	3	66
		% within Please indicate your age group	50.0%	82.1%	46.4%	62.1%	100.0%	27.8%	37.5%	55.9%
		% of Total	2.5%	19.5%	11.0%	15.3%	0.8%	4.2%	2.5%	55.9%
	Total	Count	6	28	28	29	1	18	8	118
		% within Please indicate your age group	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
		% of Total	5.1%	23.7%	23.7%	24.6%	0.8%	15.3%	6.8%	100.0%

As illustrated in Table 4.3 above, 55.90% of the respondents were unskilled, of which 22% were between 21 to 30 years of age. A total of 26.30% had a Diploma, in which the age group 31-35 years contributed the largest portion (7.60%). Only a total of 15.3% respondents had a Technical certificate, in which the age group 46-50 years constituted the bigger margin (5.10%). Similar findings were reported by Odieki and Kungu (2013:32), who found that about 60% of employees in the Hospitality and Catering industry were unskilled or semi-skilled, the majority of which were between 21-30 years of age.

#### 4.4 SECTION B      RESPONDENTS' PERCEPTIONS OF THE EFFECTIVENESS OF STAFF TRAINING ON KNOWLEDGE TRANSFER AND EMPLOYEE RETENTION

**FIGURE 4.6      FREQUENCIES OF STATEMENTS RELATING TO THE IMPACT OF STAFF TRAINING ON EMPLOYEE RETENTION (n=118)**



The bar graph in Figure 4.6 above shows the frequencies of statements relating to the impact of staff training on employee retention. These frequencies of statements are further elaborated in Table 4.3 below according to the Likert scale response options: Strongly disagree; Disagree; Neutral; Agree; and Strongly agree.

**TABLE 4.4**                      **FREQUENCES OF STATEMENTS RELATING TO THE  
IMPACT OF STAFF TRAINING ON EMPLOYEE RETENTION  
(n=118)**

Statement	Responses	Response options					Total
		Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree	
6.1 If I get a job at any organisation that offers more staff training I will leave my current job.	Count	3	9	9	29	68	118
	Percentage	2.50%	7.60%	7.60%	24.60%	57.60%	100 %
6.2 Soon after acquiring expertise that I need I will start to look for better opportunities.	Count	18	44	8	28	20	118
	Percentage	15.30%	37.30%	6.80%	23.70%	16.9%	100 %
6.3 After receiving staff training I will be strongly willing to remain in the organisation.	Count	4	13	19	53	29	118
	Percentage	3.40%	11.00%	16.10%	44.90%	24.60%	100 %
6.4 Staff training offered at Servcor Private Limited motivates me to stay over the next 5 years.	Count	9	19	64	15	11	118
	Percentage	7.60%	16.10%	54.20%	12.70%	9.30%	100 %
6.5 My staff training benefits of staying with the organisation outweigh the benefits of leaving for another organisation.	Count	23	29	38	19	9	118
	Percentage	19.50%	24.60%	32.20%	16.10%	7.60%	100 %
6.6 I am thinking of quitting my job because my organisation is not sufficiently training me.	Count	13	28	41	27	9	118
	Percentage	11.00%	23.70%	34.70%	22.90%	7.60%	100 %
6.7 Staff training that Servcor Private Limited offers to me increases loyalty to my work.	Count	4	25	54	20	15	118
	Percentage	3.40%	21.20%	45.80%	16.90%	12.70%	100 %
6.8 I feel left behind when it comes to job the skills that I need.	Count	3	9	8	28	70	118
	Percentage	2.50%	7.60%	6.80%	23.70%	59.30%	100 %
6.9 I feel satisfied with existing staff training at Servcor Private Limited.	Count	6	44	37	21	10	118
	Percentage	5.10%	37.30%	31.40%	17.80%	8.60%	100 %
6.10 My organisation is interested in my long-term growth and development.	Count	14	52	22	19	11	118
	Percentage	11.90%	44.10%	18.60%	16.10%	9.30%	100 %
6.11 I perceive the types of staff training at Servcor Private Limited in a positive way.	Count	1	33	47	29	8	118
	Percentage	0.80%	28.00%	39.80%	24.60%	6.80%	100 %
6.12 I am more satisfied to learn whilst at work.	Count	1	2	5	44	66	118
	Percentage	0.80%	1.70%	4.20%	37.30%	55.90%	100 %
6.13 I am more satisfied to learn whilst away from work.	Count	15	50	10	29	14	118
	Percentage	12.70%	42.40%	8.50%	24.60%	11.60%	100 %

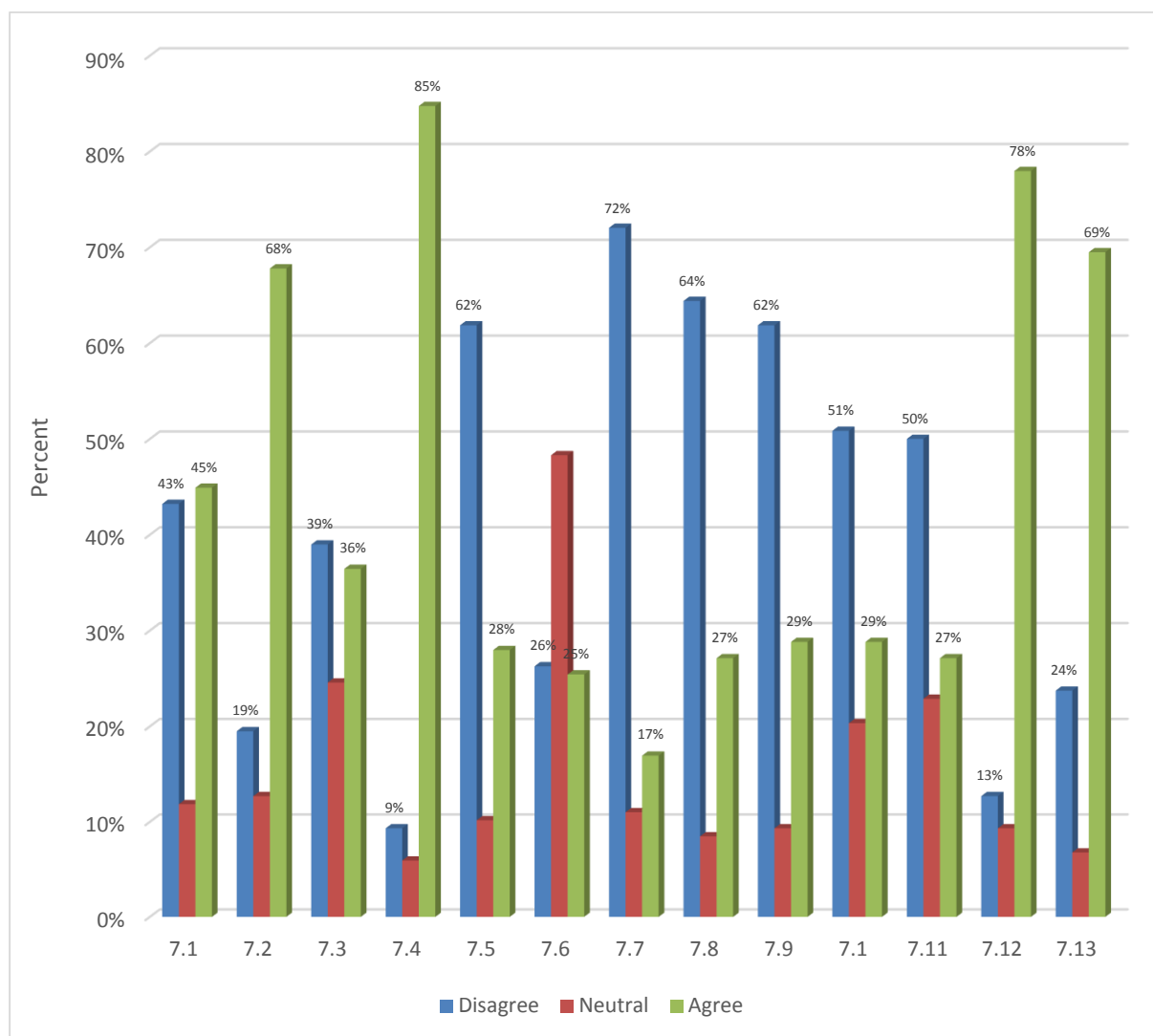
As shown in Figure 4.5 and Table 4.4 above, a significant majority of the respondents (69.50%) indicated that they would be strongly willing to stay in the organisation after receiving staff training (Statement 6.3) and 82.20% indicated that they could leave their current job when they get a job at any organisation that offers more staff training (Statement 6.1). A study conducted by Khan (2011:7) in Faiblbad revealed that the

staff training is of paramount importance in order to retain employees at the workplace. These findings were similar with the view of Werner, Shuler and Jackson (2013:156) who stated that in highly competitive environments, employees who are constantly equipped with sufficient and current skills are more likely to stay permanently in the organisation.

In relation to Figure 4.5 and Table 4.4 above, a large percentage of the respondents (83%) felt left behind when it came to the job skills they needed (Statement 6.8). The finding reinforced the view of Nnenna *et al.* (2013:577) who highlighted that employees felt that performing a task whilst having insufficient skills, can degrade and humiliate them, hence they leave since they felt uncomfortable with remaining in the organisation. In response to Statement 6.10, 56% of the respondents indicated that their organisation was not concerned with their long-term growth and development. In the 21<sup>st</sup> century, employees now expect the opportunity to grow and develop their skills and knowledge (Nivethitha *et al.* 2014:35). To complement the finding, Kyndt *et al.* (2009:195) posit that when employees are not learning and growing, they felt that they were not competitive with their industry peers.

A significant majority of the respondents (93.20%) indicated that they were more satisfied to learn whilst at work (Statement 6.12). The finding implies that employees prefer on-the-job training. The finding was in agreement with the view of Walker *et al.* (2010:30) who reported that a number of employees preferred internal staff training.

**FIGURE 4.7                      FREQUENCIES OF STATEMENTS RELATING TO THE EFFECTIVENESS OF STAFF TRAINING ON KNOWLEDGE TRANSFER (n=118)**



The bar graph in Figure 4.7 above reveals the frequencies of statements related to the effectiveness of staff training on knowledge transfer. These frequencies of statements were further elaborated in Table 4.4 below according to the Likert scale response options: Strongly disagree; Disagree; Neutral; Agree; and Strongly agree.

**TABLE 4.5 FREQUENCIES OF STATEMENTS RELATING TO THE IMPACT OF TRAINING ON KNOWLEDGE TRANSFER (n=118)**

Statement	Responses	Response options					Total
		Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree	
7.1 Whenever I get trained my organisation encourages me to utilise new skills that I gained in my work.	Count	10	41	14	38	15	118
	Percentage	8.50%	34.70%	11.90%	32.20%	12.70%	100%
7.2 I always see that my organisation uses the old systems even if I am trained with new systems.	Count	5	18	15	65	15	118
	Percentage	4.20%	15.30%	12.7%	55.10%	12.70%	100%
7.3 All the knowledge that I get from training is documented within the organisation.	Count	2	44	29	31	12	118
	Percentage	1.70%	37.30%	24.60%	26.30%	10.20%	100%
7.4 I am demotivated when the organisation uses previous work systems when I gained skills for a new system.	Count	7	4	7	28	72	118
	Percentage	5.90%	3.40%	5.90%	23.70%	61%	100%
7.5 My superiors share their work experiences and written manuals with me.	Count	8	65	12	23	10	118
	Percentage	6.80%	55.10%	10.20%	19.50%	8.50%	100%
7.6 It is usual at my organisation that one team adapts other team's knowledge to solve their problems.	Count	12	19	57	19	11	118
	Percentage	10.20%	16.10%	48.30%	16.10%	9.30%	100%
7.7 Servcor Private Limited disseminates information about management activities to me.	Count	57	28	13	16	4	118
	Percentage	48.30%	23.70%	11%	13.60%	3.40%	100%
7.8 Experts in my organisation freely share information relevant to my work with me.	Count	10	66	10	17	15	118
	Percentage	8.50%	55.90%	8.50%	14.40%	12.70%	100%
7.9 I feel I have no hurdles to sharing knowledge with my superiors in my organisation.	Count	7	66	11	23	11	118
	Percentage	5.90%	55.90%	9.30%	19.50%	9.30%	100%
7.10 The staff training at Servcor Private Limited enable me to feel adequately skilled for my present job.	Count	7	53	24	23	11	118
	Percentage	5.90%	44.90%	20.30%	19.50%	9.30%	100%
7.11 My organisation provides me with adequate resources needed for my development.	Count	12	47	27	20	12	118
	Percentage	10.20%	39.80%	22.90%	16.90%	10.20%	100%
7.12 I discuss the new developments of work-related activities with my co-workers.	Count	1	14	11	63	29	118
	Percentage	0.80%	11.90%	9.30%	53.40%	24.60%	100%
7.13 I can only apply a little part of the knowledge I get from training at my workplace.	Count	7	21	8	67	15	118
	Percentage	5.90%	17.80%	6.80%	56.80%	12.70%	100%

As illustrated in Figure 4.6 and Table 4.5 above, 61.80% of the respondents indicated that they experience hurdles to sharing knowledge with their superiors (Statement 7.9). A majority of the respondents (64.40%) disagreed that experts in their organisation were free to share information relevant to their work (Statement 7.8). The results imply that superiors were reluctant to share their work experiences with

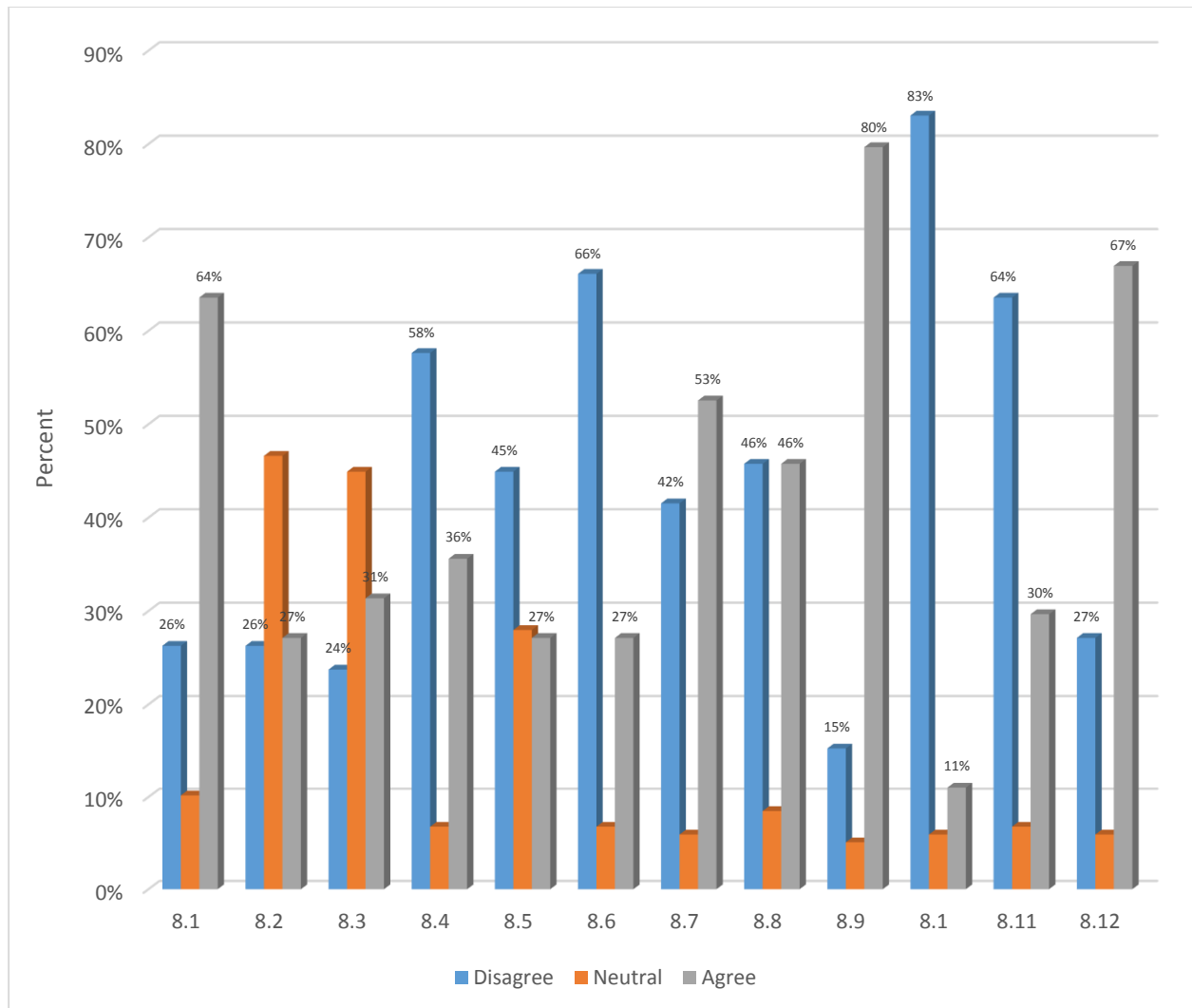


them. Nivethitha, Dyaram and Kamalanabhan (2014:35) contend that the general pattern in the Hospitality and Catering sector is to hoard knowledge because it makes an individual more important and difficult to replace. These results coincide with Wilton's (2013:244) views that employees are inclined to protect their exclusive possession of high-value knowledge and are more likely to transfer knowledge of lower value and cost.

Figure 4.6 and Table 4.5 show that a highly significant percentage of respondents (69.50%) agreed that they could only apply a little part of the knowledge they got from staff training at their workplace (Statement 7.13). The finding implies that employees could only apply a little part of the knowledge they got from staff training to their workplaces. Nikandrou *et al.* (2009:255) state that what counts in staff training is whether the participants are able to transfer and apply the skills they learnt to their work continuously.

In relation to Figure 4.6 and Table 4.5 above, a significant majority of respondents (84.70%) agreed that they felt demotivated when the organisation used previous work systems although they gained skills for new systems (Statement 7.4). The overall finding shows that employees were frustrated to use old systems when they acquired skills for new systems. Davidson, Mc-Phail and Barry (2010:498) highlight that the rapid acceleration of technology leads to staff training where competitive advantage is increasingly placed on the successful transfer of knowledge within the organization. Figure 4.6 and Table 4.5 above show that the majority of respondents (72%) indicated that their organisation did not disseminate information about management activities. Atwood (2012:38) highlights that knowledge transfer is institutionalised swiftly when implemented by top management.

**FIGURE 4.8                      FREQUENCIES OF STATEMENTS RELATING TO THE  
TYPES OF STAFF TRAINING FOR EMPLOYEE RETENTION  
(n=118)**



The bar graph in Figure 4.8 above shows the frequencies of statements related to the types of staff training for employee retention. These frequencies of statements are further elaborated in Table 4.5 below according to the Likert scale response options: Strongly disagree; Disagree; Neutral; Agree; and Strongly agree.

**TABLE 4.6**                      **FREQUENCES OF STATEMENTS RELATING TO THE TYPES OF STAFF TRAINING FOR EMPLOYEE RETENTION (n=118)**

Statement	Responses	Response options					Total
		Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree	
8.1 My organisation provides me with general staff training which is sometimes irrelevant to my work.	Count	11	20	12	65	10	118
	Percentage	9.30%	16.90%	10.20%	55.10%	8.50%	100 %
8.2 Servcor Private Limited identifies the type of staff training I need before providing training to me.	Count	11	20	55	25	7	118
	Percentage	9.30%	16.90%	46.60%	21.20%	5.90%	100 %
8.3 My superior examines my character when providing staff training to me.	Count	9	19	53	29	8	118
	Percentage	7.60%	16.10%	44.90%	24.60%	6.80%	100 %
8.4 I engage in learning discussion with experts from my field of work.	Count	14	54	8	29	13	118
	Percentage	11.90%	45.80%	6.80%	24.60%	11%	100 %
8.5 My superior considers the external environment in order to give me proper staff training.	Count	14	39	33	21	11	118
	Percentage	11.90%	33.10%	28%	17.80%	9.30%	100 %
8.6 My superior is willing to teach me every aspect of my work.	Count	10	68	8	16	16	118
	Percentage	8.50%	57.60%	6.80%	13.60%	13.60%	100 %
8.7 My experienced superior guides me whenever I encounters difficulties with my work.	Count	8	41	7	45	17	118
	Percentage	6.80%	34.70%	5.90%	38.10%	14.40%	100 %
8.8 My superior supports me to achieve my work-related goals.	Count	6	48	10	41	13	118
	Percentage	5.10%	40.70%	8.50%	34.70%	11%	100 %
8.9 My organisation provides me with staff training whilst I am at my work.	Count	6	12	6	41	53	118
	Percentage	5.10%	10.20%	5.10%	34.70%	44.90%	100 %
8.10 My organisation provides me with staff training whilst I am away from the workplace.	Count	51	47	7	10	3	118
	Percentage	43.20%	39.80%	5.90%	8.50%	2.50%	100 %
8.11 My employer provides me with staff training that is aligned with the current technology.	Count	18	57	8	27	8	118
	Percentage	15.30%	48.30%	6.80%	22.90%	6.80%	100 %
8.12 My organisation engages in some staff training where I share information that concerns work-related aspects..	Count	15	17	7	62	17	118
	Percentage	12.70%	14.40%	5.90%	52.50%	14.40%	100 %

As illustrated in Table 4.6 above, 52.50% of respondents indicated that their superiors guide them whenever they encounter difficulties with work (Statement 8.7). The finding reflects that employees received coaching from the organisation. Coetzee, Botha, Kiley and Truman (2009:175) report that coaching increases employees' competencies, achievement and understanding of the organisation. As shown in Figure 4.7 and Table 4.6 above, a significant majority of respondents (79.60%) agreed that their organisation provided them with staff training whilst on

their workplace (Statement 8.9). Mapelu *et al.* (2013:43) report that on-the-job training is preferred by employers for their operational staff where they work either with senior co-workers, supervisors or consultants. A significant majority of respondents (83%) reported that their organisation did not provide them with staff training whilst away from the workplace (Statement 8.10). Walker *et al.* (2013:334) posit that off-the-job training is carried out away from the workplace and the majority of organisations in the Hospitality and Catering sector seldomly take this form of training because of the high intensity of work and cost.

As shown in Table 4.6 above, 63.60% of the respondents agreed that their organisation provided them with general staff training which was sometimes irrelevant to their work (Statement 8.1). Ahammad (2013:2) highlights that the purpose of staff training in the work situation is to ensure relevant skills and abilities to the specific job are made available to an employee. In relation to Figure 4.7 and Table 4.6 above, the majority of respondents (63.60%) indicated that their employer did not provide them with staff training aligned with current technology (Statement 8.11). The finding implies that the equipment used by the organisation to train employees was out-of-date. Joan (2012:25) states that technologically-aligned staff training motivates employees because their skills are refined to suit the prevailing environment.

#### **4.5 STATISTICAL ANALYSIS**

The Pearson's chi-square and Spearman correlation tests were conducted to prove the existence of statistical relationships between variables. There are two major types of inferential statistics, namely, parametric statistics and non-parametric statistics (Levine, Ramsey and Smidt, 2010:2). The nature of the data captured was in ordinal form. For hypothesis testing the researcher utilised non-parametric tests due to the ordinal nature of the data (Sharma, 2010:2).

#### 4.5.1 HYPOTHESIS TESTING

Hypothesis testing entails an analysis of the statements or questions that generate a statistical value (Wilson, 2010:237). The Pearson's Chi-square and Spearman correlation tests were carried out to test hypotheses utilising the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) version 24 for Windows. A test statistic generates a p-value. A significant result is indicated with  $p < 0.05$  (Willemse, 2009:209). The Pearson's Chi-square and Spearman correlation tests were conducted for all fifteen formulated hypotheses to determine whether there was a statistically significant relationship between the variables. Both these statistical tests were used to compute the statistical value for each hypotheses.

Hypothesis 1      There is a significant relationship between staff training and employee retention at Servcor Private Limited.

**TABLE 4.7      STAFF TRAINING AND EMPLOYEE RETENTION (n=118)**

Statement 8.12 and 6.4	Value	Df	Asymptotic Significance (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	58.886 <sup>a</sup>	16	0.000
Likelihood Ratio	46.525	16	0.000
Linear-by-Linear Association	15.445	1	0.000
$\chi^2$	26.296		
N of Valid Cases	118		

- Pearson's Chi-Square = 58.886; Cut-off value: Chi-Square ( $\chi^2 > 26.296$ ); df = 16,  $p < 0.000$ , Cut-off parameter: Pearson's Significance ( $p < 0.05$ )

As depicted in Table 4.7 above, the Pearson's Chi-Square value of 58.886 is more than the  $\chi^2$  cut-off value of 26.296. The Pearson's Chi-Square test indicated a positive relationship ( $p < 0.000$ ). The statistical test results showed a highly significant

Hypothesis 2	There is a significant correlation between staff training and knowledge transfer at Servcor Private Limited.
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Statement 8.8 and 7.5		Value	Asymptotic Standard Error <sup>a</sup>	Approximate T <sup>b</sup>	Df	Asymptotic Significance (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square		39.196			16	0.001
Interval by Interval	Pearson's R	0.399	0.084	4.689		0.00
Ordinal by Ordinal	Spearman Correlation	0.371	0.089	4.297		0.000
X <sup>2</sup>		26.296				
N of Valid Cases		118				

- 113

As shown in Table 4.8 above, the Pearson's Chi-Square value of 39.196 is more than the  $\chi^2$  cut-off value of 26.296. The Pearson's Chi-square test result ( $p < 0.000$ ) is highly significant. The results showed a highly significant correlation between staff training and knowledge transfer. Hence, the hypothesis was accepted. Similar findings were reported by Kase *et al.* (2009:615) who concluded that staff training had a positive influence on knowledge transfer. Staff training transfers knowledge from explicit knowledge to explicit knowledge, explicit knowledge to tacit knowledge and tacit knowledge to tacit knowledge (Jashapara, 2011:279). As illustrated in Table 4.8 above, the Spearman Correlation  $p < 0.000$  is less than the cut-off parameter: Spearman Correlation ( $p < 0.05$ ). The results indicate a highly significant relationship between staff training and knowledge transfer. Davidson *et al.* (2010:451) elucidate that seminars and workshops provide excellent settings for forming and capturing tacit knowledge that is shared by knowledge workers. Nnema *et al.* (2013:577) state that workshops, course presentation, storytelling and debriefing transfer knowledge to and among employees.

Hypothesis 3                      There is a significant relationship between knowledge transfer and employee retention at Servcor Private Limited.

**TABLE 4.9                      KNOWLEDGE TRANSFER AND EMPLOYEE RETENTION  
(n=118)**

Statement 6.6 and 7.2	Value	Df	Asymptotic Significance (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	60.780 <sup>a</sup>	16	0.000
Likelihood Ratio	54.368	16	0.000
Linear-by-Linear Association	8.900	1	0.003
$\chi^2$	26.296		
N of Valid Cases	118		

- Pearson's Chi-Square value = 60.780, Cut-off value: Chi-Square ( $\chi^2 > 26.296$ ); df = 16,  $p < 0.000$ , Cut-off parameter: Pearson's Significance ( $p < 0.05$ )

Table 4.9 above depicts that the Pearson's Chi-Square value of 60.780 is greater than the  $\chi^2$  cut-off value of 26.296 and Pearson's Chi-Square test result ( $p < 0.05$ ). For this hypothesis, the Pearson's Chi-Square test showed a highly positive correlation ( $p < 0.000$ ). The results indicated a highly positive association between knowledge transfer and employee retention. Hence, the hypothesis was accepted. The results in Table 4.9 are supported by Zafar *et al.* (2014:50) in Pakistan who found that there is a highly significant relationship between knowledge transfer and employee retention. Carleton (2011:459) indicates that when an organisation invests in optimizing its employees and facilitates opportunities for shared learning experiences, benefits flow from enhanced co-operation and teamwork, which in turn allows retention to blossom. Carina *et al.* (2008:366) state that the practice of knowledge transfer is a crucial social glue that makes people function together.

Hypothesis 4                      There is a significant relationship between on-the-job training and employee retention at Servcor Private Limited.

**TABLE 4.10                      ON-THE-JOB TRAINING AND EMPLOYEE RETENTION (n=118)**

Statement 6.4 and 8.9		Value	Asymptotic Standard Error <sup>a</sup>	Approximate T <sup>b</sup>	Df	Asymptotic Significance (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square		62.601			16	0.000
Interval by Interval	Pearson's R	0.340	0.111	3.891		0.000
Ordinal by Ordinal	Spearman Correlation	0.249	0.101	2.765		0.007
$\chi^2$		26.296				
N of Valid Cases		118				

- Pearson's Chi-Square = 62.601, Cut-off value: Chi-Square ( $\chi^2 > 26.296$ ); df = 16. Pearson's Chi-Square  $p < 0.000$ , Cut-off parameter: Pearson's Significance ( $p < 0.05$ ); Spearman Correlation  $p < 0.007$ , Cut-off parameter: Spearman Correlation ( $p < 0.05$ );



Table 4.10 above reveals that the Pearson's Chi-Square value of 62.601 surpasses the minimum  $\chi^2$  cut-off value of 26.296. The Pearson's Chi-Square test result ( $p < 0.000$ ) is highly significant, implying that there is a highly significant relationship between on-the-job training and employee retention. Therefore, the hypothesis was accepted. These results are consistent with research findings reported by Mapelu *et al.* (2010:30) who found that on-the-job training had a positive influence on employee retention. Table 4.10 above reveals there the Spearman Correlation test result ( $p < 0.000$ ) is less than the Cut-off parameter: Spearman Correlation ( $p < 0.05$ ). Therefore, there is a highly significant relationship between on-the-job training and employee retention. A number of employees prefer on-the-job training (Walker *et al.* 2010:30). McDowall *et al.* (2010:609) postulate that on-the-job training would be of great benefit to employees because they gain practical experience.

Hypothesis 5                      There is a significant correlation between off-the-job training and employee retention at Servcor Private Limited.

**TABLE 4.11                      OFF-THE-JOB TRAINING AND EMPLOYEE RETENTION  
(n=118)**

Statement 6.4 and 8.10	Value	Df	Asymptotic Significance (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	22.519 <sup>a</sup>	16	0.127
Likelihood Ratio	22.654	16	0.123
Fisher's Exact Test	22.399		
Linear-by-Linear Association	3.010 <sup>c</sup>	1	0.083

- Pearson's Chi-Square = 22.519, Cut-off value: Chi-Square ( $X^2 > 26.296$ ); df = 16. Pearson's Chi-Square  $p < 0.127$ , Cut-off parameter: Pearson's Significance ( $p < 0.05$ ). Fisher's Exact Test value = 22.399, Cut-off value: Fisher's Exact Test ( $X^2 > 26.296$ ); df = 16,  $p < 0.127$ , Cut-off parameter: Pearson's Significance ( $p < 0.05$ )

Table 4.11 above depicts that the Fisher's Exact Test value of 22.399 is less than the minimum  $\chi^2$  cut-off value of 26.296 and a Pearson's Chi-Square test result of ( $p < 0.127$ ) exceeds the maximum cut-off Pearson's Chi-Square test value ( $p < 0.05$ ). This is therefore a non-significant relationship between off-the-job training and employee retention. Hence, the hypothesis was rejected. Nestoraska *et al.* (2014:437) emphasise that off-the-job training is usually preferred for the general development of managers who participate in seminars, workshops or conferences.

Hypothesis 6            There is a significant relationship between coaching and employee retention at Servcor Private Limited.

**TABLE 4.12                      COACHING AND EMPLOYEE RETENTION (n=118)**

Statement 6.4 and 8.7		Value	Asymptotic Standard Error <sup>a</sup>	Approximate T <sup>b</sup>	Df	Asymptotic Significance (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square		29.584			16	0.02
Interval by Interval	Pearson's R	0.257	0.101	2.863		0.005
Ordinal by Ordinal	Spearman Correlation	0.286	0.096	3.216		0.00
$\chi^2$		26.296				
N of Valid Cases		118				

- Pearson's Chi-Square = 29.584, Cut-off value: Chi-Square ( $\chi^2 > 26.296$ ); df = 16, Pearson's Chi-Square  $p < 0.02$ , Cut-off parameter: Pearson significance ( $p < 0.05$ ); Spearman Correlation  $p < 0.02$ , Cut-off parameter: Spearman Correlation ( $p < 0.05$ ).

Table 4.12 above reveals that the Pearson's Chi-Square value of 29.584 surpasses the minimum  $\chi^2$  cut-off value of 26.296. Pearson's Chi-Square  $p < 0.02$  is below the Cut-off parameter: Pearson significance ( $p < 0.05$ ). Therefore, it is highly significant. The statistical test results indicate that there is a significant relationship between coaching and employee retention. Therefore, the hypothesis was accepted. Through



(2010:410) highlight that coaching is more appropriate for the transmission of tacit knowledge.

Hypothesis 8            There is a significant relationship between mentoring and knowledge transfer at Servcor Private Limited.

**TABLE 4.14 MENTORING AND KNOWLEDGE TRANSFER (n=118)**

Statement 7.10 and 8.8		Value	Asymptotic Standard Error <sup>a</sup>	Approximate T <sup>b</sup>	Df	Asymptotic Significance (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square		56.185			16	0.000
Interval by Interval	Pearson's R	0.249	0.105	2.768		0.007
Ordinal by Ordinal	Spearman Correlation	0.214	0.106	2.362		0.020
X <sup>2</sup>		26.296				
N of Valid Cases		118				

- Pearson's Chi-Square = 56.185, Cut-off value: Chi-Square ( $X^2 > 26.296$ ); df = 16; Pearson's Chi-Square  $p < 0.000$ , Cut-off parameter: Pearson's Significance ( $p < 0.05$ ); Spearman Correlation  $p < 0.020$ , Cut-off parameter: Spearman Correlation ( $p < 0.05$ )

Table 4.14 reveals that the Pearson's Chi-Square value of 56.185 exceeds the minimum  $\chi^2$  cut-off value of 26.296. Pearson's Chi-Square ( $p < 0.000$ ) is highly significant. The statistical test outcomes indicated a significant positive relationship between mentoring and knowledge transfer. Hence, the hypothesis was accepted. According to Lee, Gillespie, Mann and Wearing (2010:473), the process of mentoring is key to transfer knowledge. Table 4.13 reveals that the Spearman Correlation test result ( $p < 0.05$ ) is below the Cut-off parameter: Spearman Correlation ( $p < 0.007$ ). Hence, it is highly significant. There is a highly significant relationship between coaching and employee retention. Hu *et al.* (2009:43) further clarify that direct communication between mentor and mentee promotes the inherent transfer of tacit knowledge. Tacit knowledge can be captured during the discussions.

Hypothesis 9      There is a significant relationship between the provision of general staff training and employees' thoughts of quitting the job at Sevcor Private Limited.

**TABLE 4.15      PROVISION OF GENERAL STAFF TRAINING AND EMPLOYEES' THOUGHTS OF QUITTING THE JOB (n=118)**

Statement 6.6 and 8.1	Value	Df	Asymptotic Significance (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	41.745 <sup>a</sup>	16	0.000
Likelihood Ratio	43.839	16	0.000
Linear-by-Linear Association	5.246	1	0.022
X <sup>2</sup>	26.296		
N of Valid Cases	118		

- Pearson's Chi-Square value = 41.745<sup>a</sup>, Cut-off value: Chi-Square ( $X^2 > 26.296$ ); df = 16,  $p < 0.000$ , Cut-off parameter: Pearson's Significance ( $p < 0.05$ )

Table 4.15 depicts that the Pearson's Chi-Square value of 41.745 is more than the  $\chi^2$  cut-off value of 26.296 and Pearson's Chi-Square test result ( $p < 0.000$ ). There is a significant relationship between general staff training and employees' thoughts of quitting the job. Hence, the hypothesis was accepted. Once employees notice that the staff training that their organisation is offering does not match their job demands, they regard it as useless and valueless (Nnema *et al.* 2013:571). Hayes *et al.* (2009:35) state that employees feel sufficiently trained when their organisation provides them with training that is appropriate to their work.

Hypothesis 10      There is a significant correlation between the identification of training needs and employees' feeling of being adequately skilled at Servcor Private Limited.

**TABLE 4.16      TRAINING NEEDS IDENTIFICATION AND EMPLOYEES' FEELING OF BEING ADEQUATELY SKILLED (n=118)**

Statement 7.10 and 8.2	Value	Df	Asymptotic Significance (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	66.939 <sup>a</sup>	16	0.000
Likelihood Ratio	65.164	16	0.000
Linear-by-Linear Association	4.501	1	0.034
X <sup>2</sup>	26.296		
N of Valid Cases	118		

- Pearson's Chi-Square value = 66.939<sup>a</sup>, Cut-off value: Chi-Square ( $X^2 > 26.296$ ); df = 16,  $p < 0.000$ , Cut-off parameter: Pearson's Significance ( $p < 0.05$ )

Table 4.16 above shows that the Pearson's Chi-Square value of 66.939 is greater than the  $\chi^2$  cut-off value of 26.296. The Pearson's Chi-Square test result ( $p < 0.000$ ) is highly significant. The results showed a highly positive correlation between the identification of training needs and employees' feeling of being adequately skilled. Therefore, the hypothesis was accepted. Consideration of employees' needs necessitate the organisation's staff training to focus on the skills and knowledge employees really require (Jepnguich *et al.* 2013:1). Employees feel sufficiently skilled when they receive training they actually need. Staff training is applauded when the exact training needs of employees are addressed. Regardless of how rigorously and frequently the organisation provides training, it is worthless if the training provided is not important to employees (Wilton, 2013:146). Kyndt *et al.* (2009:195) claim that meeting employee needs through training occurs when the information provided is perceived to be applicable.

Hypothesis 11      There is a significant relationship between the provision of general staff training and the existence of feelings of being left behind of employees at Servcor Private Limited.

**TABLE 4.17                      PROVISION OF GENERAL STAFF TRAINING AND THE FEELING OF BEING LEFT BEHIND OF EMPLOYEES (n=118)**

Statement 6.8 and 8.1		Value	Asymptotic Standard Error <sup>a</sup>	Approximate T <sup>b</sup>	Df	Asymptotic Significance (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square		56.922			16	0.000
Interval by Interval	Pearson's R	0.306	0.107	3.457		0.01
Ordinal by Ordinal	Spearman Correlation	0.253	0.105	2.821		0.006
Pearson's Chi-Square		56.922			16	
X <sup>2</sup>		26.296				
N of Valid Cases		118				

- Pearson's Chi-Square = 56.922, Cut-off value: Chi-Square ( $X^2 > 26.296$ ); df = 16; Pearson's Chi-Square  $p < 0.000$ , Cut-off parameter: Pearson significance ( $p < 0.05$ ); Spearman Correlation  $p < 0.006$ , Cut-off parameter: Spearman Correlation ( $p < 0.05$ )

Table 4.17 reveals that the Pearson's Chi-Square value of 56.922 exceeds the minimum  $\chi^2$  cut-off value of 26.296. Pearson's Chi-Square ( $p < 0.000$ ) is highly significant. The results indicate a significant relationship between general training and the feeling of being left behind. Hence, the hypothesis was accepted. Most employees feel poorly trained because their organisations just offer them general staff training (Elisa, Jinlim and Christine, 2009:437). Table 4.17 reveals that the Spearman Correlation test result ( $p < 0.006$ ) is below the Cut-off parameter: Spearman Correlation ( $p < 0.05$ ). Therefore, it is highly significant. There is a significant relationship between general training and the feeling of being left behind. Employees need to update their skills and, in this case, they prefer appropriate

training that provides the specific skills of their job (Khawaja, 2013:51). Mapelu *et al.* (2013:43) state that employees of any organisation seek to be competitive against their counterparts in other organisations and irrelevant training makes them feel absolutely behind.

Hypotheses 12      There is a significant relationship between the provision of resources for development and loyalty to work at Servcor Private Limited.

**TABLE 4.18                      PROVISION OF RESOURCES FOR DEVELOPMENT AND LOYALTY TO WORK (n=118)**

Statement 7.11 and 6.4		Value	Asymptotic Standard Error <sup>a</sup>	Approximate T <sup>b</sup>	Df	Asymptotic Significance (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square		59.999			16	0.000
Interval by Interval	Pearson's R	0.449	0.099	5.408		0.000
Ordinal by Ordinal	Spearman Correlation	0.423	0.095	5.032		0.000
X <sup>2</sup>		26.296				
N of Valid Cases		118				

- Pearson's Chi-Square = 52.999, Cut-off value: Chi-Square ( $X^2 > 26.296$ ); df = 16. Pearson's Chi-Square  $p < 0.000$ , Cut-off parameter: Pearson significance ( $p < 0.05$ ); Spearman Correlation  $p < 0.000$ , Cut-off parameter: Spearman Correlation ( $p < 0.05$ ).

Table 4.18 reveals that the Pearson's Chi-Square value of 52.999 is above the minimum  $\chi^2$  cut-off value of 26.296. Pearson's Chi-Square ( $p < 0.000$ ) is highly significant. There is a highly significant relationship between the provision of resources and loyalty to work. Hence, the hypothesis was accepted. Boella *et al.*



(2014:105) highlight that an organisation that provides adequate equipment for staff training stirs employees to be loyal. Table 4.18 reveals that the Spearman Correlation test result ( $p < 0.000$ ) is less than the Cut-off parameter: Spearman Correlation ( $p < 0.05$ ). Hence, it is highly significant. There is a significant relationship between the provision of resources and loyalty to work. Mudor *et al.* (2011:41) state that the availability of sophisticated equipment makes it easy for employees to carry out their duties and hence portrays a comfortable place for any employee to work. Sufficient resources facilitate the application of different skills and abilities that motivates employees to feel a sense of belonging in the organisation (Mudor *et al.* 2011:41).

Hypotheses 13      There is a significant relationship between technologically aligned staff training and the job satisfaction of employees at Servcor Private Limited.

**TABLE 4.19      TECHNOLOGICALLY ALIGNED STAFF TRAINING AND JOB SATISFACTION OF EMPLOYEES (n=118)**

Statement 8.11 and 6.9		Value	Asymptotic Standard Error <sup>a</sup>	Approximate T <sup>b</sup>	Df	Asymptotic Significance (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square		17.917			16	0.000
Interval by Interval	Pearson's R	0.478	0.087	5.866		0.000
Ordinal by Ordinal	Spearman Correlation	0.409	0.094	4.831		0.000
X <sup>2</sup>		26.296				
N of Valid Cases		118				

- Pearson's Chi-Square = 77.917, Cut-off value: Chi-Square ( $X^2 > 26.296$ ); df = 16; Pearson's Chi-Square  $p < 0.000$ , Cut-off parameter: Pearson significance ( $p < 0.05$ ); Spearman Correlation  $p < 0.000$ , Cut-off parameter: Spearman Correlation ( $p < 0.05$ )

Table 4.19 reveals that the Pearson's Chi-Square value of 77.917 is above the minimum  $\chi^2$  cut-off value of 26.296. Pearson's Chi-Square ( $p < 0.000$ ) is highly significant. There is a significant relationship between technologically aligned staff

training and the job satisfaction of employees. Davidson *et al.* (2010:498) state that staff training needs the latest equipment for employees to feel satisfied. Therefore, the hypothesis was accepted. Table 4.19 reveals that the Spearman Correlation test result ( $p < 0.000$ ) is less than Cut-off parameter: Spearman Correlation ( $p < 0.05$ ). Therefore, it is highly significant. There is a significant relationship between technologically aligned staff training and the job satisfaction of employees. Technologically advanced equipment in training prompts employees to deal with challenging but beneficial aspects of the job (Das *et al.* 2013:13). This propels the skills of employees and keeps them abreast with the constantly changing environment.

Hypothesis 14      There is a significant relationship between the consideration of the external environment when providing staff training and sharing relevant information at Servcor Private Limited.

**TABLE 4.20                      CONSIDERATION OF THE EXTERNAL ENVIRONMENT WHEN PROVIDING STAFF TRAINING AND SHARING RELEVANT INFORMATION (n=118)**

Statement 7.8 and 8.5	Value	Df	Asymptotic Significance (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	55.229	16	0.000
Likelihood Ratio	61.329	16	0.000
Linear-by-Linear Association	19.354	1	0.000
$\chi^2$	26.296		
N of Valid Cases	118		

- Pearson's Chi-Square value = 55.229, Cut-off value: Chi-Square ( $\chi^2 > 26.296$ ); df = 16,  $p < 0.000$ , Cut-off parameter: Pearson's Significance ( $p < 0.05$ )

Table 4.20 depicts that the Pearson's Chi-Square value of 55.229 is greater than the  $\chi^2$  cut-off value of 26.296 and Pearson's Chi-Square test result ( $p < 0.000$ ). The statistical tests outcomes revealed a significant relationship between the consideration of the external environment and sharing relevant information. Hence,

the hypothesis was accepted. Ranjan *et al.* (2012:194) state that the challenge imposed by an ever-changing environment requires superiors to scan the surroundings in order to share relevant knowledge and skills with their juniors. Before the assigned seniors share their knowledge with juniors, they are required to examine the prevailing environment so that they emphasise current important aspects and downplay outdated valueless aspects (Rothwell, 2013:143).

Hypothesis 15      There is a significant relationship between the existence of hurdles to sharing knowledge amongst employees and the way management disseminates information at Servcor Private Limited.

**TABLE 4.21                      HURDLES TO SHARING KNOWLEDGE AMONGST EMPLOYEES AND THE WAY MANAGEMENT DISSEMINATES INFORMATION (n=118)**

Statement 7.9 and 7.7	Value	Df	Asymptotic Significance (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	92.751	16	0.000
Likelihood Ratio	90.073	16	0.000
Linear-by-Linear Association	33.795	1	0.000
$\chi^2$	26.296		
N of Valid Cases	118		

- Pearson's Chi-Square value = 92.751, Cut-off value: Chi-Square ( $\chi^2 > 26.296$ ); df = 16, p=0.000, Cut-off parameter: Pearson's Significance (p < 0.05)

Table 4.21 depicts that the Pearson's Chi-Square value of 92.751 is greater than the  $\chi^2$  cut-off value of 26.296 and Pearson's Chi-Square test result (p < 0.000). The statistical test results showed that there is a high significance between the existence of hurdles to share knowledge and the way top management disseminates information. Hence, the hypothesis was accepted. Top managers that lead by

example on knowledge transfer activities indirectly encourage employees to share their experiences and skills (Benmoussa, 2009:262). Employees are likely to hoard knowledge at the workplace if they notice that their organisation is not disseminating information regarding business activities (Mahapa, 2013:76).

#### **4.6 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY**

Due to constraints of time and logistics, the study was confined to Servcor Private Limited, which is located in Harare, Zimbabwe. Consequently, the research highlights findings and results specific to Servcor Private Limited. Therefore, the results cannot be generalised to other organisations because situational factors may differ.

#### **4.7 CONCLUSION**

This chapter reviewed the analysis of data obtained from the captured responses. The results were depicted in the form of graphs, charts and tables. The results showed fourteen significant correlations and one non-significant correlations of the variables in the study. In this chapter, fifteen (15) hypotheses were tested statistically utilising Pearson's Chi-square and Spearman's Correlation tests. The study was conducted in-house at Servcor Private Limited, hence the results of the study can only be generalised to all employees that form part of the target population. The following chapter presents the conclusions of the study, recommendations arising from the analysis of the data and also directions for future research.

## **CHAPTER 5**

### **CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS**

#### **5.1 INTRODUCTION**

The chapter presents the conclusion and recommendations derived from the findings of the empirical results. The study focused on the effectiveness of staff training on knowledge transfer and employee retention at Servcor Private Limited in Zimbabwe as a case study. The research design was quantitative in nature. The pre-coded closed questionnaire, using the 5-point Likert scale, was administered to the sample (120) chosen from the target population of 240 employees at Servcor Private Limited. The Servcor Private Limited top management gave an informed consent letter (Annexure D) to conduct this in-house research. A high response rate of 98.2% was obtained, using the personal method to collect data. A statistician was hired to compute the statistical analysis that incorporated the formulated hypotheses. The latest Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) version 24.0 for Windows was utilized for the analysis of data. Remarkable findings emerged from the analysis of the results.

#### **5.2 CONCLUSION**

The key aim of this study was to investigate the effectiveness of staff training on knowledge transfer and employee retention in a selected organisation operating in the Hospitality and Catering industry, that is, Servcor Private Limited. A comprehensive empirical analysis was performed on 2 sections of the questionnaire, namely Section A and Section B. Two relevant non-parametric tests were utilized for all the hypotheses formulated. A number of findings emerged from the empirical data analysis. Most of the findings were complemented and substantiated by other researchers and authors who carried out similar studies. The outcomes of this study have crucial practical implications. It is becoming increasingly evident that staff training is one of the most effective tools in promoting knowledge transfer and employee retention. However, concern has been expressed by the researcher about the generalisability of the findings as it should be borne in mind that in-house

situational factors may differ from one organisation to another. In addition, the investigation focused on one organisation, namely, Servcor Private Limited. Therefore, the findings cannot be generalised to other similar organisations in the Hospitality industry in Zimbabwe.

## **5.3 RECOMMENDATIONS**

### **5.3.1 INCREASE THE AMOUNT INVESTED IN STAFF TRAINING**

An important finding was that employees (82.20%) were prepared to leave the organisation if they could get a job that offers more staff training. The study finding also shows a significant relationship between staff training and employee retention. Thus, top management should increase the amount of investment in staff training in order to retain employees. Emerging from the empirical analysis, the following can be used to effectively increase employee retention:

- Top management should constantly offer refresher courses as part of staff training in order to update employees with current skills in the industry;
- Top management should provide re-training to all employees within the organisation; and
- The organisation should always be proactive in providing the requisite skills to employees.

Das *et al.* (2013:13) recommend that today's organisations must accept that no programme or activity continues for long without a concise re-design or modification to prevent obsolescence.

### **5.3.2 PROVIDE A VARIETY OF SKILLS**

Another key finding was that most employees (83%) felt behind in the expected staff training they desired. In addition, the top management should also provide a variety of staff training programmes. The possession of additional and varied skills would only give an employee a dream role or desired stature in the organization. Licheng *et al.* (2011:25) contend that a significant number of qualified employees join the company not only for monetary benefits, but more importantly to get learning opportunities for them to grow, as well as getting a chance to acquire a wider range

of skills. Chibolu (2013:634) further attests that the capability to multi-tasking aids the employee to be more responsible and increases the desire to remain in the organisation.

### **5.3.3 PROVIDE JOB-SPECIFIC TRAINING TO INCREASE EMPLOYEE RETENTION**

Top management should provide job-specific training to curb employee mobility. Organisations should offer staff training that has procedures and processes which cannot be transferred easily to other organisations. This can satisfy those employees with desires of internal career advancement. Hence, employees can only be satisfied if they see a direct connection between staff training and employee retention. Ajay *et al.* (2015:168) state that employee mobility suggests that training and development opportunities that increase employees' general skills may also reduce turnover. Allen *et al.* (2013:72) advocate that one way to increase employees' skills and abilities without increasing their external mobility is to offer job-specific training.

### **5.3.4 ENSURE THAT STAFF TRAINING IS CONSTANTLY ALIGNED WITH TECHNOLOGY**

The findings of the study (63.60%) indicated that staff training provided by the organisation was not aligned with technology. Top management should ensure that all the equipment and tools used for staff training are aligned with prevailing technology. Employees feel happy when their skills are kept in line with latest technologies. Davidson *et al.* (2010:498) report that there is polarisation of skills levels within organisations, with technology deskilling a large number of jobs yet also creating highly trained individuals.

### **5.3.5 PROMOTE A CULTURE OF KNOWLEDGE TRANSFER**

Top management should promote a culture of knowledge transfer. Management should place greater emphasis on culture and on how to co-ordinate employees with different values and behaviour. Top management should facilitate a culture of knowledge transfer in the whole organisation. Hawryszkiewicz (2010:111) asserts that organisations should establish a belief that knowledge transfer is good and foster this by providing motivation and support.

### **5.3.6 OFFER MORE OPPORTUNITIES FOR EXPERIMENTING**

Top management should give knowledge transferees a platform to practice what they learnt. Top management should provide the tools and methods to accelerate knowledge transfer. Coetzee *et al.* (2009:206) affirm that employees should be provided with as many opportunities as possible to experience and practice the tasks, concepts or skills being taught. Employees are motivated to learn and remain in the organisation when they can transfer knowledge to the work setting (Singh, 2014:28).

### **5.3.7 REMOVAL OF PUNISHMENT FOR MISTAKES**

Top management should inform employees that they do not reprimand employees for mistakes they make during their practice. Joia *et al.* (2010:410) report that systems that penalize those who make mistakes discourage the transfer of knowledge. Sie *et al.* (2009:175) support this view and claim that in real-life situations, mistakes often have immediate consequences.



### **5.3.8 ENCOURAGE BUILDING OF INTERPERSONAL RELATIONS AMONGST ALL LEVELS OF EMPLOYEES**

Top management should build interpersonal relations and engagements amongst all levels of employees. Top management should encourage employees to disclose and exchange ideas freely, without cynicism or personal attacks. According to Hu *et al.* (2009:41), one of the most fundamental premises is that an experienced employee's willingness to transfer knowledge to or source knowledge from colleagues is shaped by the quality of interpersonal relations that exist between employees.

### **5.3.9 ALWAYS USE ACTION PLANS**

The findings of the study (61.90%) revealed that superiors were not willing to share their knowledge with employees. Top management should always use actions plan. In this case, top management should give knowledge providers the schedule of topics and checklists of what they should do after the knowledge transfer process to ensure that skills are transferred from the source to the recipient. McDowall *et al.* (2010:609) highlight that managers can facilitate transfer through the use of action plans. An action plan is a written document that includes the steps that the source and recipient will take to ensure that knowledge transfers to the job (Mahapa, 2013:76).

### **5.3.10 INSTITUTIONALISATION OF KNOWLEDGE TRANSFER**

The finding of the study (72%) indicate that management was not disseminating information regarding management activities. Top management should be role models of institutionalizing knowledge transfer. Atwood (2012:38) affirms that for knowledge transfer to be institutionalised swiftly, it should be initiated by supervisors, managers and executives. In addition, Perez *et al.* (2015:167) emphasise that top

management should encourage employees to expand the utilization value of the exchanged knowledge.

#### **5.3.11 EMBRACE A CULTURE OF SHARING**

Top management should encourage a culture of sharing. Top management should create an open, decentralized setting where employees are empowered to take knowledge as a resource to be shared and not hoarded. The findings of the study (64.40%) reflected that experts were not willing to share their knowledge. Peng *et al.* (2010:158) state that top management should encourage employees to lower greed and raise self-confidence in knowledge transfer. Allen *et al.* (2013:71) postulate that effective knowledge transfer requires a tendency of hoarding knowledge to be turned down and calls for those with information to be coaches and mentors to ensure that other employees in the organisation acquire the same knowledge they have.

#### **5.3.12 MAINTAIN MINIMAL DISTANCE BETWEEN THE KNOWLEDGE TRANSFEROR AND KNOWLEDGE TRANSFEREE**

Top management should ensure that the knowledge transferor and knowledge transferee are physically close. A long physical distance can cause communication difficulties. Knowledge transfer is enhanced when the knowledge gap between the source and recipient is not so great that it makes the recipient unable to identify, if not retrace, the intermediate learning steps between its present competence level and that of its partner (Baruch, 2011:310). Yakhulef (2009:175) states that while the transfer of explicit knowledge is relatively straightforward, tacit knowledge requires the transferor and transferee to be in close physical proximity. As a matter for concern, Atwood (2012:32) notes that when the knowledge gap between the knowledge transferors who are the trainers and transferees, who are the trainees is too wide, then the recipient will encounter challenges in assimilating the knowledge transferred.

### **5.3.13 INCENTIVE SCHEMES TO KNOWLEDGE TRANSFERORS**

Top management should provide incentives to mentors and coaches. Incentive is the reward of knowledge transfer, which motivates knowledge transferors (trainers). Top management should also give incentives to those employees who successfully apply the new competencies they learnt to the workplace. Employees are unwilling to share knowledge if they are not rewarded for accomplishing knowledge outcomes, such as applying and exchanging knowledge. Benmoussa (2009:262) affirms that knowledge originates in the minds of individuals, so top managers must realise that unless experienced employees are motivated to share, knowledge transfer cannot happen.

### **5.4 DIRECTIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH**

Since the study was carried out at Servcor Private Limited only, it would be necessary to conduct the research on other organisations in the Hospitality and Catering industry and compare the outcomes as this could shed more light on the effectiveness of staff training on knowledge transfer and employee retention. In addition, this study employed a quantitative research design. Therefore, it would be necessary that further research utilise a qualitative research design in order to gain a deeper understanding on the effectiveness of staff training on knowledge transfer and employee retention.

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## ANNEXURE A

Cell: +263775393752  
Email: uteter@gmail.com

18 Heswell  
Durban 4000  
KwaZulu-Natal  
South Africa

8 June 2015

Dear Respondent

### **RE: REQUEST FOR COMPLETION OF RESEARCH QUESTIONNAIRE**

I kindly request your assistance in completing structured questionnaire attached, as you have been randomly selected as one of the respondents comprising the sampling frame for Servcor Private Limited. I am a registered Masters student at the Durban University of Technology conducting a research topic entitled, "The effectiveness of staff training on knowledge transfer and employee retention: A case study of Servcor Private Limited in Zimbabwe". I am under the supervision of Prof. D.C. Jinabhai who is based in the Department of Human Resource Management at Durban University of Technology.

I have submitted a letter requesting written permission to conduct this research. Servcor Private Limited has granted my request to conduct the research investigation and to administer the questionnaire relating to the topic. The questionnaire would take an average of 20 minutes to complete and only requires you to mark (X) to the relevant precoded response objectively and honestly. Please answer all likert scale statements and do not leave any statement blank.

Please be assured that your responses will be treated with utmost confidentiality and will not be disclosed to any other party. You are advised that your name should not be mentioned on the questionnaire and will remain anonymous. The responses to the questionnaire will be utilised for statistical purpose only. Your participation is voluntary and you may, at any stage, without coercion, withdraw your consent and participation in the study. All respondents who participate will get post of the brief summary of the main findings in the completion of the project.

Your sincere co-operation in assisting me with this part of the study is greatly appreciated and I look forward to a speed return of the questionnaire. If you have any queries, please do not hesitate to contact me at the cellphone number above. I thank you in advance for enable me to complete my research project.

Sincerely

Reward Utete  
Student Number: 21143519

**Instructions**

1. This questionnaire comprises of two sections.
2. You are kindly requested to answer all likert scale statements.
3. Please mark **(X)** to the relevant precoded response.
4. Please mark **(X)** for one response only.
5. Do not leave any statement blank.

**Section A: Biographical information**

1. Please indicate your gender.

1.1	Male	1
1.2	Female	2

2. Please indicate your age group.

2.1	21-25 years	1
2.2	26-30 years	2
2.3	31-35 years	3
2.4	36-40 years	4
2.5	41-45 years	5
2.6	46-50 years	6
2.7	> 51 years	7

3. Please indicate your racial group.

3.1	Black	1
3.2	White	2
3.3	Indian	3
3.4	Colored	4

4. Please indicate how long you have been with the organisation.

4.1	0-4 years	1
4.2	5-9 years	2
4.3	10-14 years	3
4.4	15-19 years	4
4.5	20-24 years	5
4.6	>25 years	6

5. Please indicate your qualification.

6.1	Post-graduate	1
6.2	Degree	2
6.3	Diploma	3
6.4	Technical Certificate	4
6.5	Secondary education	5



## Section B

### 6. Effectiveness of staff training on employee retention

	Item	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Nuetral	Agree	Strongly Agree
6.1	If I get a job at any organisation that offers more staff training I will quit my current job.	1	2	3	4	5
6.2	Soon after acquiring expertise that I need I will start to look for better opportunities.	1	2	3	4	5
6.3	After receiving staff training I will be strongly willing to stay in the organisation.	1	2	3	4	5
6.4	Staff training offered at Servcor Private Limited motivates me to stay over the next 5 years.	1	2	3	4	5
6.5	My staff training benefits of staying with the organisation outweigh the benefits of leaving for another organisation.	1	2	3	4	5
6.6	I am thinking of quitting my job because my organisation is not sufficiently training me.	1	2	3	4	5
6.7	Staff training that Servcor Private Limited offers to me increases loyalty to my work.	1	2	3	4	5
6.8	I feel left behind when it comes to the job skills that I need.	1	2	3	4	5
6.9	I feel satisfied with existing staff training at Servcor Private Limited.	1	2	3	4	5
6.10	My organisation is interested in my long-term growth and development.	1	2	3	4	5
6.11	I perceive the types of staff training at Servcor Private Limited in a positive way.	1	2	3	4	5
6.12	I am more satisfied to learn whilst at work.	1	2	3	4	5
6.13	I am more satisfied to learn whilst away from work.	1	2	3	4	5

### 7. Effectiveness of staff training on knowledge transfer.

7.1	Whenever I get trained my organisation encourages me to utilise new skills that I gained in my work.	1	2	3	4	5

7.2	I always see that my organisation use the old systems even if I am trained with new systems.	1	2	3	4	5
7.3	All the knowledge that I get from training is documented within the organisation.	1	2	3	4	5
7.4	I am demotivated when the organisation uses previous work systems when I gained skills for a new system.	1	2	3	4	5
7.5	My superiors share their work experiences and written manuals with me.	1	2	3	4	5
7.6	It is usual at my organisation that one team adapts other team's knowledge to solve their problems.	1	2	3	4	5
7.7	Servcor Private Limited disseminates information about management activities to me.	1	2	3	4	5
7.8	Experts in my organisation freely share information relevant to my work with me.	1	2	3	4	5
7.9	I feel I have no hurdles to sharing knowledge with my superiors in my organisation.	1	2	3	4	5
7.10	The staff training at Servcor Private Limited enable me to feel adequately skilled for my present job.	1	2	3	4	5
7.11	My organisation provides me with adequate resources needed for my development.	1	2	3	4	5
7.12	I discuss the new developments of work-related activities with my co-workers.	1	2	3	4	5
7.13	I can only apply a little part of the knowledge I get from training at my workplace.	1	2	3	4	5

## 8. Types and forms of staff training

8.1	My organisation provides me with general staff training which is sometimes irrelevant to my work.	1	2	3	4	5
8.2	Servcor Private Limited identifies the suitable staff training I need before providing training to me.	1	2	3	4	5
8.3	My superior examines my character when providing staff training to me.	1	2	3	4	5

8.4	I engage in learning discussion with experts from my field of work.	1	2	3	4	5
8.5	My superior considers the external environment in order to give me proper staff training.	1	2	3	4	5
8.6	My superior is willing to teach me every aspect of my work.	1	2	3	4	5
8.7	My experienced superior guides me whenever I encounter difficulties with my work.	1	2	3	4	5
8.8	My superior supports me to achieve my work-related goals.	1	2	3	4	5
8.9	My organisation provides me with staff training whilst I am at work.	1	2	3	4	5
8.10	My organisation provides me with staff training whilst I am away from the workplace.	1	2	3	4	5
8.11	My employer provides me with staff training that is aligned with the current technology.	1	2	3	4	5
8.12	My organisation engages in some staff training where I share information that concerns work-related aspects.	1	2	3	4	5

## ANNEXURE C

South Africa, Cell: +2773 064 1668

18 Heswell Road  
Durban 4000  
KwaZulu-Natal  
South Africa

17 June 2015

The Human Resources Manager  
Servcor Private Limited  
47 Plymouth Road  
Southerton, Harare  
Zimbabwe, 00263

Dear Mr E. Ncube

**RE: REQUEST FOR A LETTER OF PERMISSION (GATEKEEPER'S LETTER) TO CONDUCT RESEARCH AND USE SERVCOR PRIVATE LIMITED COMPANY AS THE CASE STUDY OF THE RESEARCH PROJECT**

I am kindly requesting permission in the form of a letter (a gatekeeper's letter) to carry out my research and use your organisation as a case study of my research study. This study will benefit Servcor Private Limited since a copy of the key findings will be given to the top management. The topic is entitled, "The effectiveness of staff training on knowledge transfer and employee retention: A case study of Servcor Private Limited". I am a registered Masters Student in the Department of Human Resources Management at the Durban University of Technology under the supervision of Professor D.C. Jinabhai.

I guarantee you that the information that you will give me will be kept with utmost confidentiality, and will not be disclosed to any other party. Your formal letter of informed consent is greatly appreciated since it is a pre-requisite for me to pursue with my Masters study at this stage. Should you have any further information, please do not hesitate to contact me on my cell number above.

Yours Sincerely

Reward Utete  
Student Number: 21143519

# servcor

(PRIVATE) LIMITED

## Cost-Effective Catering Solutions

47 Plymouth Road, Southerton, Harare, Zimbabwe. Tel: (263-4) 620301/9, 2921765/6. Mobile: (263-772) 565 823/824/825.  
Fax: (263-4) 620300. P.O. Box HR 10584, Harare. [servcor@servcor.co.zw](mailto:servcor@servcor.co.zw). Website: [www.servcor.co.zw](http://www.servcor.co.zw)  
Bulawayo: 8 Ironbridge Road, Donnington. Tel/Fax: (263-9)478166/7. P.O. Box 8252, Belmont.



26 January 2016

The Chancellor,  
Durban University of Technology  
Faculty of Management Sciences  
41-43 ML-Saltan Road, Durban 4001  
P.O. Box 1334  
Durban 4000  
South Africa



**RE: LETTER OF PERMISSION FOR MR. REWARD UTETE (PASSPORT NUMBER CN140473)  
TO CONDUCT RESEARCH AND USE SERVCOR (PVT) LIMITED COMPANY AS A CASE  
STUDY OF THE RESEARCH PROJECT.**

This letter serves to announce that Mr. Reward Utete, passport number CN140473 has been granted permission to pursue his study utilizing our organization as a case study of his project. We are honoured that Mr. Reward Utete has chosen our organization for his research project.



As an organization we will be so excited to see his results and to be of assistance as needed. We would also like to give our greatest thanks to Durban University of Technology for this Opportunity. We trust that the information obtained from Servcor Private Limited will be used specifically for academic purposes. In the event that, the study would be utilized for other purposes permission must be sought in writing.



Should you require any further information, please do not hesitate to contact the undersigned on +263 773 726 466 or +263 4 620301-9.

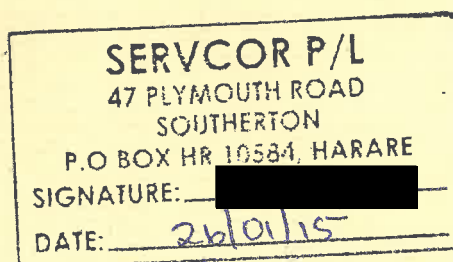
Yours faithfully,

K DERA  
HUMAN RESOURCES MANAGER



**VULCAN CATERING  
EQUIPMENT**

AUTHORISED ZIMBABWE DEALER



696 Clare Road

Clare Estate

Durban

4091

02 December 2016

**Editing of Dissertation:**

**The effectiveness of staff training on knowledge transfer and employee retention: A case study of Servcor Private Limited in Zimbabwe**

This letter confirms that the aforementioned dissertation has been language edited.

Any queries may be directed to the number listed below.

Kind Regards

A solid black rectangular box used to redact the signature of the sender.

MP Mathews

083 676 478