



# **Training in Libyan Hotels: A case study analysis**

**Ramdan Mohamed Bayoud**

**Thesis submitted to the University of Gloucestershire in partial  
fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy**

**in the Business School**

**BA, MSc. (Al-Jabal A1-Gharbi University, Gharian: Libya)**

**2013**

## **Abstract**

This study explores through a mixed methods qualitative-oriented case study investigation the training policies, plans, and practices of the public sector Social Security Fund Investments Company (SSFIC), which owns the major hotels in several Libyan cities. The Only internationally owned hotel in the country when the research commenced in 2007, the Corinthia Bab Africa Hotel (CBAH), provides a private sector comparison. It is the first such review of training activities within a country aiming to become an internationally competitive tourism destination.

A case study approach using different data sources is well adapted to situations where previous theoretical studies are few and field experience is still limited (Yin, 2003). During three field trips to Libya a) documents including training policies and plans were collected; b) Three different surveys were distributed to three target groups in the two hotel businesses compared: trainees, training managers, and trainers; c) Semi-structured interviews were conducted with managers responsible for training to obtain clarifying comments and operational observations; d) On-site personal observations were noted.

The questionnaire design and overall analysis was based on an operational framework that followed the pre-training, during- training and post-training stages of the systematic training cycle. The supporting theoretical framework was derived from the ADDIE model but with greater focus being given to transfer of training. Cultural considerations within Libya and the Arab world, as well as findings from other studies within the sector, were also taken into account when interpreting the data and drawing conclusions. Cultural aspects include: the influence of Islamic values; the poor image of work in hotels, especially for women; and the role of *wasta* on decision-making.

Despite the majority of SSFIC staff attending training courses over the period of the study, major issues are identified, many of which also face the whole Libyan hotel sector. Sector-based issues include: skills shortages; lack of qualified local trainers; low employee salaries and lack of cooperation between public, private and governmental sectors. SSFIC training specific issues include: insufficient training needs analysis; absence of review of course relevance to trainees; inadequate practical training; lack of post-course training incentives;. To overcome these difficulties, the study proposes a number of focused recommendations. In conclusion the study draws upon the evidence collected to suggest the Libyan approach to National Human Resource Development (NHRD). It corroborates most of the findings of a recent parallel study done into the Libyan banking sector and provides additional categories to support the conclusion that Libya is moving towards a centralised-transitional approach.

## **Declaration**

I declare that this thesis has been prepared in accordance with the regulations of the University of Gloucestershire. The thesis has not been submitted to any other educational institution in the United Kingdom, in Libya or elsewhere in the world.

Signed: .....

Date: .....

## **Dedication**

I dedicate this thesis to the biggest love in my life: my mother and son who passed away before the completion of this work, and my father who sacrificed and suffered to support my educational journey.

## Acknowledgement

All thanks to the Almighty Allah, who guided me and lit up the way in my life, especially in the stages of completion of this thesis.

I am indebted to the many individuals who gave their time, support and cooperation to complete this research journey. At the outset, I would like to express my special gratitude and deepest thanks to my supervisors, Professor John Walton and Mr. Mike Deakin, for their guidance and constructive comments throughout this study.

Special thanks to:

- all staff in the University of Gloucestershire (Business School) for their cooperation and support.
- my mother, whose love and compassion guided me to this stage in my life, but who unfortunately passed away before the completion of this work.
- my father, who sacrificed and suffered to support my education which started 36 years ago and has reached this stage today.
- my brother and sisters for their deep love for me, especially in my childhood.
- my wife for her patience and encouragement to me during the years of study, and my children: **Yosef**, Tasnim & Salsabela, who were deprived of my time for fun and play.
- all the staff in the Social Security Fund Investments Company and its hotels, especially those who are responsible for training for their help in the process of data collection during the field study.
- all the participants from different hotels for their cooperation in completing the questionnaire and making valuable comments and remarks about the training courses that they had attended.
- all friends who made helpful comments and suggestions.

## List of Abbreviations

ADDIE	Analysis, Design, Development, Implementation and Evaluation
APEC	Asia Pacific Economic Cooperation
ASTD	American Society for Training and Development
BHA	British Hospitality Association
BMI	Business Monitor International
CBAH	Corinthia Bab Africa Hotel
CBI	Confederation of British Industry
CHI	Corinthia Hotels International
CIA	Central Intelligence Agency
CPHCL	Corinthia Palace Hotel Company Limited
DLVT	Department of Labour and Vocational Training
DNH	Department of National Heritage
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
GBTTI	General Board of Tourism and Traditional Industries
GPC	General People's Committee
GSP	General Strategic Plan
EU	European Union
HAA	The Head of Administrative Affairs
HCITB	Hotel and Catering Industry Training Board
HDHR	The Head of Department of Human Resources
HDTD	The Head of Department of Training and Development
HR	Human Resources
HRM	Human Resources Management
HRD	Human Resources Development
HTA	The Head of Training Academy
JTV	Jansour Tour Village
IHI	International Hotel Investments
ILO	International Labour Organisation
IVTB	Industrial and Vocational Training Board
LAS	League of Arab States

LD	Libyan Dinar
LIPB	Libyan Investment Promotion Board
LTFs	Libya Tourism Forums
LTMP	Libyan Tourism Master Plan
ODIT	Office for the Development of Tourism and Investment
OECD	Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development
OPS	Office of Planning and Studies
MTD	Management Training Development
NIPA	National Institute of Public Administration
SMEs	Small and Medium Enterprises
SPSS	Statistical Package for the Social Sciences
SSFIC	Social Security Fund Investments Company
TIPB	Tourism Investment and Promotion Board
T&D	Training and Development
UAE	United Arab Emirates
UK	United Kingdom
UN	United Nations
UNDP	United Nations Development Programme
UNWTO	United Nations World Tourism Organisation
USA	United States of America
WERS	Workplace Employment Relations Survey
WTO	World Tourism Organisation
WTTC	World Travel and Tourism Council

## Structure and Content

Statement	Page
Abstract	i
Declaration	iii
Dedication	iv
Acknowledgement	v
List of abbreviations	vi
Contents	viii
List of tables	xiv
List of figures	xvi
List of appendices	xvii
<b>Chapter One: Introduction</b>	
1.1 Overview	1
1.2 Research Aim, Objectives and Questions	1
1.3 Rationale	3
1.4 Case study background	8
1.5 Personal interests	9
1.6 Organisation of the thesis	10
1.7 Chapter summary	13
<b>Chapter Two: Tourism and the hospitality industry</b>	
2.1 Introduction	14
2.2 Definitions of tourism and tourist	15
2.3 The significance of tourism	19
2.4 The hospitality industry	24
2.4.1 Definitions of hospitality	24
2.4.2 The importance of hospitality	26
2.5 Background to the Libyan tourism and hotel industry	28
2.5.1 A brief introduction to Libya	28
2.5.2 The emergence and development of tourism and hotel industry in Libya	32
2.5.3 Local organisations responsible for the hotel and tourism industry in Libya	35
2.5.4 Overview of the Libyan Tourism Master Plan (LTMP) (2009-2025)	37
2.5.4.1 Introduction	37
2.5.4.2 The goals of LTMP 2009-2025	38
2.5.4.3 The prospects for tourism in Libya	38
2.5.4.4 Workforce requirements	42
2.5.4.5 Income of tourism activity	42
2.6 Difficulties faced by the Libyan tourism and hotel industry	43
2.7 Chapter summary	45
<b>Chapter Three: Training within the hotel sector</b>	
3.1 Introduction	47
3.2 General background	48
3.2.1 The concept of T&D	51
3.3 T&D as investment	53
3.4 The importance of T&D	55
3.5 The objectives and benefits of T&D	57

3.5.1 The objectives of T&D	57
3.5.2 The benefits of T&D	58
3.6 Types of training	61
3.6.1 On-the-job training	61
3.6.2 Off-the-job training	63
3.7 Transfer of training	64
3.8 Systematic training approach	67
3.8.1. Phases of ADDIE model	68
3.8.2 Characteristics of ADDIE model	69
3.9 Identification of training needs	70
3.10 Planning, designing and delivering training	72
3.10.1 Training methods	76
3.11 Evaluation of training	80
3.11.1 Methods of evaluation	84
3.12 Research context	86
3.12.1 Training in the hotel industry globally	87
3.12.2 Training in the hotel sector in developing countries	90
3.12.3 Training in Arab countries	93
3.12.3.1 General overview	93
3.12.3.2 Hospitality sector training in Arabic countries	94
3.13 Women's participation in the hospitality industry	95
3.14 The Theoretical Framework	97
3.14.1 Overview	97
3.14.2 Importance of the theoretical framework	97
3.14.3 The proposed theoretical and operating framework	98
3.15 Chapter summary	101
<b>Chapter Four: Overview of training in Libya</b>	
4.1 Introduction	104
4.2 Local organisations responsible for training in Libya	104
4.3 Overview on structure and characteristics of Libyan society	109
4.4 National Human Resource Development (NHRD) systems	114
4.5 Training in the Libyan hotel sector	123
4.6 The need of T&D in the Libyan hotel sector	125
4.7 Educational and training institutions in the Libyan tourism and hotel industry	125
4.8 The key difficulties faced by the training in the Libyan hotel sector	127
4.9 Chapter summary	129
<b>Chapter Five: Case study organisations background</b>	
5.1 Introduction	131
5.2 Profile of the SSFIC	132
5.2.1 Foundation and legal status	132
5.2.2 Organisational structure of the SSFIC	134
5.3 The workforce within the SSFIC and its hotels in February 2009	135
5.4 Strategic Plan of the SSFIC	136
5.4.1 The SSFIC Vision	137
5.4.2 The SSFIC Mission	137

5.4.3 The SSFIC Values	138
5.4.4 General Policies	138
5.4.5 General Strategies	138
5.4.6 Strategic Goals	139
5.5 The structure of the training function	140
5.5.1 Human Resources and Training	140
5.5.2 Training Centre of the SSFIC	141
5.5.3 Training courses	142
5.6 The challenges faced by the SSFIC in the area of HR	143
5.7 The financial performance of the hotels of the SSFIC	144
5.8 Competition	145
5.8.1 The current market share of the SSFIC's hotels in Tripoli region	146
5.8.2 The market share of the company's hotels in Tripoli region in 2011	147
5.8.3 What are the strategic objectives achieved by the SSFIC since its establishment, taking into account the challenges inherited from hotel companies merger?	147
5.9 Investment Projects	148
5.9.1 Challenges facing the SSFIC in the completion of new projects	148
5.9.2 Challenges facing the SSFIC in hotel investment	148
5.10 Profile of the CBAH	149
5.10.1 Foundation and legal status	149
5.10.2 International Hotel Investments (IHI)	150
5.10.3 Hotel Management	151
5.10.4 Industrial operations	152
5.10.5 Corinthia Finance	152
5.11 Corinthia Bab Africa Hotel (CBAH) in Tripoli	152
5.11.1 CBAH Training Academy	153
5.11.2 Training programmes	154
5.12 Chapter summary	155
<b>Chapter Six: Research Methodology</b>	
6.1 Introduction	156
6.2 Research Philosophy	157
6.3 Research methodology: Types of research	161
6.4 Research methodology: case study design	163
6.5 Research methodology: Qualitative and quantitative research	165
6.6 Research methods	166
6.6.1 Methods of data collection	166
6.6.1.1 Site visits	166
6.6.1.2 Observations and field notes	168
6.6.1.3 Survey through questionnaires	169
6.6.2 Sample population and response rate to questionnaires	172
6.6.3 Questionnaires design, distribution and collection	173
6.6.3.1 Questionnaires' design	173
6.6.3.2 Questionnaires distribution and collection	178
6.7 Why three groups?	180
6.8 Rates of response	181

6.9 Interviews	183
6.10 Archival data	186
6.11 Research ethics	189
6.12 Analysis data	191
6.12.1 Analysis of annual training reports (archival data)	191
6.12.2 Data analysis of questionnaires	192
6.12.3 Data analysis of interviews	194
6.13 Difficulties which emerged during the field study	195
6.14 Chapter summary	196
<b>Chapter Seven: Case studies Analysis and Findings</b>	
7.1 Introduction	198
7.2 Analysis of archival data (training reports)	198
7.2.1 SSFIC Training courses from November 2007 to the end of 2009	199
7.2.2 Analysis of training reports	204
7.3 Analysis of the questionnaires' and training managers' interview findings	213
7.3.1 Findings of trainees' survey	213
7.3.1.1 Characteristics of respondents	214
7.3.1.2 Training courses	217
7.3.1.3 The degree of trainees' satisfaction of the training courses provided	221
7.3.1.4 Training Phases	221
7.3.1.4.1 The first phase: Pre- training	222
7.3.1.4.1.1 Employee nomination to training courses	222
7.3.1.4.1.2 Timing and details of courses	223
7.3.1.4.1.3 The number of participants on the training courses	224
7.3.1.4.1.4 Duration of training courses	225
7.3.1.4.2 The second phase: During Training	226
7.3.1.4.2.1 The benefits achieved through the attendance of training courses	226
7.3.1.4.2.2 The relevance of the content of training courses	228
7.3.1.4.2.3 Training methods, techniques and facilities used during training	232
7.3.1.4.2.3.1 Training methods and their appropriateness	232
7.3.1.4.2.3.2 Facilities and location of the training courses	233
7.3.1.4.2.4 Competence and effectiveness of trainer	235
7.3.1.4.3 The third phase: Post- Training	239
7.3.1.4.3.1 Evaluation of the policy and plan of training	239
7.3.1.4.3.2 The ability to apply training benefits (Transfer of training)	241
7.3.1.4.3.3 Difficulties in applying the knowledge and skills	242
7.3.1.4.3.4 Training incentives	243
7.3.1.4.3.5 General assessment of training programmes provided	244
7.3.1.4.3.7 Trainee comments	246
7.3.1.4.3.7.1 Analysis of trainees' comments in SSFIC	246
7.3.1.4.3.7.2 Analysis of participants' comments in CBAH	248
7.3.2 The findings of training managers' survey and interviews	249
7.3.2.1 Introduction	249
7.3.2.2 Training phases	250
7.3.2.2.1 The first phase: Per-training	250

7.3.2.2.1.1 The policy, plan, and objectives of training	250
7.3.2.2.1.2 Duration of training plan	251
7.3.2.2.1.3 The main objectives that the two cases usually look to achieve through the training courses	251
7.3.2.2.1.4 Training course locations	252
7.3.2.2.2 The second phase: During training	252
7.3.2.2.2.1 Training methods	252
7.3.2.2.3 The third phase: post-training	253
7.3.2.2.3.1 Evaluation of the training policies and plans	253
7.3.2.2.3.2 Achievement of training objectives	254
7.3.2.2.3.3 The methods and objectives of training evaluation	255
7.3.2.2.3.4 Communication and cooperation between departments on the evaluation of training	258
7.3.2.2.3.5 Timing of training course evaluation	260
7.3.2.2.3.6 Training managers view of training incentives	260
7.3.2.2.3.7 Difficulties of training	261
7.3.3 The finding of trainers' survey	262
7.3.3.1 Introduction	262
7.3.3.1 Training phases	263
7.3.3.1.1 The first phase: Pre-training	263
7.3.3.1.1.1 Training course objectives and evaluation	263
7.3.3.1.1.2 Training evaluation methods	264
7.3.3.2.2 The second phase: During training	265
7.3.3.2.2.1 Training course methods	265
7.3.3.2.2.2 Evaluation of the relevance of the content of training courses	266
7.3.3.2.3 The third phase: Post-training	269
7.3.3.2.3.1 Evaluation of the training policy and plan	269
7.3.3.2.3.2 Timing of training course evaluation	269
7.3.3.2.3.3 Difficulties of training and its evaluation	270
7.3.3.2.3.4 The trainers' comments	271
7.4 Chapter summary	272
<b>Chapter Eight: Analysis the findings and discussion</b>	
8.1 Introduction	273
8.2 Characteristics of respondents	273
8.2.1 Gender and nationality	273
8.2.2 Length of service, staff turnover and pay levels	276
8.3 Discussion of the findings of training reports analysis	278
8.3.1 General discussion of the training courses	278
8.3.2 English courses	279
8.3.3 Overseas training	279
8.3.4 Reasons for the existence of multiple training programmes	280
8.4 Discussion the study's findings in accordance with the third phases of training, pre-training, during training, and post-training.	282
8.4.1 Discussion of the first phase: Pre-training	282
8.4.1.1 Identification of training needs and employee nomination to training courses	282

8.4.1.2 Types of training	285
8.4.2 Discussion the second phase: During training	286
8.4.2.1 The location and timing	286
8.4.2.2 Training methods	287
8.4.2.3 Evaluation of the relevance of the content of training courses, and knowledge, skills and new behaviour acquired	289
8.4.2.4 Trainers	290
8.4.2.5 The benefits achieved through the attendance of training courses	291
8.4.3 Discussion the third phase: Post-training	292
8.4.3.1 Training policies and plans	292
8.4.3.2 Achievement of training objectives	294
8.4.3.3 Evaluation of training and its methods	295
8.4.3.3.1 Other studies in this area	298
8.4.3.4 Ability to apply training benefits	299
8.4.3.4.1 Difficulties in applying the knowledge and skills	300
8.4.3.5 The assessment process of training courses	303
8.4.3.6 Training incentives	304
8.4.3.7 General assessment of training courses by trainees	305
8.5 Chapter summary	306
<b>Chapter Nine: Conclusions, Research Contributions, Recommendations, and Further Research</b>	
9.1 Introduction	309
9.2 Specific conclusions	311
9.2.1 The First Research Question	311
9.2.1.1 Growth in investment and numbers of trainees	311
9.2.1.2 Organisation	313
9.2.1.3 Location and type of training	314
9.2.1.4 Language skills	315
9.2.1.5 Comparison with CBAH	316
9.2.1.6 Training methods	317
9.2.2 The Second Research Question	318
9.2.3 The Third Research Question	322
9.2.4 The Fourth Research Question	330
9.2.4.1 The influence of national and organisational culture	332
9.2.5 The Fifth Research Question	337
9.2.5.1 General recommendations for the Libyan Government	340
9.2.5.2 General recommendations for the Libyan hotel sector	340
9.2.5.3 The key recommendations for the SSFIC	341
9.3 Recommendations for Further Research	345
9.4 Contributions of the research	347
9.5 Limitations of the study	358
9.6 Conclusion	360
9.7 Personal reflection	361
<b>References</b>	363
<b>Appendices</b>	400

## List of Tables

Statement	Page
Table 2.1: Total estimated visitor expenditure for the years 2013 and 2018	23
Table 2.2: The estimated contribution of Libyan tourism to GDP in 2013 and 2018	24
Table 2.3: Distribution requirements of accommodation in accordance with tourism circles in Libya during the period between 2009 and 2025	40
Table 2.4: The number of hotels in the main four regions in Libya	41
Table 2.5: Comparison between the number of beds in 2008 and the expected number between 2009 and 2025	42
Table 2.6: Growth in the number of tourists and their expenditure during the period from 2008 to 2025	43
Table 3.1: The differences and commonalities between training, development, education and learning	49
Table 3.2: Training methods - Advantages and disadvantages	78
Table 3.3: Evaluation methods	84
Table 3.4: The gendering of employment in accommodation and catering	96
Table 4.1: Four Levels of Harbison and Myers (1964)	116
Table 4.2: The five models of NHRD and their core characteristics	117
Table 4.3: The emerging Libyan model of NHRD	120
Table 4.4: Omani students studying abroad for 2003/2004	124
Table 4.5: Institutions of Hospitality Education and Training in Libya	126
Table 4.6: Number of tourism and hospitality institutes in Libyan cities and able to grant degrees	126
Table 5.1: The workforce in the SSFIC and its hotels	135
Table 5.2: Training courses for 2007-2009, and the number of trainees at each session	143
Table 5.3: The financial performance of the SSFIC's hotels in three regions	144
Table 5.4: Corinthia Hotels Group in different countries	151
Table 6.1: Comparison between the Positivist and Phenomenological Paradigms	158
Table 6.2: The goals of exploratory, descriptive and explanatory research	162
Table 6.3: The second visit to Libya (1/04/2009 – 21/05/2009)	167
Table 6.4: Hotels of the SSFIC	172
Table 6.5: The structure of the questionnaire	176
Table 6.6: Themes covered by the questions	177
Table 6.7: Questionnaires were completed and returned by trainees	183
Table 6.8: Number of the trainer participants from different training centres	183
Table 6.9: The schedule of interviews with training managers in the SSFIC	186
Table 6.10: Documents and reports referred to in thesis	189
Table 7.1: Training courses implemented from November 2007 to December 2008 with number of trainees	199
Table 7.2: Training courses in 2009 with number of trainees	201
Table 7.3: Classification of internal courses by numbers and provider	204
Table 7.4: Division of training programmes according to their type	205
Table 7.5: Number of candidates to internal and external training courses conducted from November 2007 to end 2008	207
Table 7.6: The location of overseas training courses, and the number of candidates	207

Table 7.7: Comparison between the number of trainees in Al-Mahari Hotel and other hotels	208
Table 7.8: Expenditures of training in the SSFIC and its hotel chain	210
Table 7.9: Cost of training courses from July 2008 to 30 April 2009	210
Table 7.10: Questionnaires completed and returned by trainees	214
Table 7.11: The work department of trainees	214
Table 7.12: Length of service of respondents	215
Table 7.13: The gender of respondents	217
Table 7.14: The nationality of respondents	217
Table 7.15: Title of courses, location and date in the SSFIC	217
Table 7.16: Title of courses attended, location and date in the CBAH	219
Table 7.17: Training courses take place outside the hotel	219
Table 7.18: Satisfaction of trainees of the training courses provided	221
Table 7.19: Nomination of the employees to training courses	222
Table 7.20: Details before commencing courses	224
Table 7.21: Training courses take place outside the hotel	224
Table 7.22: The number of participants on the training courses	225
Table 7.23: Duration of training courses	226
Table 7.24: The benefits achieved through the attendance of training courses	227
Table 7.25: Evaluation of the relevance of the content of training courses	228
Table 7.6: Methods of training courses	232
Table 7.27: The appropriateness of training methods to training needs of trainees	232
Table 7.28: Facilities and location of the training courses	233
Table 7.29: Competence of trainers	235
Table 7.30: The effectiveness of trainers	237
Table 7.31: Rating the policy and plan of training	239
Table 7.32: Ability to apply training benefits	241
Table 7.33: Difficulties facing trainees in applying the knowledge and skills gained from the training courses	242
Table 7.34: Personal benefits as a result of attending training courses	243
Table 7.35: The assessment of trainees of training courses that have been targeted at the hotel	244
Table 7.36: Trainees' comments on training courses (SSFIC)	246
Table 7.37: Trainees' comments on training courses (CBAH)	248
Table 7.38: The positions and departments of the manager respondents in both cases	249
Table 7.39: Training policies and plans	250
Table 7.40: Training programme objectives	250
Table 7.41: Duration of training plan	251
Table 7.42: The main objectives that hotels are usually looking to achieve through training programmes	251
Table 7.43: Training courses conducted outside the hotel	252
Table 7.44: Methods of training courses	253
Table 7.45: Rating the training policy and plan	254
Table 7.46: The extent of the company's achievement of its training objectives	254
Table 7.47: Method of training evaluation	255
Table 7.48: Objectives for conducting evaluation process	257
Table 7.49: Source of information used when implementing methods of training evaluation for	258

trainees	
Table 7.50: Means of communication on the evaluation of training between departments of the company and its hotels	258
Table 7.51: Cooperation between different departments about evaluation process	259
Table 7.52: Timing of training course evaluation	260
Table 7.53: Training incentives	261
Table 7.54: Difficulties of training	261
Table 7.55: Number of the trainer participants from different training centres	262
Table 7.56: Training programme objectives	263
Table 7.57: Specific objectives for conducting the evaluation process	264
Table 7.58: Training evaluation methods	264
Table 7.59: Training course methods	265
Table 7.60: Evaluation of the relevance of the content of training courses	266
Table 7.61: Evaluation of the training policy and plan	269
Table 7.62: Timing of training course evaluation	270
Table 7.63: Difficulties of training and its evaluation	270
Table 7.64: Analysis the trainers' comments	271
Table 9.1: Approaches to training in both organisations	317
Table 9.2: The effectiveness of trainers	329
Table 9.3: Differences between the Libyan context and Western countries when conducting training programmes	331
Table 9.4: List of previous studies related to T&D in the hospitality industry	351
Table 9.5: The emerging Libyan model of NHRD	352
Table 9.6: The proposed Libyan model of National HRD	353

### List of figures

Statement	Page
Figure 1.1: The overall framework for the study	11
Figure 1.2: The temporal plan of the study	12
Figure 2.1: International tourist arrivals from 1950-2020	21
Figure 2.2: Map of geographic location of Libya	29
Figure 2.3: A pictorial view of hotels in Tripoli by 2015	40
Figure 2.4: The number of required beds in different Libyan regions between 2009 and 2025	41
Figure 3.1: The objectives and benefits of T&D in the hotel industry	60
Figure 3.2: Revised ADDIE model	68
Figure 3.3: The key elements of designing and delivering of training	75
Figure 3.4: Revised ADDIE model – ( <i>Allen's model, 2006</i> )	99
Figure 3.5: Revised ADDIE model in the current study (ADITE)	100
Figure 3.6: The proposed framework to conduct the fieldwork in the selected cases	101
Figure 5.1: Field work & Data collection	131
Figure 5.2: Organisational structure of the SSFIC	134
Figure 5.3: Organisational structure of the SSFIC's hotels	134
Figure 5.4: Strategic Plan of the SSFIC	137
Figure 5.5: The parties responsible for training in the SSFIC	140
Figure 5.6: The financial performance of the SSFIC's hotels	145

Figure 5.7: Relative distribution of the number of rooms in Tripoli area	146
Figure 5.8: Distribution of the likely number of rooms in Tripoli area in 2011	147
Figure 5.9: Location of the Corinthia Bab Africa Hotel in Tripoli	153
Figure 6.1: Research approach	156
Figure 6.2: Multiple sources of evidence in case studies	164
Figure 7.1: Classification of internal courses by trainee numbers and providers	204
Figure 7.2: Division of internal courses	206
Figure 7.3: The location of overseas training programmes	208
Figure 7.4: Comparison between the number of trainees in Al-Mahari Hotel and other hotels	209
Figure 9.1: Revised ADDIE model – ( <i>Allen’s model, 2006</i> )	356
Figure 9.2: Revised ADDIE model in the current study (ADITE model)	356

### List of Appendices

No. of Appendix	Statement	Page
1	Survey questionnaire (English Version)	400
2	Form for identifying training needs (SSFIC)	408
3	Form for evaluating an external training courses (SSFIC)	409
4	Form for evaluating an internal training courses (SSFIC)	410
5	Forms for evaluating training courses (Tunisia) – (SSFIC)	411
6	Questionnaires of the Al-Mahari Hotel (SSFIC)	417
7	Report of Arab Union of Technical Education	419
8	Investment Projects of SSFIC	424
9	Examples of training courses (internal/external) for 2008 -2009	428
10	Summarising the field visits to Libya	433
11	Covering letter and survey questionnaire (Arabic Version)	434

## **CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION**

### **1.1 Overview**

The thesis is a case study investigation conducted between the years 2007 and 2010 into the approach adopted towards training in the hotel sector in Libya. It is primarily based on a large public sector organisation called the Social Security Investments Company (SSFIC), with additional research carried out with the Corinthia Bab Africa Hotel (CBAH), which is part of a privately owned international chain. This introductory chapter:

- 1.** Outlines the research aim, objectives and associated research questions.
- 2.** Provides a rationale for choosing to investigate training issues in the hotel sector in Libya, and for selecting SSFIC and CBAH as case study examples.
- 3.** Indicates the structure of the thesis, providing brief information regarding each chapter.

### **1.2 Research Aim, Objectives and Questions**

The aim of the study is to investigate training and development practices in the Libyan public hotel sector between 2007 and 2010, with special focus on evaluating the training programmes within the SSFIC.

To achieve this aim the following objectives have been identified:

- To provide a deeper and wider understanding of training programmes implemented by the state run SSFIC hotel organisation.

- To identify the key difficulties and barriers to training practices faced by the SSFIC.
- To contrast and compare the training practices between the state run organisation, that is SSFIC, and the new entrant to the Libyan Hotel business, CBAH.
- To establish the differences between the two and to identify where difficulties and barriers exist whether these be because of management, operational or cultural approaches.
- To highlight the key differences between training in Libya, Western countries and elsewhere.
- To contribute to, and fill a gap in, the hospitality literature on training in the Libyan context in particular.
- To identify improvements and recommendations as to the effectiveness of training and development practices in the SSFIC hotel organisation.

This study aims to illuminate key practices by answering questions relating to two primary research areas.

- What training is carried out within the public hotel sector in Libya and why?
  - How is it currently organised and conducted?
  - How does this differ from the private sector?
  - What has changed over the course of the study?
  - What explanations can be provided?

- What are the methods currently used to evaluate existing training programme effectiveness in the same sector, and why are they adopted?

Building upon the data obtained for each of these two primary research areas, the following corollary questions are addressed.

- What training-related problems are faced by the public hotel sector in Libya and how significant are they?
- What are the core differences between the training and development practices and programmes currently being implemented within Libya, Western countries and elsewhere?
- In the light of recommended good practice from the literature and the particular contingencies revealed through the empirical study, how appropriate are the approaches adopted? What might be done differently?

### **1.3 Rationale**

It is undeniable that “tourism and hospitality” is one of the largest labour intensive industry sectors in the world (Spillane, 2001). This leads to major people management and development challenges, of which training is one.

The case for training has been well rehearsed in the literature over the years. Attention has been drawn to its role in equipping employees with new skills and knowledge that are required to improve the performance of their jobs; and its contribution to achieving the organisation’s goals effectively. Organisations that are successful take the training of their staff very seriously (Wills, 1994, Hansson 2007). The major aim of training is to

help an organisation to achieve its goals by adding value to its key resources (Armstrong, 2001). If the training programmes are well managed and conducted, they can be a source of competitive advantage (Pfeffer & Veiga, 1999). Although training can be an effective means to enhance knowledgeable and skilful staff, it is by no means an automatic solution (Prior, 1994, Bunch, 2007). Training quality depends heavily on the decision makers formulating an appropriate training policy (Herschbach, 1997, Sels, 2002).

Training is a crucial element for service industries because organisations such as hotels depend heavily on employees' knowledge, skills and initiative to identify problems and to resolve them to ensure higher standards of customer care (Lowry, Simon and Kimberley, 2002). This, in addition to increased competition globally, has led to the need to get the right people, with the right skills, in the right place, at the right time. Boella (2000) contextualises much of the above for the hospitality sector, where he contends that the need for training has become an essential issue in each individual's work life in order to acquire new knowledge and skills; and learn how to cope with constant changes. According to Putra, (2003, p. 49), as "hospitality becomes more widespread .... one of the biggest human resource (HR) roles in the hotel sector is to ensure success with training programmes provided for employees particularly in the area of training transfer to the workplace". Training is considered a key factor that cannot be neglected to develop and enhance service quality in the hotel sector, as customers' expectations are heightened as a result of greater familiarity with global travel. This thesis will demonstrate that Libya is no exception in this respect.

Libya has significant tourist potential, but tourism in general, and the hotel sector in particular, still suffers from a lack of qualified and skilled personnel. Some researchers

(e.g. Danis, 2006;Abukhabta&Alzawie, 2006)state that the Libyan government must satisfy the immediate manpower training needs in order to be competitive in both Arab and international tourism. According to recent studies, training programmes in the tourism sector and particularly in the hotel sector in Libya are very limited and still remain insufficient and overdue, because the Libyan government has only recently begun to focus on this area (Salih, 2005; Danis, 2006;Abuharris, 2007; Naama, Havan-Tang & Jones, 2008).

Since UN sanctions were lifted in 2004, the country has made considerable progress, such as its return to the international arena and the openness of its economy in various areas, including the hotel sector. It is also attracting and encouraging local and foreign investors to contribute in developing this sector. Thus, the tourism and hotel sector has become one of the key development priorities. Therefore, this study is timely because Libya has witnessed rapid progress in its economy and management reforms, and a more open approach to international markets, especially in the hotel industry. In other words, there is a drive to diversify the Libyan economy away from oil, and tourism is considered the second most promising source after oil. The study focuses particularly on exploring the nature of training in the public hotel sector in Libya. The topic of this study was selected for the following reasons:

- The first reason lies in the importance of human resources for business success in any field, a subject which deserves continued research (Yang, 2007), the importance of human resources is particularly significant in a ‘people focused’ industry, such as hospitality (Yang & Fu, 2009). Among many authors, Richard and Johnson (2001) argue that HR strategy is the most important factor in

improving any organisation's overall effectiveness and that effective utilisation of human resources can give a competitive advantage to the organisation. This is an issue that is becoming increasingly significant in Libya as it moves towards greater economic openness. Training is an essential component in effective workforce utilisation. There is a further need to identify the nature of HR policies and practices that are relevant for developing countries, as reported by Budhwar and Debrah (2001). Thus, the study of HR activities, including how people are trained in different sectors, is viewed as one of the key factors in the national economy in general, and in developing countries in particular.

- The second reason for selecting this topic is that the majority of HRM/ HRD research undertaken does not include the hospitality sector (Furunes, 2005). Despite the crucial importance of work skills in the service sector, especially in the hospitality industry and hotels, there are very few studies on this subject in the hospitality field. Lucas and Deery (2004) point out that the number of academics interested in the hospitality industry is relatively small compared with other industries. Therefore, this issue needs further attention because of the ongoing changes and developments in the business environment today, including technology, employment, training and education, in both developing and developed countries (Baum, 2002).
- The third reason follows on from the recommendation of Agnaia (1996) that training given should have a vital role in improving the knowledge, skills and attitudes of both staff and managers in Libya. Libya should make further efforts to

deal with all aspects of training programmes, through the implementation of further research and studies into this activity, so that the country's organisations and employees become more aware of the significance of this activity to them.

- The fourth reason is that research on progress into the volume, nature and effectiveness of training provision is still inadequate in the Libyan hotel sector. According to the literature, training & HRD programmes are crucial for Libya, and other Arab and developing countries. There have been many studies related to this topic conducted in the western countries but at the time of writing this thesis there are no doctorate studies about training in Libyan hotels, apart from one recent study conducted by Naama in 2007, which was about workforce analysis from a stakeholder perspective. Moreover, nationally, a search of the Electronic Theses and Dissertation System in the available Libraries in Libya revealed no thesis on training in this sector. A British library search revealed no theses which study the training issue in Libyan hotels and only one thesis related to the subject of the current study, which focused on HRM in the hotel industry in Libya. The relative lack of contemporary research in this area makes it an attractive study to undertake, as a foundation contribution to highlighting employee training in the Libyan hotel sector.
- The hotel sector was selected for this study, because Libya is a relative newcomer to tourism and the hotel industry is still in its infancy. The current and potential future investments in the hotel sector are in a growth trajectory. Libya is in the transitional stage from a centralised economy to a free market economy. This

policy has attracted many foreign investors to the country to implement several projects (Porter & Yergin, 2006), which include investment in the hotel sector. The Department of Trade and Industry in the UK, strongly supports the idea of companies investing in Libya, and it is generally perceived that Libya is a good investment opportunity for those companies, for example, UK Trade & Investment (UKTI, 2009) showed that UK exports to Libya were up by 14% in 2007, increased by 21% in 2008 and 51% in 2009. This movement towards a free market economy has led to a need for more research in the field of training in various sectors (El-Arbi, 2007), particularly in the hotel sector.

Finally, since the late 1960s to the beginning of 2000, the hotel sector was neglected by the Libyan government, which depended heavily on oil as the main income source. As a result of this, the hotel sector has not received sufficient research attention, in training in particular. This neglect led to a lack of progress in the hotel industry and in the programmes related to HRM and HRD practices. This research attempts to fill this gap by comparing the training practices in a sample of the SSFIC hotel chain and CBAH in Libya. Moreover, as argued by Lashley and Watson (1999), hospitality researchers should pay more attention to wider management debates based on hospitality industry needs in order to shape the generic literature in the longer term. This research is one of the initial attempts to do so.

#### **1.4 Case study background**

In accordance with the objectives of the current research, a case study approach is appropriate, affording an opportunity to gain an in-depth understanding of the

phenomenon of training in a real world context (Paulin, Coffy& Spaulding, 1982). Many writers, for example Easterby-Smith, Thorpe and Lowe(2002) and Collis & Husse (2003), point to the importance of the use of different data collection techniques that allow such research to be conducted. These techniques include archival records, documents, interviews, observation, and survey-based questionnaires. All these methods were used to collect data for the current research, and will be discussed in greater detail in Chapter 6.

Due to the limitations of time and cost, it was not possible to investigate all the Libyan hotels in the public hotel sector in Libya. The study therefore focused on the public hotel sector, and the SSFIC was selected as the principal case study because it owns the majority of chain hotels in the country. Information was also obtained from the foreign owned CBAH, which was selected as a small case to compare the training practices with the SSFIC's hotels. When the research commenced in 2007 it was the only private sector hotel owned by a foreign investor in existence in the country. The outcome is an exploratory study that evaluates their respective training programmes and the basis on which they were framed in order to provide a comparison and draw conclusions between state-owned and privately owned foreign hotels about training issues.

### **1.5 Personal interests**

Maxwell (2005) contends that when choosing a research topic, the researcher's prior experience acts as a motivator; furthermore lack of motivation causes many students to never finish their dissertations. The researcher has a good experience and background about HR issues, and training in particular, because his Master degree was about the determination of training needs and its role in improving training efficiency – an empirical study on the Public Company of Electricity in Libya (Bayoud, 2000). In

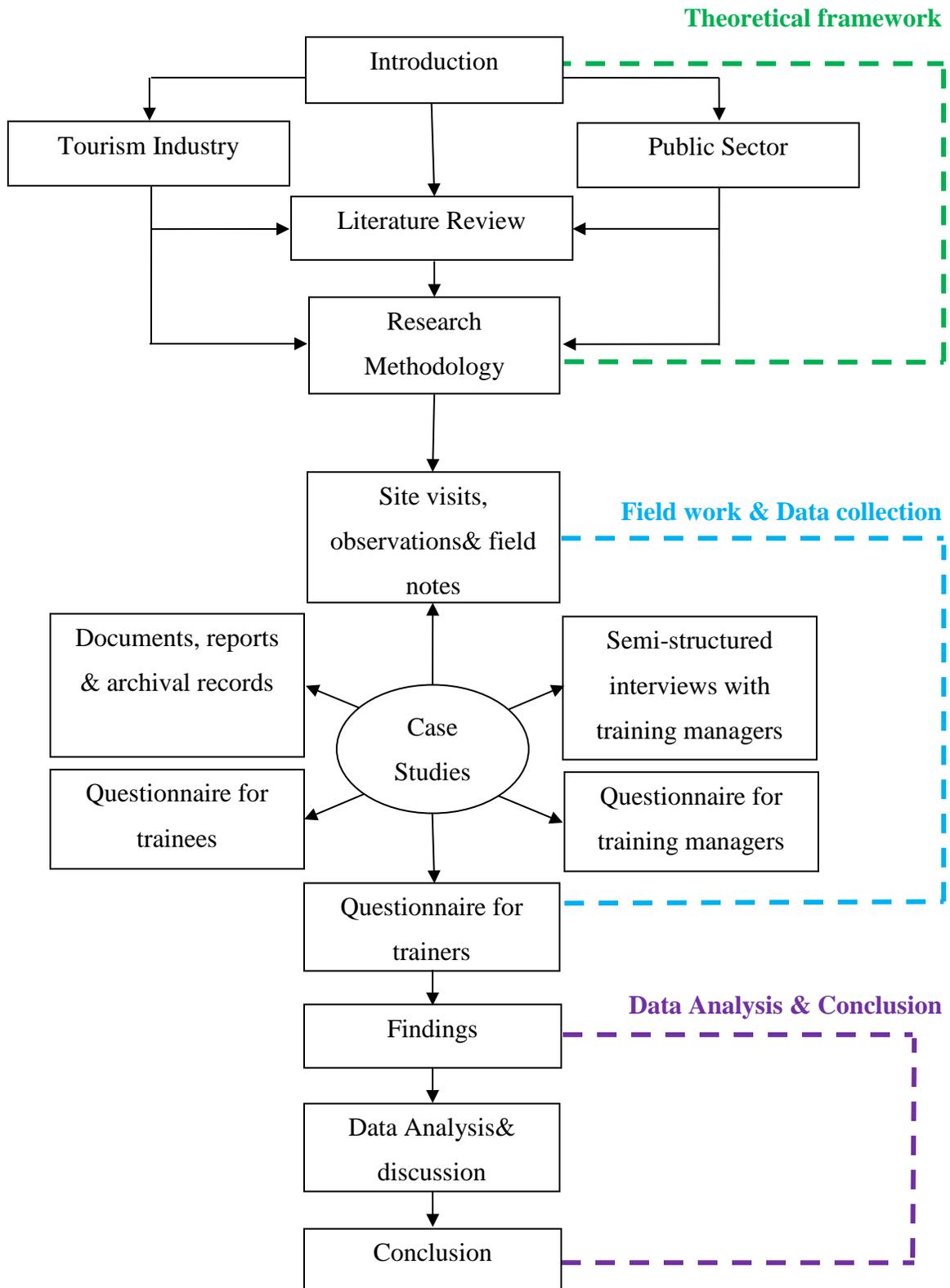
addition, the researcher was one of the academic staff at the Faculty of Accounting in Gharian, in the Department of Management from 2003 until 2006. He has taught the subject of HRM in different educational institutions and universities in Libya. This research is an important step for the researcher to build his career as an academic.

## **1.6 Organisation of the thesis**

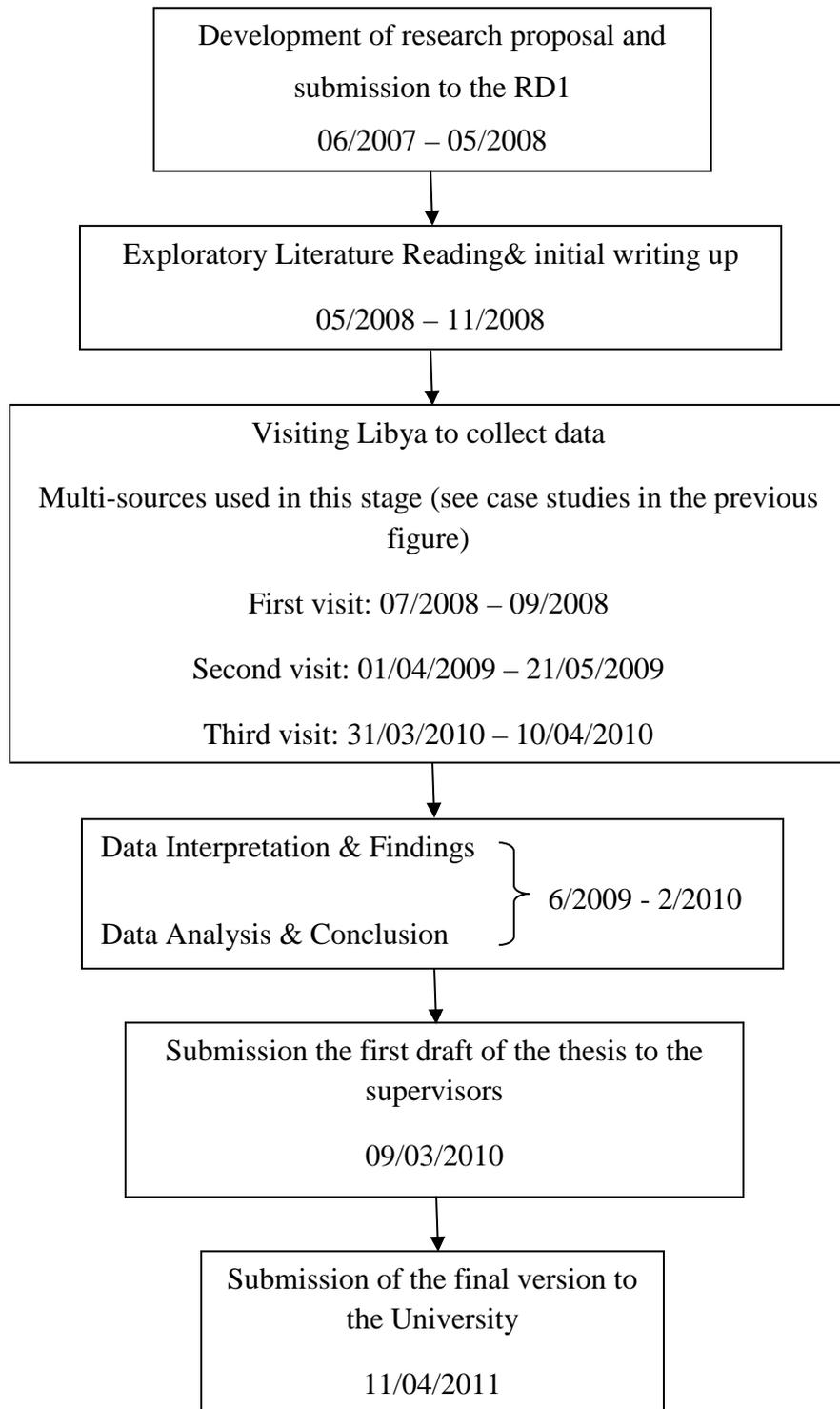
This section outlines the structure of the thesis which is divided into nine chapters. Chapter One provides a brief introduction, a statement of the problem, methodology, research aim, objectives and research questions. An overview of the structure of the thesis is presented at the end. Chapter Two provides a general background of tourism and the hospitality industry. Chapter Three deals with a review of the research literature related to training and development within the hotel sector. Chapter Four gives an overview of training and development in Libya. Chapter Five provides a general background to the case study organisations (SSFIC and CBAH). Chapter Six describes the methodology used for the study, the research philosophy, population and sample, data collection procedures, method used for the data analysis, research ethics, and the key difficulties encountered by the researcher during fieldwork. Chapter Seven reviews the documentary data collected regarding the training programmes for the case study organisations followed by a themed data analysis of the returned questionnaires and interviews conducted. Chapter Eight follows the themes presented in Chapter Seven and draws broader conclusions about training practices in the case study organisations. Chapter Nine summarises the main findings of the study and offers a number of contributions and recommendations based on these findings.

The following figure 1.1 shows the structure of the thesis.

**Figure 1.1: The overall framework for the study**



**Figure 1.2: The temporal plan of the study**



## **1.7 Chapter summary**

This introductory chapter has provided an insight about the purpose of the research, and a statement of its contents. It presents a brief justification of the selection of the topic of this research, i.e. to justify the time and effort that was spent to achieve this thesis. The research questions and objectives have been reviewed. It summarises the content of the nine chapters that constitute the thesis. Finally, it shows the structure of the research through the division of this thesis into several chapters in line with the purpose of this study. As indicated in this section, the next chapter will introduce an overview of tourism and the hospitality industry.

## **CHAPTER TWO: TOURISM AND THE HOSPITALITY INDUSTRY**

### **2.1 Introduction**

It is undeniable that tourism and hospitality is now considered one of the largest industry sectors in the world (Spillane, 2001). Tourism has become the economic lifeblood of many countries in the world. Liu and Wall (2006) says that tourism also has emerged as a catalyst for socio-economic change. Likewise Baum and Szivas (2008) assert that tourism is a significant area of economic activities within many countries in both the developed and developing worlds. In 2007, the World Tourism Organisation indicated that tourism has contributed extensively to world prosperity, through economic growth and employment creation. This has made tourism a major focus for most countries, particularly developing ones (WTO, 2007).

Richter (1985) describes some of the benefits of a tourism industry. It creates a rapid increase in employment, generates foreign exchange, encourages handicraft and export industries, and subsidises the development of infrastructure. According to Elliott (1997), tourism plays a key role in the growth of urbanization, industrialization, standards of education, and the desire of people to visit different tourist attraction destinations inside and outside their country. Despite the changes that have taken place in the world, tourism since 1950 has been a highly competitive industry, and is still the fastest growing sector and a major power in the global economy (Cooper, Fletcher, Fyall, Gilbert, & Wanhill, 2008). On the other side, the hospitality industry is significant to most service businesses, but especially hotels, restaurants, resorts, private clubs and air travel. Hospitality is basically a relationship between a host and a guest.

## **2.2 Definitions of tourism and tourist**

Tourism is not a recent phenomenon, and it is considered as a complex phenomenon because it includes multi-industry activities, multi-disciplinary subjects and different industrial sectors, such as accommodation, attractions, the travel trade and transport. Jenkins (1997) states that tourism activity cuts across conventional sectors in the economy, requiring inputs of an economic, social, cultural and environmental nature. According to Elliott (1997), tourism has become more than an industry and an economic activity; it is a global dynamic social phenomenon which has affected most countries and people of the world. It can be defined in more than one way and according to several different sciences, such as sociology, geography, psychology or economics. It can be defined as one industry or a series of industrial sectors such as hotels, restaurants and transport, which all provide services for tourists.

In fact, in terms of defining tourism, this is not nearly as easy as it may appear, and, thus, there are several definitions that will be presented. In 1942, there was one of the first attempts to define tourism by Hunziker and Krapf of Berne University. They pointed out that tourism should be defined as “the sum of the phenomena and relationships arising from the travel and stay of non-residents, in so far as they do not lead to permanent residence and are not connected to any earning activity” (as cited in Holloway and Taylor, 2006, p.5). The Tourism Society of England defined tourism in 1976 as “the temporary, short-term movement of people to destinations outside the places where they normally live and work and their activities during the stay at each destination” (as cited in Holloway & Taylor, p.2). Pearce (1987, as cited in Putra, 2003, p.11-12) states that:

*Tourism is essentially about people and places, the places one group of people leave, visit and pass through, the other groups who make their trip possible and those they encounter along the way. In a more technical sense, tourism may be thought of as the relationships and phenomena arising out of the journey and temporary stays of people travelling primarily for leisure or recreational purposes.*

In Libya, the General Board of Tourism and Traditional Industries (GBTTI) states that “tourism means movement of people, whether citizens or foreigners, as individuals, or groups, from one place to another, and the resulting or necessary services and various relations” (GBTTI, 2009). Lowery (1994) sees that tourism is a service industry that focuses on visitors and tourists when they are away from home. Angelo and Vladimir (1996) reveal that when the United States Senate created the National Tourism Policy Act of 1981 to encourage the growth of tourism, it used the following definition of the travel and tourism industry: “An interrelated amalgamation of those business and agencies which totally or in part provide the means of transport, goods, services, and other facilities for travel outside of the home community for any purpose not related to day-to-day activity” (Angelo & Vladimir, 1996, p.6). The World Tourism Organisation devised the definition of tourism which was provided at the International Conference on Travel and Tourism Statistics in Ottawa, Canada in 1991. It has now been accepted worldwide:

*Tourism comprises the activities of persons travelling to and staying in places outside their usual environment for not more than one consecutive year for*

*leisure, business and other purposes not related to the exercise of an activity remunerated from within the place visited* (Holloway, 2001, p.3).

Even with the general acceptance of the definition above, different writers (e.g. Burkat&Medlik, 1981; Youell, 1998; Wall & Mathieson, 2006) have produced different analysis and conclusions regarding the character of tourism. Burkat&Medlik (1981) inferred that there were two main advantages of tourism: Journey, which is a temporary and short-term; and Stay, with distinct activities. On the other side, Wall and Mathieson (2006, p.14) says that the persons referred to in the definition of tourism are termed 'visitors', a visitor being defined as "Any person travelling to a place other than of his/her usual environment for less than twelve months and whose main purpose of trip as other than the exercise of an activity remunerated from within the place visited".

International tourists are defined as people who travel across an international border and stay away from home for at least a whole day, whereas domestic tourists include individuals travelling within their own country but who stay away from home for not less than twenty-four hours. Youell (1998) deduced from this that tourists can be categorised as people who are:

- "Away from their normal place of residence, although they will be returning home at some point in the future.
- On a visit that is temporary and short-term, but is not greater than 12 months in duration.
- Engaged in activities that one would normally associate with tourism.

- Not necessarily staying away overnight, but sometimes merely on a day visit (excursion).
- Not always away from home for holiday purposes, but may be from home on business” (p.9).

According to Page and Connell (2006, p.13), the important classifications of tourism developed by the WTO are:

- *International tourism: Consists of inbound tourism, visits to a country by non-residents, and outbound tourism, residents of a country visiting another country.*
- *Internal tourism: Residents of a country visiting their own country.*
- *Domestic tourism: Internal tourism plus inbound tourism (the tourism market of accommodation facilities and attractions within a country).*
- *National tourism: Internal tourism plus outbound tourism (the resident tourism market for travel agents and airlines).*

Jwaili (2006) refers to Gunn (1994), who describes tourism as “encompasses all travel with the exception of commuting” (p.98). He goes on to say that it is also more than just a service industry, it is a multi-faceted activity. Consequently it has been defined in different ways, but it might be thought of in terms of relationships and phenomena ensuing from journeys and temporary accommodation for people travelling for leisure or recreational purposes. The definitions which are mentioned above have been quoted at length because they explain how broadly the concept of tourism has to be defined in order to encompass all forms of the phenomenon. However, it can be argued that regardless of the several definitions of tourism, what needs to be highlighted is that these activities can substantially enhance the quality of life for all participating countries in

different ways, for example, job creation, growth of exports, national income and return on investment.

Accordingly, the tourism industry is basically an economic concept based upon the actuality that travellers spend money at the destinations visited. The tourism industry can provide an external injection of wealth and substantial revenue through visitor arrivals. Moreover, tourism may be the best industry among all business to directly provide goods and/or services and/or to provide business and leisure activities in participating nations.

### **2.3 The significance of tourism**

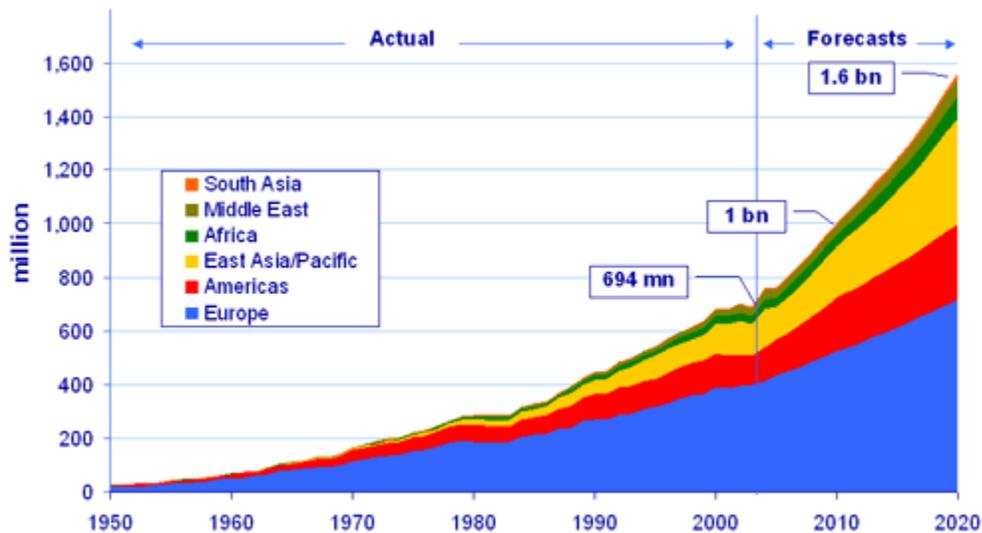
Travel and tourism have been a characteristic of all human society since the beginning of civilization. In an introductory chapter such as this, it is important to stress at the outset the key role of tourism in the growth and development of economic activities. In 2003, the World Travel and Tourism Council described tourism at the start of the twenty-first century as “a great force capable of dramatically developing economic and social well-being throughout the world, waiting to be unleashed” (WTTC, 2003, p.5). It has also become an industry of global significance, one which impacts upon entire countries and influences all economic activities. Consequently, it is one of the major social and economic phenomena of modern times (Singh, 1997; Sharpley&Telfer, 2002). More recently, tourism has been recognised as making a decisive contribution to employment, investment and regional development in many countries, particularly in developing countries, including Libya.

The World Tourism Organisation (WTO, 2007) states also that tourism has contributed extensively to world prosperity, through economic growth and employment creation. This has made tourism a major focus for most countries, particularly developing ones.

The World Tourism Organisation (WTO) suggests that tourism provided for over 234.3 million jobs or 8.2 per cent of total world employment in 2007 compared to 230 million jobs in 2006 (WTO, 2008). In 1997, a study was conducted in Hungary by Cleveland, Barnes-Farrell and Ratz, showing that tourism is one of the most rapid developing industries. It described that in Hungary the industry employs around 250,000–300,000 people, and therefore seems to be an effective industry in creating new jobs and reducing unemployment. In 2005, Moore stated that “the UK hospitality industry is a £43 billion industry, employing over 7% of the UK workforce and creating one in every five new jobs” (p.197). The UK has been referred to here and subsequently because it has one of the longest, if not the longest, established examples of a well-developed hospitality industries with a comprehensive range of component businesses. As such it makes for a suitable comparison for a less developed country with a largely closed economy such as that of Libya. According to Elliott (1997), tourism plays a key role in the growth of urbanization, industrialization, standards of education, and the desire of people to visit different tourist attraction destinations inside and outside the country. Despite the changes that have taken place in the world, tourism since 1950 has been a highly competitive industry, and is still the fastest growing sector and a major power in the global economy (Cooper et al., 2008). Given the expectation that the number of international tourists will increase, the tourism industry can make great contributions to a national economy and the global economy. For example, in the United Kingdom the

number of air travellers is expected to increase from 180 million in 2004 to almost 475 million by 2030 (Page, 2007). Jwaili (2006) likewise describes tourism as being widely recognised as the largest industry in the world. It has created rapid growth in various fields, such as economic, social and environmental, which require detailed understanding and measuring to manage. In 2002, the WTO disclosed that the number of international tourist arrivals was 25 million global international arrivals in 1950, whereas by 2007, this figure reached nearly 900 million this generated 10.3 percent of the global Gross Domestic Product (GDP), providing 234.3 million jobs or 8.2 percent of total world employment. The WTO also reports that receipts from international tourism in 1980 were US\$287 billion, and rose to US\$564 billion in 1995. In 2000, they reached US\$702 billion and by 2010 they are expected to exceed US\$1 trillion.

**Figure 2.1: International tourist arrivals from 1950-2020**



Source: World Tourism Organisation (UNWTO)

The data in (Figure 2.1) shows that tourism is a major element of development and growth universally. Furthermore, Page (2007) reports that the World Travel and Tourism Council (WTTC) identifies that travel and tourism as economic activities generated around US\$6201 billion in 2005, which is estimated to grow to US\$10678.5 billion by 2015. Page also clarifies several reasons why tourism assumes a significant role not only in our lives but also globally:

- Tourism is a discretionary activity (people are not required to undertake it as a basic need to survive, unlike consuming food and water).
- Tourism is of growing economic significance on a global scale, with growth rates in excess of the rate of economic growth for many countries.
- Many governments see tourism as offering new employment opportunities in a growing sector that is focused on service industries and may assist in developing and modernizing the economy.

In recent years, international tourism has grown rapidly compared with other sectors. It has become a significant industry for both developed and developing countries because it has become an appropriate source of economic revenue, which could replace dependency on oil revenues. For example, Libya has been heavily dependent on oil revenues for the last four decades. The LTMP (1999-2018) has proposed to help reduce the country's over-dependence on oil as oil is a non-permanent source and is therefore vulnerable in the longer term. Libya now expects tourism to be the second industrial sector after oil, as Libya is regarded as one of the more attractive tourist destinations (LTMP, 2009-2025) (see section 2.5.4.3).

It is clear that increasing the number of international tourists will lead to an increase in tourist expenditure to every Libyantourist destination. Putra (2003) states that an average of almost 4.4 million tourists visit different destinations in Australia annually and they spend on average US\$65 per day per person. In Libya, the total number of tourists in 2007 was 105,997, and each one spent an average of around US\$85 per day. The LTMP (1999-2018) has estimated that visitor expenditure in 2013 could total LD 1479.7 million, and it will reach LD 2442.7 million by 2018 (LTMP, 1999-2018).

**Table 2.1: Total estimated visitor expenditure for the years 2013 and 2018**

Purpose of visit	Visitor expenditure (LD* million)	
	2013	2018
Archaeological Tours	161.5	322.2
Desert Tours	174.8	348.0
General Interest	212.0	282.9
Resort	107.0	220.9
Business/ Official	158.8	222.4
Total International Exp	814.5	1406.4
Local Tour operator Rev	469.4	818.3
Total Domestic Exp	195.8	228.0
Total	1479.7	2442.7

Source: LTMP, 1999-2018. \*LD: Libyan Dinar.

According to the World Tourism Organisation (2007), tourism has contributed significantly to world prosperity, through economic growth and employment creation. This has made tourism a major focus for most countries, particularly developing ones. In the light of this, tourism is considered one of the world's largest growth industry and Danis (2006) states that there are no indications of any slowing down in the 21st century. It is easy to be aware of the global importance of tourism as the following statistics suggest:

International tourist arrivals were estimated by the World Travel and Tourism Council in 2002 to reach one billion by 2010, and 1.6 billion by 2020. By 2010, the tourism economy contribution is calculated to grow to 12 per cent of global GDP, and will create approximately 250 million jobs. 328 million people worldwide will be employed in the field of travel and tourism by 2020, because of increased demand. This impact will rise by 46% over the following decade.

In the light of these statements there is no controversy or doubt that tourism has become an important sector compared to other industries for most countries due to its active role in the growth and evolution of economic activity as a whole, particularly growth in GDP. The Libyan Tourism Master Plan (LTMP) of 1999 has estimated a key contribution of the tourism industry to GDP, as table 2.2 shows.

**Table 2.2: The estimated contribution of Libyan tourism to GDP in 2013 and 2018**

Years	2013	2018
Contribution to GDP	5,920 (LD million)	9,590

Source: LTMP, 2003-2018.

## **2.4 The hospitality industry**

### **2.4.1 Definitions of hospitality**

The word “hospitality” is often used to describe the rather broad field that incorporates lodging, food service, leisure, conventions, travel, and attraction (Ottenbacher, Harrington & Parsa, 2009).

Chell, Carmouche and Pittaway (1998, p.411) stated that: “the hospitality industry is a ‘people’ industry, is often characterised as heterogeneous due to the large number of consumers directly involved in the production and service process, and is predominantly

labour intensive”.The definition of the hospitality industry as providing food, drink, accommodation and leisure facilities has persisted throughout its long history. According to Page (2007), the hospitality industry is the very essence of tourism, including the consumption of food, drink and accommodation in an environment away from the places where people normally live and work. In addition, Angelo and Vladimir (1996) states that although usually the hospitality industry is viewed as including mainly lodging and food service business, some view the hospitality industry as involving four sectors: lodging, food, entertainment, and travel.

Cassee and Reuland, cited in Bright and Johnson (1985), define hospitality as “a harmonious mixture of food, beverage and/or shelter, a physical environment and the behaviour and attitude of people. Hospitality produces a feeling of being at home, an ‘at ease’ feeling” (Bright and Johnson, 1985, p.27).

Mullins (1995, 1999) asserts that the hospitality industry has become increasingly important as an all-embracing nomenclature for a larger number of organisations and therefore the hospitality industry can be interpreted in a number of ways. For example, the Hotel and Catering Training Company (1995) cited by Mullins (1995,1999), states that the hospitality includes “hotels, motels, guesthouses, bed and breakfast, restaurants, holiday parks, restaurants, fast food outlets, cafes, departmental sector catering, sector, clubs, hospital, industrial catering, institutional catering, and the related area of tourism and leisure”. From a survey of the literature for the historical and sociological bases of hospitality, King (1995) describes hospitality in general as having four attributes:

- A relationship between individuals who take the roles of host and guest;

- A relationship which may be commercial or private ;
- The keys to successful hospitality in both the commercial and private spheres which include knowledge of what would evoke pleasure in the guest; and
- Hospitality as a process that includes arrival and welcoming, providing comfort and fulfilment of the guest's wishes, and departure.

Guerrier (1999) describes the provision of hospitality as:

- Providing basic human needs for food, drink and somewhere to sleep for people who are not regular members of the family;
- Rewarding hosts by enhanced prestige in the community if they provide lavish hospitality to guests; and
- An exchange for the mutual benefit of the host and the guest.

Furthermore, Guerrier (1999) states that the provision of hospitality is an exchange designed to enhance the well-being of both the host and the guest. She quotes Telfer's 1996 definition of hospitality as providing food, drink and convenient lodging for people who are strangers to the household. In sum, a wider understanding of hospitality, therefore, suggests that hospitality is basically a mutual relationship between the guest and the host.

#### **2.4.2 The importance of hospitality**

Tourism and hospitality are considered two of the largest industries in the world (Spillane, 2001). Moreover, many researchers (e.g. Esichaikul & Baum, 1998; Guerrier, 1999; Putra, 2003; Jwaili, 2006; Danis, 2006; Naama et al. 2008) argue that tourism and the hospitality industry are two labour-intensive industries and employ a large percentage

of the international workforce. These industries are attractive both to governments of developed countries who are looking to create alternative employment for people in order to face the decline in the manufacturing sector, and to developing countries' governments who need to ensure work for a large number of people as a result of continued increase in the population.

The hospitality industry includes several different types of institution providing hospitality services. Page (2007) classifies these establishments as follows: hotels, restaurants, cafes and catering places, night clubs and licensed clubs, take-away food bars, public houses, canteens, camping and caravanning sites, holiday camps, short-stay tourist accommodation, university and higher-education accommodation provision, catering services to educational establishments, and contract caterers.

In 2007, Page disclosed some statistics on the hospitality industry in the United Kingdom which assert that the British hospitality sector is one of the largest industries, with over 284,700 institutions, 27,700 hotels, 122,000 restaurants, 110,000 public houses, clubs and bars, and 25,000 contract catering companies. These enterprises employ more than around 1.6 million people in different jobs. In this regard in a developed economy, such as the UK, over 10,400 new rooms opened in 2010 and a further 43,000 planned for the period 2011-2015 (British Hospitality Association (BHA), 2010). In 2010, the British hospitality industry employed over 2.4 million people, has the potential to generate a further 236,000 jobs by 2015 (BHA, 2010), and it can create 475,000 jobs by 2020 (BHA, 2011).

In contrast, Jwaili (2006) describes the Libyan tourism and hospitality industries as consisting of several enterprises with various activities. There are fourteen types of these enterprises as follows: travel agents, tour operators, air lines, tourist guide services, transportation bureaux, hotels and guesthouse, restaurants and cafes, museums and historical sites and buildings, nature reserve services, sports and recreational sport services, tourism education and training institutions, local tourist offices, craft industries, and tourism police.

## **2.5 Background to the Libyan tourism and hotel industry**

### **2.5.1 A brief introduction to Libya**

This section presents an insight into Libya's background, including its geographic location and climate, historical background, population, religion and language, economy and politics.

- **Geographic location and climate**

Libya is one of largest countries in Africa, and because of its important and distinctive location in North Africa, it is still of great strategic importance, acting as a link between the Eastern and Western countries. It is the gateway to Western Europe as well as to central and south Africa. It has a long coast of approximately 1900 km on the Mediterranean Sea. There are six neighbouring countries. It is bordered to the east by Egypt; Tunisia and Algeria to the west and north-west; to the south-east by Sudan, and to the South by Chad and Niger. Libya covers a surface area of 1,775,500 sq. km (685,524 sq miles), almost seven times the area of the United Kingdom or more than three times

the size of France. The Great Socialist People's Libyan Arab Jamahiriya is the official name of the country.

**Figure 2.2: Map of geographic location of Libya**



- **Historical background**

The country has been subjected to varying types of foreign control, for example, Phoenician, Greek, Roman, Byzantine, and Italian. The Greeks and Romans left impressive ruins in some coastal cities, such as, Leptis Magna, Sabratha, and Cyrene that remain even today as a witness to these ancient cultures. Libya was one of the world's poorest countries before its discovery of oil in 1959. The September 1969 revolution used oil revenues to develop the infrastructure in different areas. This discovery created many jobs for people across most Libyan cities, where the business organisations became larger than ever before. The increased growth of those organisations, with new recruitment, led to an urgent need for more training programmes.

- **Population**

According to data in July 2009, the Libyan population is very small (6,324,357) compared with a huge land area of the country. The population density is approximately 50 people per Sq. Km. 90% of the population live in coastal cities, and more than half of them are concentrated in the two largest cities, the capital Tripoli and Benghazi. 33% of the population is estimated to be under the age of 15.

- **Safety**

With regard to safety and security issues Libya is a very safe country to travel in and it enjoys a great deal of security and stability. Temehu (2006 cited in Khalifa, 2010) states that Libya is one of the safest tourist destinations, not only in the Middle East and North Africa region, but in the world at large. This fact was established in a survey conducted by an international insurance broker, Aon, which found that Greenland and Libya were the world's safest destinations in 2004.

- **Religion and language**

The cultural features of Libyan society are largely similar with some other Arab countries, where both Arabic culture and Islamic rules have a great impact on beliefs, attitudes, behaviour, social values, and the laws of the country's politics and economics. The Arabic language is the official language in the country. Islam is the predominant religion among the individuals of Libyan society, as in other Arab countries. It is an important factor throughout all aspects of Libyan life and society (Weir, Mahfod& Armstrong, 2006). Religion and language play a major role in influencing the behaviour

and attitudes of Libyan people. This influence extends to include the whole Libyan society and its organisations.

- **Economic**

The Libyan economy is still dominated by the public sector. It has remained heavily dependent upon oil revenues for the last four decades, i.e. the oil industry is the main revenue for the country, which accounts for roughly 97 per cent of export earnings, 75 per cent of government receipts, and 54 per cent of the gross domestic product. However, recently the country has been seeking to diversify its economy to make it less dependent on oil. Consequently, tourism and hospitality is considered to be the second main resource after oil. The country is making great efforts to reform its economic system in various areas including the hotel sector. Thus, there are serious steps toward the privatization of state companies and the thinning of government bureaucracy. The unemployment rate in the country is about 30 per cent, and this is one of the major drivers behind the Libyan government's policies toward foreign investment across all sectors (U.S commercial service, 2008).

Despite the high revenues of oil industry, the economic activities suffer from many problems. For example, managerial and financial corruption (e.g. Wasta& Baksheesh) remains widespread in most Libyan organisations (U.S. Department of State, 2011), hotels are no exception to this. Managerial corruption comes from the social structure of the Libyan society (more details in Chapter 4, section 4.3), while (for example Baksheesh) one of the reasons for financial corruption is low salaries for government

employees in the country. These types of transactions (Wasta& Baksheesh) are generally viewed as a necessary part of doing business by local staff.

Foreign workers make up a significant percentage of the Libyan labour, particularly in the service industries such as hotels, and manual labour jobs (U.S. Department of State, 2011).

- **Politics**

- **Internal Policy**

The official name of the country is Great Socialist People's Libyan Arab Jamahiriya. The political system in Libya depends on the Third International Theory of Mu'ammara al-Qadhafi, set out in his Green Book. Political parties are forbidden, and the country is governed by the popular congresses and people's committees. According to the administrative divisions, there are thirty-one municipalities which are called in the plural "Shabiyat" and singular "Shabyia", which is a neologism exclusive to Libya, and the term basically means a district, that is, a top level administrative division (Wikipedia, 2010). These Shabiyat are: Tripoli, Benghazi, Misurata, Zawiyah, Gharyan, Sabha, Al Jabal al-Akhdar, Butnan, Darnah, Gubba, Subrata&Surman, Marj, Green Belt , Bani-waleed, Ajdabiya, Wahat, Jfara, Kufra, Surt, Al Jufrah, , Murgub, , Tarhuna and Msallata, Ghdames, Ghat, An Nuqat al Khams, WadiAlhaya, Mezda, Murzuq, Yefren and Jadu, Nalut, and WadiShati.

- **External Policy**

Libya was in political isolation and under economic sanctions from the United States and the European Union from 1992 to 1998. Since April 2004, all UN and US sanctions have

been lifted; the Libyan government has made progress to rebuild its economic institutions. This led to the achievement of many benefits, such as a return of the country to the international arena through improved relations with the West. The country has occupied leadership positions in several international organisations. For example, “In January 2008, Libya began its two-year non-permanent tenure on the UN Security Council representing the Africa group. In 2009, Libya became chair of the African Union. Libya has also expressed interest in seeking the 2009 UN General Assembly presidency on behalf of the Africa group” (U.S Commercial Service, 2008).

### **2.5.2 The emergence and development of tourism and hotel industry in Libya**

The organisational framework for the tourism industry in Libya dates back to the late 1960s. The first Ministry of Tourism was established by Royal Act Number 44 in 1968. Its main activities included: “welcoming and facilitating incoming tourists; classification of hotels, guesthouses, restaurants and other tourist establishments; granting of exemptions to foreign investors to own capital assets in the country; security and safety for tourism locations; setting out licensing laws for all tourist activities; controlling the employment procedures within the tourism industry; and approval of price lists in tourism establishments” (Naama et al. 2008, p. 484).

The Libyan General Board for Tourism (GBT) was established in 1989. It was responsible for promoting and supporting the tourism industry nationally and internationally, and for conducting statistical surveys, classifying all enterprises operating under the umbrella of the tourism sector. It also issued licences, and supervised tourism training establishments. In 1995, the General People’s Committee for Tourism (GPCT),

which represented the highest authority in the management of all tourist activities in the country, was established to replace the Libyan GBT. Its main objective was to develop a comprehensive strategy for the development of the tourism industry, and ways to implement this strategy (Naama et al., 2008; Jwaili, 2004). According to Decree 2.2.1998, the Office for the Development of Tourism and Investment (ODIT), was established under the auspices of the GPCT in order to promote investment opportunities in the tourism sector at local and global levels (Naama et al. 2008). Recently, the General Board of Tourism and Traditional Industries (GBTTI) was established to replace the GPCT under Act 87/2007 by the General People's Committee (GPC).

In general, today, Libya is one of the fastest growing economies in Africa. In 2006, Danis described Libya as a newcomer to tourism, but with the beginning of successful tourism programmes. Over the past few years, Libya has seen an increasing growth in the services sector in terms of the number and size of the companies concerned, especially in tourism and the hospitality industries.

As pointed out in chapter one, the Libyan economy remains heavily dependent upon oil revenues. Therefore, there has been little interest in the development of the tourism sector in the last four decades. However, a few years ago, Libya endeavoured to establish other sectors to support the national economy. Tourism was suggested in a speech by Colonel Gaddafi in May 1993 as the most viable alternative to the oil industry, with its capacity to contribute towards an increase in Libya's GDP in the future (Danis, 2006).

It is worth noting that Libya is seeking to develop the tourism and hospitality sectors as a core part of the LTMP (1999-2018) and (2009-2025). Since April 2004, when all UN and

US sanctions have been lifted; the Libyan government has made progress to rebuild its economic institutions. This led to the achievement of many benefits, such as a return of the country to the international arena through improved relations with the west, as well as the recovery of the economy, which has witnessed a rapid increase in foreign direct investment, especially in the energy sector (CIA, 2008). According to predictions of Business Monitor International through the period of 2008-2012, the construction industry in Libya will grow at an average rate of 5.17% annually (BMI, 2008).

In recent years, through reviews of latest industry trends, Business Monitor International's reports in 2008 that there are good indicators which contribute to the boom and growth of Libyan's economy such as, regulatory changes and major deals, projects and investments. Indeed, economic diversification has now become a necessary task for most countries, especially developing ones. Libya wants to launch its burgeoning tourism industry because tourism suggests itself as the best option with great opportunities to develop it, and this is an industry with which it is hoped to witness a boom in the coming years (Libya Tourism Forums (LTFs), 2006).

It should be noted here that the oil sector contributes nearly two-thirds of GDP, but it accommodates only 3% of the total workforce. In contrast, the tourism sector contributes less than 2% of GDP, but it employs about 4% of the workforce. This is evidence of the importance of the tourism sector compared with other sectors through accommodating of a significant proportion of the work force (LTMP, 2009-2025). Libya is looking to accommodate nearly 3 million tourists by 2010, and 4.6 million by 2025 compared with

135 thousand in 2002 (Alsouri, 2010) and (LTMP, 2009-2025). This will provide about 225,000 jobs by 2025 (LTMP, 2009-2025).

### **2.5.3 Local organisations responsible for the hotel and tourism industry in Libya**

There are three organisations:

#### **i- General People's Committee (GPC)**

One of the most important tasks of the General People's Committee (GPC) is to monitor and supervise the work of all sectors of the economy in Libya to ensure that they function in accordance with the resolutions of the Basic People's Congresses. Moreover, it is responsible for decisions relating to organisational structures of the various sectors and, the development of rules that control their work, together with the encouragement of foreign investments ([http://www.gpc.gov.ly/html/about\\_gpc.php#](http://www.gpc.gov.ly/html/about_gpc.php#)).

#### **ii- General Board for Tourism and Traditional Industries (GBTTI)**

The General Board for Tourism and Traditional Industries (GBTTI) was established according to Law 87/2007 issued by the GPC. The terms of reference of the GBTTI are:

- to contribute to developing a comprehensive strategy for tourism development in Libya, and follow-up its implementation.
- to prepare studies related to tourist activity in Libya in order to improve its development and find solutions to the problems faced.
- to raise awareness among citizens of the importance of tourism as one of the important resources of the national economy and a means of social cohesion between local citizens, and strengthen cooperation with various countries of the world.

- to upgrade the efficiency of local elements in the field of tourism and hotel services.
- to classify and assess tourist accommodation and grant necessary approvals for the issuance of licenses in coordination with the relevant authorities.
- to contribute to developing relations with Arab and international countries and organisations in the field of tourism through agreements and cooperation programmes.
- to collect data and statistics related to tourist activity and tabulate and analyse them in order to draw conclusions and issue statistical leaflets periodically and annually (<http://www.libyan-tourism.org/Standard.aspx?ID=72>).

From the discussion above, it seems clear that GPC and GBTTI are the most important responsible parties for tourism and hotel industry. However, the relationship between the GPC, the GBTTI and tourism organisations (which include the SSFIC) is very weak, with a lack of cooperation and coordination (Khalifa, 2010). The relationship between the two organisations only consists of requesting statistics from the GBTTI. Naama et al. (2008) and Kassem (2008) stated that the hotel sector has not received sufficient support from government compared to other sectors; there is no full co-operation between hospitality education institutions and the hotel sector.

### **iii- Libyan Investment Promotion Board (LIPB)**

The Libyan Investment Promotion Board (LIPB) was established according to the article (5) of Law 5/1997. It aims to promote foreign investment in various sectors, including that of hotels. In recent years, the LIPB has begun to establish a great number of

investment projects and specifically tourism projects are being executed in Libya. These projects include the construction of significant numbers of new hotels, leisure parks, tourism administration centres, and tourism complexes, holiday villages and chalets. In addition, the LIPB is responsible for the diversification of income sources and the building up of the training of Libyan human resources. These are the key aims of the LIPB.

## **2.5.4 Overview of the Libyan Tourism Master Plan (LTMP) (2009-2025)**

### **2.5.4.1 Introduction**

The Libyan Tourism Master Plan (LTMP) 2009-2025 was prepared by fifty national and international experts, qualified in different areas of tourism. The LTMP has made clear that the tourism sector still suffers from a lack of accommodation and tourist services (quantity and quality) and a lack of qualified human resources to operate these tourist facilities.

### **2.5.4.2 The goals of LTMP 2009-2025**

There are four main aims:

- 1- to accommodate about 4.6 million tourists by 2025.
- 2- to provide about 100,000 beds by the end of this plan in 2025.
- 3- to provide about 225,000 new jobs by 2025.
- 4- to increase the contribution of the tourism sector to GDP from about 1.45% in 2008 to about 6% by 2025 (LTMP 2009-2025).

### **2.5.4.3 The prospects for tourism in Libya**

According to the LTMP (2009-2025), tourism in Libya is a promising economic resource because of the advantage of the country's strategic location, the variety of the tourist potential, the cultural heritage and other competitive features that make it attractive to the global market. Although the industry is still in the early stage of development, it will grow rapidly according to the forecasts of global institutions (e.g. the WTTC), as follows:

- Libya ranked seventh in highest world economic growth rates (13.2%) in 2008.
- Rapid growth will put Libya in third place after China and Namibia according to economic growth rates by 2018.
- Employment growth ranked ninth globally with a rate of 6.4% in 2008.
- Libya will achieve the highest national rates of employment to occupy the fourth place (5.6%) during the period 2009 to 2018.
- Currently, Libya is ranked seventh in terms of achievement in the highest growth rates of tourist exports, and is expected to reach third place during the period between 2009 and 2018.
- Libya could achieve the highest growth rates of tourism investment, during the period between 2009 and 2018, to occupy the first rank globally.
- Libya will occupy first place globally in the development of business tourism with growth rates up to 9.5% during the period between 2009 and 2018.

The next figure shows a number of hotels in Tripoli by 2015.

**Figure 2.3: A pictorial view of hotels in Tripoli by 2015**



Source: This image received from a friend via e-mail (2010)

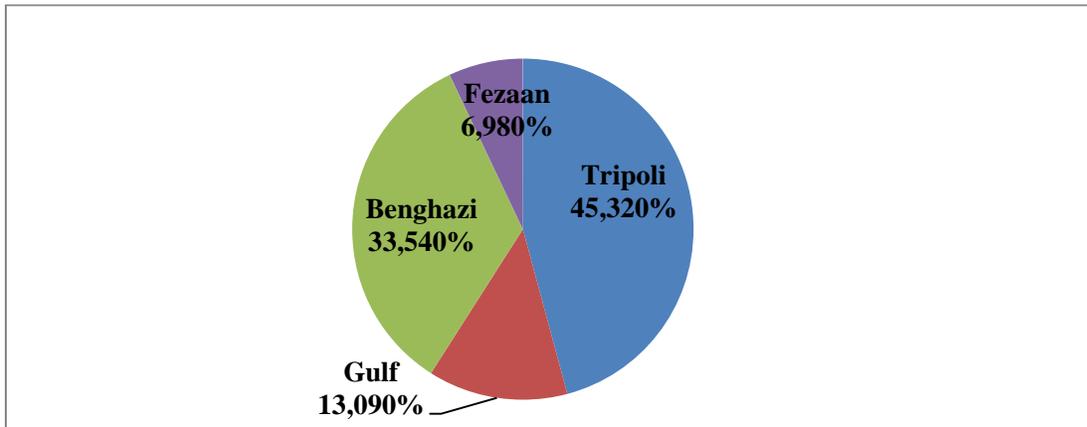
**Table 2.3: Distribution requirements of accommodation in accordance with tourism regions in Libya during the period between 2009 and 2025**

Region	No. of city	Name of city	Total number of required beds
Tripoli	1	Subratha	9,690
	2	Tripoli	21,950
	3	Libta	10,300
	4	Al-Jabel Al-Gharbi	1,720
	5	Ghadams	1,660
Total			45,320
Gulf	6	Sirt	7,700
	7	Al-Jofra	2,720
	8	Al-Wahat	950
	9	Al-kofra	1,720
Total			13,090
Benghazi	10	Benghazi	11,620
	11	Al-Jabal Al-Akhtar	11,650
	12	Tobruk	9,870
	13	Al-Jaghboob	400
Total			33,540
Fezzan	14	Sabha	4,080
	15	Ghat	1,900
	16	Al-Bohyrat-Obari	1,000
Total			6,980
The total number of beds			98,930

Source: LTMP, 2009-2025, p.58.



**Figure 2.4: The percentage number of required beds in different Libyan regions between 2009 and 2025**



Source: According to the data of the previous table, LTMP, 2009-2025.

According to the LTMP (2009-2025), in 2007, the number of hotels was 268 an increase of about 116% over the numbers in 1997. These hotels collectively have 13,638 rooms and 26,423 beds. However, only 17% of these rooms (about 2245 rooms) were appropriate for tourists. In addition, most hotels are found in Tripoli region compared with the other three regions: Benghazi, Gulf and Fezaan, as shown in the table below.

**Table 2.4: The number of hotels in the main four regions in Libya**

Region	The number of hotels	%
Tripoli	154	57.5%
Benghazi	71	26.5%
Gulf	28	10.4%
Fezaan	15	5.6%
Total	268	100%

Source: LTMP (2009-2025)

The previous table and figure show clearly the growth in the number of beds required in different regions across the country. The regions of Tripoli need to grow faster in numbers of beds, i.e. roughly fifty percent. Comparing the number of required beds

during the period between 2009 and 2025 with the actual number in 2008 clearly predicts a severe shortage in the number of beds, according to the latest predictions of the GBTTI in 2008, as shown in the following table:

**Table 2.5: Comparison between the number of beds in 2008 and the expected number between 2009 and 2025**

Year	Number of beds in classified hotels	Total number of beds in Libya
2008	13,481	27,334
2009-2025	98,930	

Source: GBTTI (2008), and LTMP (2009-2025).

Table 2.5 illustrates the significant increase in the number of beds by 2025; the LTMP's (2009-2025) estimate indicates that the number will reach 98,930 beds by 2025 compared with 13,481 beds in 2008, i.e. an increase of 85,449 beds. This is one of the most significant indicators of the rapid growth in the hotel sector in Libya.

#### **2.5.4.4 Workforce requirements**

To respond to the growth in the hotel sector in Libya an urgent need to build human resources and enhance their skills and knowledge at all levels. Workforce requirements in accommodation facilities between 2009 and 2025 are estimated to grow from 150,000 jobs (including 75,000 in restaurants and cafes) to a total number 225,000 by 2025 (LTMP, 2009-2025). The previous table showed a significant increase in the number of beds by 2025, which will require a sufficient number of staff to fill a large number of expected new jobs.

#### **2.5.4.5 Income of tourism activity**

An average spending of foreign tourists is more than spending of local visitors and tourists. In 2008, foreign tourists spent about 200 dinars a day (GBTTI, 2008), and it is

estimated that tourism income will increase from LD 531 million in 2008 to about 8 LD billion in 2025, with an average annual growth estimated at LD 450 million. In the same context, the table below shows the growth in the number of foreign and local tourists and their expenditure during the years from 2008 to 2025.

**Table 2.6: Estimated Growth in the number of tourists and their expenditure during the period from 2008 to 2025**

Year	Number of foreign tourists and visitors	Expenditure (LD million)	Number of local tourists	Expenditure (LD million)	Total number of tourists	Total expenditure
2008	676,946	488.7	279,006	41.9	955,952	530.5
2009	738,784	843.8	309,723	151.8	1,048,508	995.6
2010	806,277	952.7	343,823	173.2	1,150,099	1126
2015	1,248,417	1742.1	579,612	336.8	1,828,029	2078.8
2020	1,933,336	3323.7	977,102	684	2,910,438	4007.7
2025	2,994,515	6371.5	164,7186	1614.2	4,641,702	7985.7

Source: LTMP, 2009-2025, p.85.

As average spending of foreign tourists is higher than spending of local visitors and tourists, this has led to two important directions of impetus. First, the focus should be on foreign tourists as they are considered the main source for the growth of tourism income. However, second, it is also important to develop domestic tourism and to raise the interest and awareness of tourism in order to improve domestic tourism and its revenue.

## **2.6 Difficulties faced by the Libyan tourism and hotel industry**

Despite the important geographical location and its proximity to European tourism markets, Libya needs to develop the tourism industry. This is due to poor infrastructure, lack of capital for local tourism enterprises, and the absence of clear leadership from the public sector (Porter & Yergin, 2006), have summarised some difficulties that face the Libyan hospitality and tourism:

- Lack of training programmes.
- Poor quality service to customer.
- Poor salaries and consequent loss of motivation, especially for public sector employees.
- Limited number of people fluent in foreign languages.

The Libyan Tourism Master Plans (LTMP) was developed by the World Tourism Organisation, which focuses on human resource issues (Jones and Havan-Tang, 2005). However, two reviews by Abuzed (2002) and Jwaili (2004) mentioned some troubles-related aspects of the LTMP; for instance, lack of knowledge and awareness concerning the Libyan hotel sector; technical know-how; tourism-related infrastructure; tourism publicity; language skills; and training of personnel in this sector. Naama et al. (2008) maintain that the challenges facing tourism in Libya are not unique. However, Libya can learn good lessons from other countries, especially neighbouring ones, such as Egypt and Tunisia, because their culture and environment are similar to Libya. Moreover, they have long experience in the different stages of tourism development and hospitality industry.

A number of researchers have provided an overview of the difficulties facing the tourism and hospitality sectors in Libya. Naama et al. (2008) argue that these industries suffer from a host of shortcomings, which lie in the weakness of tourism training institutions and poor quality graduates, which in turn lead to low quality services provided in most of the tourism establishments, especially in tourism hotels. It must also be noted that the LTMP suggested some strategies to rectify these problems: in the long and in the short-term strategies that should be a focus on training and development of HR, preparing

instructors in the field of tourism, and expanding the establishment of tourism institutes and training centres. The key difficulties could be summarised in the following points:

- 1- Lack of accommodation and tourist services (quantity and quality) (LTMP, 2009-2025).
- 2- Lack of qualified human resources (LTMP, 2009-2025) due to:
  - Training programmes are very limited (Saleh, 2005; Danis; 2006; Kassem, 2008).
  - A large deficit in qualified Libyan trainers
  - Skills shortage (Jones, 2010; LTMP, 2009-2025).
- 3- High percentage of foreign workers (GBTTI, 2008-2009).
- 4- Lack of coherent strategy of training (Vimpany, Rossiter, Crimes, & White, 2009).
- 5- Low salaries in the tourism and hotel sectors (Porter & Yergin, 2006; Naama, 2007).
- 6- Lack of cooperation and coordination between the GPC, the GBTTI and tourism organisations which include the SSFIC (Khalifa, 2010).

## **2.7 Chapter summary**

Even though the tourism industry is not a recent phenomenon, however it is considered as a complex phenomenon because it includes a multi-faceted activity and labour-intensive industries. At the same time, tourism has become the economic lifeblood of many countries in the world. This chapter has explored the literature on the tourism and hospitality industry. It explained why tourism and hospitality are considered one of the largest industry sectors in the world. In addition, it discussed the challenges faced by the

tourism and hospitality industry. It then provided a background to the emergence and development of tourism in Libya, with reference to its difficulties and challenges.

There is little controversy or doubt that tourism has become a significant sector compared to other industries for most countries especially developing ones, due to its active role in the growth and evolution of economic activity as a whole, particularly in GDP, and making a decisive contribution to employment, investment and regional development.

In the case of Libya, the tourism industry is one of the most promising options for its economic development. Therefore, the Libyan government recently has paid more attention to diversifying its economy, in order to reduce its dependency on oil exports. However, the Libyan government still faces many challenges in order to develop and improve the image of Libyan tourism; particularly the hotel sector which has been hampered by several problems, and one of the most important of these difficulties lies in human resource development, which has affected negatively the overall sector's performance. Hence, the next chapter will shed light on the human resource management and development within the tourism and hospitality sector.

## **CHAPTER THREE: TRAINING WITHIN THE HOTEL SECTOR**

### **3.1 Introduction**

This chapter and the next highlight the key points from an extensive review of the literature on training within the hospitality sector in order to provide the conceptual background for the empirical work. This chapter draws upon studies that cover the nature of training and development (T&D) issues facing the sector in different countries around the world, both developed and developing, making special reference to Arab countries. The next chapter focuses specifically upon Libya.

The following steps were adopted in preparing for these two chapters.

- An initial review identified a relative lack of studies in the area of training in the hotel sector compared to other sectors, particularly in the context of Arab countries including Libya.
- Journal articles and other published sources on training in Libya, training in the Arab world and training in the hospitality sector were identified.
- Generic textbooks on training and development were drawn upon to clarify recurrent themes which could influence training programmes in most organisations, including hotels. These included: The concept of T&D, training as investment, the importance of training, the objectives and benefits of training, types of training, transfer of training, systematic training approach, T&D in the hotel industry globally, T&D in the hotel sector in developing countries, and T&D in Arab countries.

### **3.2 General background**

Before defining the concept of training, there are some concepts such as education, development and learning which are often used interchangeably with training, although there is a large degree of overlap between them, thus, it is important to highlight some distinctions and commonalities between these terms and concepts. The differences between these concepts are summarised in Table 3.1.

**Table 3.1: The differences and commonalities between training, development, education and learning**

<b>Training</b>	<b>Education</b>	<b>Development</b>	<b>Learning</b>
Is a planned process to modify attitude, knowledge and skills through learning experience to achieve effective performance in an activity or range of activities. It is the use of systematic and planned instruction and development activities to promote learning.	Is a process and a series of activities which aim to develop the knowledge, skills, moral values and understanding required in all aspects of life rather than a knowledge and skill relating to only a limited field of activity.	The growth or realisation of a person's ability, through conscious or unconscious learning and development programmes usually including elements of planned study and experience, and frequently supported by a coaching and counselling facility.	The process of acquiring knowledge through experience which leads to an enduring change in behaviour.
Focuses on the present time, and it is directed towards the acquisition of specific knowledge and skills for the purpose of the current task	Is directed to the development of individuals in the long-term	Focuses on the future, and it is directed towards the future, rather than present needs, and which is more concerned with career growth than immediate performance.	Is connected with learning knowledge that is related to the performance of individuals
Aims to achieve the organisation's goals in the short-time	The aims comply with the need of the individual and society in general		
Is necessary for individuals to transfer what they learnt from training to their workplace.	Is not necessary for individuals to transfer what they learn into their workplace.		
Focuses on behavioural aspects of individuals	Is the tool that society uses for facing the current and future challenges.		

Source: Table synthesized from The Manpower Services Commission, 1981; Wathum, 2002; Tyson, 2006; Buckley & Caple, 2009)

Overall, what can be added to the previous table is that:

- It is generally accepted that the principal activities of training, development, education and learning all are under the umbrella of Human Resource Development (HRD) (Armstrong, 2001; Garavan, 1997).
- Development is the all-important primary processes, through which individual and organisational growth can through time, achieve their fullest potential.
- Both training and development (T&D) concern with the development of knowledge, skills and attitudes, but where training is specifically focused on short-term requirements of job, the concept of development is broader and focused on the longer-term development of the individuals (Robinson, 2006). Thus, the term training and development (T&D) is used in this study as an umbrella for employee training and development all levels within organisations.
- Training was particular to each type of work whereas, education was seen as a more broadly based 'training for life'.
- Training is seen as a key instrument in the implementation of HRM policies and practices (Beardwell & Holden, 1997).

Having reviewing the previous concepts, what should also be mentioned is that a review of HRD literature reveals that there is no agreement on a specific definition of HRD (Nolan, 2002; Weinberger, 1998), because each authority on the subject seems to adopt a different stance (Walton, 1999). HRD is a wide area of practice and knowledge (Jacobs, 1990) includes several fields such as economics, psychology, and sociology and so on (Swanson, 1995). However, HRD was described by Armstrong (2000, pp.471 and 474) as “a coherent and comprehensive framework for developing people”, especially to provide “an environment in which employees are encouraged to

learn and develop” (p.474). Training is a key strategy for HRD and in achieving organisational goals (Pineda, 2010). However, with its incorporation into HRD, training has become a complex topic with significant shift in both emphasis and importance from the systematic training model (Price, 2007). In some Arab countries, Lebanon for example, HRD discussions are mostly focused on T&D. At the same time there is no clear differentiation between the three key concepts: HR, HRM and HRD (Dirani, 2006).

In the conclusion, it could be argued that the relationship between these concepts is often referred to as the National Vocational Education and Training (NVET) system and at the same time seen as part of the National HRD system, which is discussed in next chapter, section 4.3.

### **3.2.1 The concept of T&D**

Knowledge is an increasingly important asset for most organisations (Handy, 2008), where T&D is one of important tools to obtaining knowledge and skills. Historically, results of training have been a critical topic of investigation in HRD and adult education research (Holton et al. 2003).

As we can see from Table (3.1) training focuses on development of knowledge and skills of people at work in short-term, enabling them (Carnevale&Schutz, 1990) to do better the work that is expected. Cherrington (1995) describes training as a process leading to the acquisition of specific knowledge or skills, other sources refer to the enhancement of knowledge, skills and abilities (KSA) (Rowold, 2008). One of the initial considerations of training should be identifying desired aims and results, or as Lashley (2004, p.104) expresses it, “Training is about changing the behaviour of the trainee, and measures of training benefits have to start with a consideration of the

behavioural change that may or may not have occurred’’. Noe (2008) argues that the organisations seek to facilitate employees’ learning of job-related competencies through training and development, which include knowledge and skills that are critical for successful job performance.

Buckley and Caple (2009, p.9) presented a broader definition of training. They defined it as “a planned and systematic effort to modify or develop knowledge, skill and attitude through learning experience, to achieve effective performance in an activity or range of activities. Its purpose, in the work situation, is to enable an individual to acquire abilities in order that he or she can perform adequately a given task or job and realize their potential. T&D was described by Storey (1992) as the “litmus test” of HRM. In recent years, according to the literature of HRM and HRD, T&D can play a vital role in the workplace in enhancing organisational competence and competitiveness. This role is also visible in the hospitality literature (for example, Nickson, 2006).

Tanke (2001) defines training as “a systematic process through which the human resources in the hospitality industry gain knowledge and develop skills by instruction and practical activities that result in improved performance” (p.167). According to Boella (1992), the need for training has become an essential issue in each individual’s work life in order to acquire new knowledge and skills. He argued that people must be well trained to cope with constant changes in the hospitality sector. Miller, Drummond and Porter (1998) define training in the hospitality industry as “teaching people how to do their jobs... three kinds of training are needed in food and lodging operations: job instruction, re-training, and orientation” (p.198).

Miller, Walker and Drummond (2002) suggest that, at present, training in the hospitality industry means simply teaching people how to do their jobs, and guiding trainees towards learning require knowledge, skills, and attitudes in order to do their job better. A number of writers (Barrows, 2000; Jameson, 2000) state that academic specialists have neglected the issue of HRD in the hotel industry. Naama (2007) likewise contends that the tourism and the hospitality industry facing similar challenges to other industries such as: retaining employees for longer; providing training programmes that meet the changed industry needs; and appropriate methods of HRD and training.

Putra (2003) asserts that hotels still have a lack of research that demonstrates a clear relationship between HRM practices and performance, so there is a need for further research in the hotel industry to establish a link between HRM and service quality which, in turn, is related to the performance of trainees.

### **3.3 T&D as investment**

The three dimensions of the Smith and Hayton (1999) theoretical classification can be extended beyond the enterprise setting. As a result of the changes and developments over the last few decades, investment in training is more important than ever before and at the individual, organisational and national level. The knowledge and skill bases of people are seen as a source of capital value and competitive advantage at all levels if properly developed and utilised. Lin and Jacobs (2008, p.237) stated that: “More and more organisations are investing in training as a means to increase their competitiveness”. Many countries as well as organisations spend an enormous amount of time and money on training programmes to improve the performance and efficiency for their population. In the same context, Stevens and Walsh (1991) pointed

out that English-speaking countries have sought to address their competitive problems through reforms to the training systems. It is not just the English speaking world: studies conducted by the Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) in 1994 reported that countries across the world that had developed systems to invest in training were more effective in maintaining their competitive position in the global economy and reducing the impact of unemployment compared with countries that had not invested in this area.

In the past ten years, Jameson (2000, p.44) argues “there is little point in investing in training without attempting to measure its effectiveness”. Today, Griffin (2011, p.176) states that “Being able to demonstrate the value of an investment in training has perhaps never been more important”. Training should be viewed as an investment in people through improving their competence, job satisfaction and reducing the staff turnover - each representing major problems faced by the hotel industry globally - only if effective transfer occurs (e.g. Forrest, 1990; Velada, Caetano, Michel, Lyons & Kavanagh, 2007; Au, Altman; Roussel, 2008). Forrest (1990) for example, suggests that the return on this investment will come, as long as efficiency is persistently developed, evaluated and improved.

In recent years, investment in training programmes has increased throughout the world. However, there is an indication that a lot of time and money invested in training has not been fully realised, because only a small percentage of the positive training results are transferred to the workplace (Velada et al., 2007). In this respect, Al-Ali (1997) studied the assessment of training programmes in the public sector in Kuwait. A sample size in his study was 1200 trainees. He found that 65% of them had negative attitudes towards attending the training programmes. They felt that such

sessions as “a waste of time and money”, i.e. investment in training was not successful for many reasons, for example, the absence of training incentives, the lack of proper understanding of the course content, as well as obstacles that prevented the transfer of knowledge and skills acquired to the workplace. In concluding his study, Berge (2008) states that organisations seek to look more closely at the relationship between training investment and business results. He says that poor performance is usually only partially because of the need for training. On the other hand, outcomes of training programmes are often negative, because the knowledge and skills gained by employees from these programmes are not applied on their job.

Generally, it can be argued that T&D is an investment in people. Most, if not all industrial and service organisations rely heavily on the performance of individuals at the workplace, and training is most important for people who deal directly with customers (Miller et al. 2002). Therefore, investment in the T&D of these people is an important element in the hospitality industry, particularly in the hotel sector.

### **3.4 The importance of T&D**

T&D provides an important contribution to business organisations, but does not provide the whole solution for developing the employees in those organisations. In addition, the relationship between training and business results is very complex (Wills, 1994), and training is often seen as discretionary rather than essential (Marvell, 2009). Perdue, Ninemaier and Woods (2002, p.114) suggest that “training employees to do their jobs effectively is one of the most important tasks undertaken by a hospitality manager”, where training is a significant way to teach employees how to perform their jobs better. Mullins (1993) stated that training is one of the most important work motivators. It contributes to raising the morale of employees and their

job satisfaction, as well as in the improved delivery of service and customer relationships, and economic performance. Accordingly, most organisations (Armstrong, 2003) seek to achieve their HRD strategies through the provision of good training programmes, and by ensuring that they have the skilled, knowledgeable and competent people required to meet their present and future needs. For example, T&D has become an essential factor in the development of hotels in the Asia Pacific region in order to transform the vision of hotel companies, as reported by Muller (2001).

Academically, education and training have often been regarded as equally important. All organisational changes and development programmes must ensure an effective contribution to both education and training in the implementation of any new strategy. From the perspective of Dearden, Reed and Van Reenen (2000), training is more effective than wage increases in bringing about productivity gains, with good returns for both employees and employers. Lowry et al. (2002) also maintain that training is a crucial element for service industries because organisations such as hotels depend heavily on employees' knowledge, skills and initiative to identify problems and to resolve them to ensure higher standards of customer care. Increased competition globally has led to the need to get the right people, with the right skills, in the right place, at the right time. In concluding their study, Ramos, Rey-Maqueira and Tugores (2004) emphasise that T&D plays an important role in high-quality tourism hotels. Therefore, tourism and hospitality organisations should pay more attention to training their employees to acquire the necessary knowledge and skills to fit the requirements of high-quality hotels.

### **3.5 The objectives and benefits of T&D**

#### **3.5.1 The objectives of T&D**

There is some overlap in the literature between the objectives and the benefits of T&D. It is generally considered that training aims to improve skills and knowledge but this improvement could also be classified as a benefit. In the opinion of Tanke (2001), it aims to teach employees how to perform their jobs more effectively than previously (objective and benefit). Tanke (2001) produces two separate but overlapping lists for objectives and benefits. He describes the specific objectives of T&D that are commonly found in the hospitality industry:

- To make the hospitality operation a safe place for both employees and guests, for example through security measures and accident prevention.
- To increase employee satisfaction to reduce turnover costs.
- To enhance the knowledge and skills of human resources, which are necessary to perform all jobs.
- To improve performance levels, which lead to increased productivity and improved labour efficiency.

His list of benefits is described in the next section.

Byrne (1999, p.28) states “training is a very important component of high performance work organisations, but it is not an end goal”. According to Forrest (1990), training objectives are divided into two types:

- Performance-based objectives.
- General objectives.

Performance-based objectives focus on the particular performance or behaviour, which is expected to result from the training programme offered to employees. In

contrast, general objectives are usually comprehensive and wide, so it may or may not depend on specific task or desired employee performance.

According to Putra (2003), regardless of the intentions and aims of T&D programmes, as well as who delivers the programmes within the hospitality and tourism sector, particularly in the hotel sector, the effectiveness of these programmes is measured by the transfer of training to the workplace. This is consistent with the view of Kirkpatrick, who states that “the effectiveness of any training programme is determined by the programme transfer to the job” (1998, p.57).

### **3.5.2 The benefits of T&D**

In the hospitality organisations, Tanke (2001) argues that both the guest and the employee benefit from training programmes. He identifies a number of advantages gained from training human resources within the hospitality industry:

- Improved service quality for guests.
- Improved performance and increased productivity.
- Enhanced teamwork, greater cooperation and reduced conflicts and accidents of work.
- Reduced turnover and absenteeism.
- Higher morale among employees through improved relationships between management and staff.
- Good preparation of employees for promotion.
- Reduced time required for supervision.
- Growing sense of professionalism.

Riley (1996) commented that T&D programmes should be well-designed with clear goals, because it is the first step to quantifying the benefits of any T&D programme, while Boella (2000) added other benefits of training in the short or long term.

- Increasing customer satisfaction and customer demand.
- Better use of time with safer working methods.
- Reduction in staff turnover.

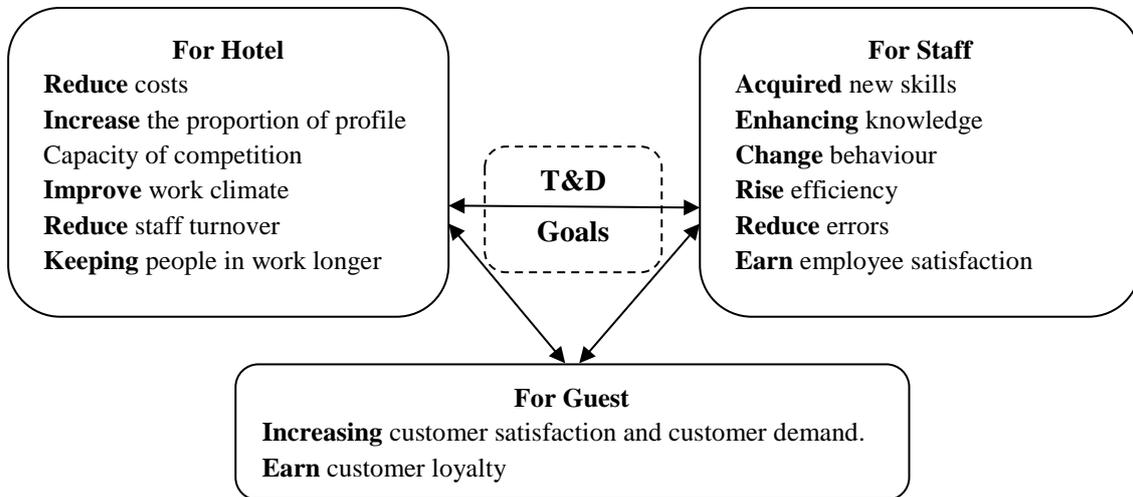
One of the most important benefits of T&D is the reduction of stress (Faulkner & Patiar, 1997). Poulston (2008) recommends that T&D can help hospitality organisations in reducing costs resulting from the problems of the workplace, while inadequate training often leads to many problems within the workplace, such as high staff turnover. Riley (1996) is typical of a number of sources that look at the relationship between the benefits and the costs of training and indicate that training can be a difficult area for management to encourage due to the fact that “training outputs are often hard to quantify and that costs are difficult to allocate” (p.151).

Miller et al. (1998) took a similar perspective on the issue of training cost; they believe that the cost of inadequate or no-training leads in the end to negative results reflected directly in the organisation's goals and strategy, which is the most important loss of the organisation to its employees. The key aspect of this argument is:

*When good training is lacking there is likely to be an atmosphere of tension, crisis and conflict all the time, because nobody is quite sure how the various jobs are supposed to be done and who is responsible for what. Such operations are nearly always short-handed because someone did not show up and somebody else just quit. (Miller et al. 1998, p.200)*

From the context above, the objectives and benefits of T&D in hotels have been summarised in the next figure.

**Figure 3.1: The objectives and benefits of T&D in the hotel industry**



Source: Prepared by the researcher based on information derived from Tank (2001) and Boella (2000)

The researcher believes that some organisations fail to achieve the objectives and benefits of training and development, for several reasons. May be one of these reasons is due to the neglect of training evaluation, which is a way to verify the achievement of any training programme for pre-set goals. Accordingly, the main purpose of conducting a training evaluation process lies in identifying the value of training through achieved results from any training programmes (more details on evaluation in section 3.11). Besides evaluating the effectiveness of the training, there are some factors can impact on the success of training objectives. According to Tung (1981) and Mendenhall and Oddou (1986), these factors include cost, lack of specialized trainers, and lack of support from top management.

Having discussed the objectives and benefits of training, the next section reviews the types of training.

### **3.6 Types of training**

Many writers (e.g. Armstrong, 2003; Gomez-Mejia et al. 2001; Cole, 1997; Beardwell & Holden, 1997; Reid & Barrington, 1997; Buckley & Caple, 2009) consider the types of training which can take place either within or outside the organisation. This section will focus on two sorts of training, which are ‘on and off-the-job training’, and then highlight the criteria for selecting the correct type. Selecting the appropriate method of training relies on many factors, such as the number of employees targeted for training, and specifically for a certain session, the duration of the session, the available facilities, the teaching skills, in addition to the financial resources of the organisation. Training programmes focus on more specific applications and the improvement of skills (Cooper & Westlake, 1989). There are a number of types of training methods that include:

- Training at the workplace (on-the-job training).
- Training at organisational or external centres (off-the-job training).
- A combination of training at the workplace and training centres (blended learning).
- E- learning

The choice of appropriate method depends on the nature and type of training programme, and on which method is likely to ensure the achievement of the objectives of training at the lowest possible cost.

#### **3.6.1 On-the-job training**

This kind of training usually is given by a supervisor or senior employee in normal work circumstances (Robinson, 1988) with line managers having the primary

responsibility for ensuring that it is carried out. Noe (1999) argues that it could be used in several cases, such as:

- training of newly recruited staff
- development of the skills of current employees during the introduction of new technology
- following the promotion of an employee to a new job

For new and inexperienced employees it allows them to learn through their managers, and by observing peers during the performance of specific tasks, then trying to imitate their behaviour (Noe, 1999). The major advantage of this type lies in that a new employee can perform productive work and learn new skills at the same time. Furunes (2005) revealed that one-to-one training is by far the most popular – and seen as the most effective - way of upgrading employees' skills and knowledge in the Norwegian hospitality industry. Secondment is considered among on-the-job training methods, which allow the employees to move to another department, branch or subsidiary of a company to make them more efficient to perform their existing jobs through acquiring new knowledge and skills. This method can contribute in enhancing of learning and improving the employees' experience, if it is well-structured, with the involvement all of staff (Cole, 2002).

There are other types of on-the-job training listed by Gomez-Mejia et al. (2001), one of those types is cross-functional training. This technique allows the employees to work in more departments within the organisation. In other words, this type aims to train workers to perform various tasks in other departments. In some countries, such as Japan, team work is a very important strategy to perform most tasks in the organisation, Noe (1999, 2005) pointed out that most of organisations rely on team

training because they believe that productivity can be increased through team work. On-the-job training can be seen as an acceptable approach, which is adopted by many employers, because it is a good investment to time and money, if compared with 'off-the-job training (Noe, 1999). Nickson et al. (2002 cited Wang, 2008) stated that T&D programmes in the hospitality organisations emphasise skill development and learning through occupational work experience, and, therefore, 'on-the-job' training is heavily practised rather than 'off-the-job' training. The cause could be due to the nature of the work in the hospitality sector, where many of the functions depend on direct contact with customers.

### **3.6.2 Off-the-job training**

Off-the-job training includes in-house courses and those conducted outside the organisation. Organisations need an appropriately skilled workforce for maximum effectiveness, and many increasingly use in-house training and development programmes to meet this need (Barlow, 2006). The decision as to whether to opt for in-house or external courses is based on many factors centring on the availability of resources and balance between the available budget and training cost (Reid and Barrington 1999). This type helps trainees to acquire new skills and knowledge because they are away from their working environment and daily job pressures (Beardwell & Holden 1997; Cole, 2002).

There are many advantages from conducting training outside the organisation, as mentioned by Robinson (1988):

- it offers many opportunities in a low-risk environment
- it studies important issues in greater depth; this situation might not be available inside the organisation and in the midst of work pressures.

- it is an appropriate time for the trainees to learn new skills and knowledge in relaxed atmosphere
- it affords a better chance of holding trainees' attention, and improving morale and motivation among the participants for self-development.

Smith (2002) cites Hamilton (1990) and Harris et al, (1998), who suggested that external training afforded the opportunity to learn about practices in other organisations, i.e. enabling trainees to learn new skills and knowledge that might not be utilised in their workplace. This method is widely used by most organisations. The training programme may be conducted by full-time staff or by consultant trainers. The topics of training must be selected carefully to meet the training needs of employees.

Marchington and Wilkinson (2008) state that there was an increase in the amount of 'off-job training' in the UK between 1998 and 2004, as shown by the results of the [Workplace Employment Relations Survey \(WERS\)](#). However, despite the advantages above, Torrington and Hall (1991) pointed to disadvantages of this type of training, such as high cost, difficulty of simulating job problems, as well as it is more time consuming. Nevertheless, off-the-job training still prevalent in most Libyan organisations, such as oil sector (Aagnaia, 1996; El-Arbi, 2007), and in the hotel sector, despite serious shortages of qualified local instructors.

### **3.7 Transfer of training**

Transfer of training is a critical outcome of HRD (Yamnil & McLean, 2005), both organisations and employees can achieve their objectives if learning skills are transferred effectively to the workplace (Bhatti & Kaur, 2010). There is agreement among many authors (e.g. Hawley & Barnard, 2005; Tannenbaum & Yukl, 1992; Pineda, 2010), that the meaning of transfer is the extent of the ability of the trainees to

apply their acquired knowledge and skills from the training course to their jobs. One of the most striking features of the success of any T&D programme is the ability of a trainee to transfer the benefits of training to his/her place of work (Baldwin and Ford, 1988, Elangovan&Karakowsky, 1999; Kirkpatrick & Kirkpatrick, 2005;Tannenbaum& Yuki, 1992). However, Hawley and Barnard (2005) argue that the transfer of acquired knowledge and skills from T&D programmes to the workplace continues to be an area of concern for HRD practitioners and researchers. For example, Hawley and Barnard (2005) state that T&D programmes are often designed and delivered without connecting training back to the work environment. According to Stolovitch (2007), training transfer fails to occur for reasons such as:

- Poor selection of trainees.
- Lack of follow-up after training.
- Absence of an incentive system, which encourages trainees to apply new knowledge and skills.

According to Reid and Barrington (1999), the transfer of training from both the external and internal courses could be aided by managers creating a positive attitude towards the newly acquired skills on the trainee's return to the workplace.

Transfer of training to the work situation is often termed "learning transfer". Holton (2000) provides the following comprehensive set of training specific criteria in his

Learning Transfer System Inventory:

- Learner readiness – extent to which individuals are prepared to participate in training.

- Motivation to transfer – effort engaged in using new knowledge and skills at work.
- Positive personal outcomes – degree to which applying new knowledge skills leads to positive outcomes for the individual.
- Negative personal outcomes – extent to which applying new knowledge and skills at work will lead to negative outcomes for the trainee.
- Personal capacity for transfer – extent to which individuals have sufficient and energy in their work routines to make the changes required to apply the learning.
- Colleague support – extent to which work colleagues reinforce and help the trainee apply the learning.
- Supervisor support – extent to which supervisors and managers provide encouragement to learning application.
- Supervisor sanctions – extent to which trainees’ sense discouragement from supervisors and managers when learning applied.
- Perceived content validity – did trainees consider the training content to be relevant to the needs of the job?
- Transfer design – how far did training instructions and guidance match job requirements?
- Opportunity to use – how far were appropriate resources at the workplace provided to support the trainee on return to work?

What can be deduced from the discussion above is that the process of transfer of training to the workplace successfully requires the support and encouragement from many parties, such as trainers, participants, superiors and colleagues (Pineda, 2010; El-Arbi, 2007).

By reviewing the transfer of training and its importance in the investigation of the ability of trainees to apply the skills and knowledge gained from training to their workplace. This phase greatly assists the training providers and related organisations in the measurement of training outcomes, which actually did not appear in the ADDIE model, which was described as one of the most commonly models for systematic training. The ADDIE model is discussed in the next section.

### **3.8 Systematic training approach**

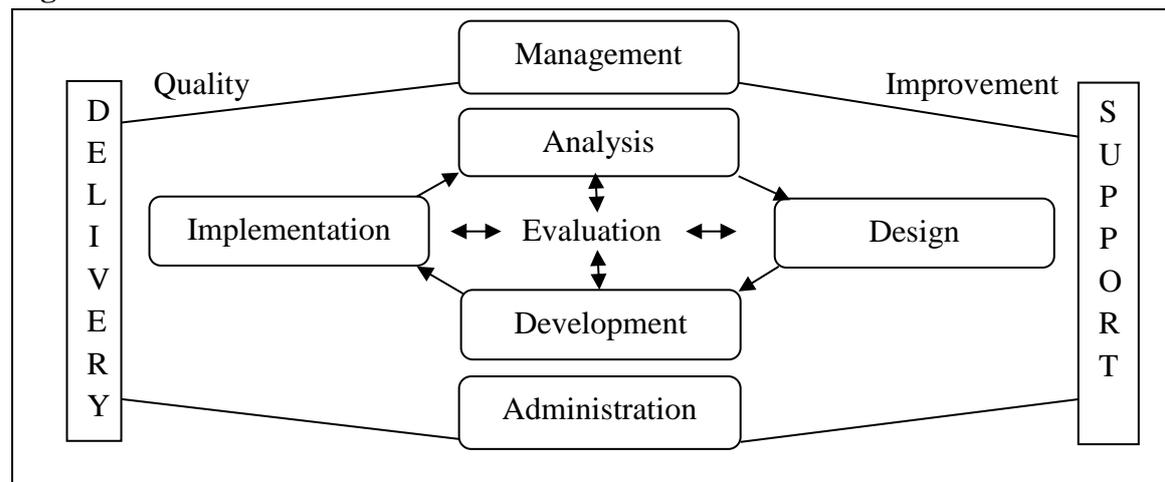
In the past four decades, some authors stated that T&D should be well-planned and systematic in order to achieve defined objectives (Campbell, 1971).The most widely used methodology for developing new systematic training programmes is often called Instructional Systems Design (ISD). ISD was developed by US military after the Second World War (Swanson & Holton, 2001).One of the most commonly used conceptual models for systematic training is the ADDIE model (Stone, 2005; Goldstein, 2001).

A recent study reveals that nearly 400 books and articles discussing ADDIE in the business area alone (Mayfield, 2011). Mayfield (2011) concludes that the ADDIE model is a valuable framework for developing all types of T&D programmes, irrespective of the organisational type or sector. The ADDIE model consists of five common phases: Analysis, Design, Development, Implementation, and Evaluation, which are abbreviated to ADDIE. Its goal is to increase the effectiveness and efficiency of education and training by fitting instruction to jobs that help prepare individuals to meet their work-performance requirements.

The ADDIE approach provides a systematic process for the determination of training needs, the design and development of training programmes and materials,

implementation of the programme, and the evaluation of the effectiveness of the training (Gagne, Wager, Gola& Keller, 2005).According to the most recent ADDIE model, analysis, design, development and implementation operate as a training cycle with evaluation a continuous process that takes its place at every stage, as shown in the following figure.

**Figure 3.2: Revised ADDIE model**



Source: Department of the US Air Force (2001, p.15), cited in Allen, 2006, p.438.

### 3.8.1 Phases of ADDIE model

As has been mentioned above, the ADDIE model consists of five phases:

- (1) Analysis phase: it requires analyses the job performance requirements and develops a task list, in order to compare them with the abilities, skills, and knowledge of the trainees.
- (2) Design phase: it introduces a detailed plan of instruction that includes selecting the instructional methods and media and determining the instructional strategies. In this phase also develop the instructional objectives and test and design the instruction.
- (3) Development phase: the student and instructor lesson materials are developed. The media selected in the previous phase are developed. A training

information management system should be installed in this phase. In this phase can correct any deficiencies that may be faced. Finally, finalize all training materials.

(4) Implementation phase: the actual system is ready to become operational in this phase. The activities of operational evaluation provide feedback from the field on the participant's performance.

(5) Evaluation phase: it is a continuous process that takes its place at every stage, and consists of:

- formative evaluation: conducts during the first two phases, while validation is conducted during the development phase.
- summative evaluation: focuses on validation in the development phase.
- operational evaluation: consists of periodic internal and external evaluation of the operational system during the third phase.

Furthermore, the figure shows that the system functions and ADDIE phases embedded within the quality improvement process.

### **3.8.2 Characteristics of ADDIE model**

The ADDIE model has a number of specific characteristics which are identified in the following points.

- Evaluation is the “centrepiece” of the all ADDIE's phases.
- ADDIE is a continuous process which allows entering or re-entering the variety of phases, as necessary, to develop or update instruction.
- All the ADDIE activities are dependent on the system functions.
- Teamwork is required between personnel who perform system functions.

- All the ADDIE activities and system functions focus on continuous quality improvements.
- The ADDIE model takes into account the aptitudes, capabilities and attitudes of the target participants.

Despite these characteristics, using the model does not guarantee successful outcomes. For example, Allen (2006) concluded that most training sponsored by organisations, 50 years after the advent of ADDIE, still have difficulty verifying participant expertise at the end of training.

It could be argued in the conclusion that the systematic training approach is used frequently in Western countries (Stone, 2005), while it has been used more recently in developing countries. For example, it was used by Al-Tarawneh (2005) to explore current practices of management training and development in Jordanian banking sector. However, in Saudi Arabia, it was used by Albahussain (2000) to investigate the nature and extent of training and development in the Saudi private sector.

Having introduced a brief description of a systematic training approach through the ADDIE mode, further explanation for these phases will be provided in section 3.9.

### **3.9 Identification of training needs**

The training process should be seen as a cyclical process for identifying and suitably responding to T&D needs (Pilbeam&Corbridge, 2002) which needs to be managed continuously (Wills, 1994). Identifying training needs is the first phase of the systematic training cycle and almost all writers consider it should be undertaken before formulating any T&D programme. Information on training needs is a fundamental step for organisations in order to ensure that a T&D programme will be effective to meet the goals and requirements of the organisation (Tregaskis&

Brewster, 1998; Robinson, 1988; Armstrong, 2003; Buckley & Caple, 2004, 2009). Organisations that fail to implement this process, often fail in achieving their training objectives or gaining satisfactory results.

According to Tanke (2001) the needs assessment seeks to identify “needs” or “gaps” between what is currently in place in a hotel’s performance, and what is required in future. In trying to describe this gap, Tanke says the gap might include several forms, as follows:

- A difference between the expectations of the company and what is actually happening.
- A difference in job performance, between what is expected and what is happening.
- A difference between the skills required of human resources and the skills that they actually have.

The hospitality industry is no different to other sectors: an analysis of training needs consists of three basic elements: the needs of the organisation, the requirements of the job, and the knowledge and skill level of the trainee. Forrest (1990) writing on training in the hospitality sector from a US perspective believed that many training programmes are well-planned, but sometimes they are ineffective when addressed to the wrong people or to those who will not remain with the organisation long enough to make a useful contribution. Consequently, identifying training needs is a critical process when selecting people for a specific training programme. Often, this process ensures that these people have a desire to help the organisation achieve its objectives (Forrest, 1990). Among the reasons for failure to prepare adequately for the training programmes, Forrest (1990) refers to common mistakes, which are made by managers

who are responsible for implementing these programmes. Many managers know about performing most of the skills in their organisations, as well as how to teach those skills to others. Notwithstanding this, there is a common misconception among them about preparing successful training programmes. To sum up, Forrest suggests to ensure successful training, smart managers should learn as much as they can about sound preparation for training programmes and how people learn.

Unfortunately, no studies have been conducted in Libya to evaluate training or determine how training needs are assessed in the hotel industry. However, Agnaia (1996) did that in the oil industry. The findings of his study revealed that those companies depended on four ways to choose employees to attend a training programme: (a) reviewing job performance, which was the most common way adopted by 50% of those firms, (b) direction from the superiors (16.7%), (c) employees' application (8.3%), and (d) discussion with the training manager (25%). However, according to Maihub (1992, cited in Agnaia, 1996), the Libyan organisations suffer from unsystematic training approaches, and some employees are selected for a training programme as a reward for long service. He commented that the main reason for these problems lies in training programmes are not based on the identification of training needs, as well as some restrictions on the training programmes as a result of the impact of economic, political and social factors.

### **3.10 Planning, designing and delivering training**

It is important for planning and designing an effective T&D programme to understand some issues, such as learning theories, which include reinforcement theory, social learning theory, goal setting theory, need theories, and expectancy theory (Goldstein, 2001; Noe, 2008), and the individual's preferred learning styles to ensure the selection

of appropriate methods, content, time, facilities and so on (Goldstein, 2001; Stone, 2005; Noe, 2008).

What individuals need to learn, and how they learn, giving a brief overview on learning theories could be beneficial.

- Reinforcement theory: the trainers need to link positive and negative results with learners' acquiring knowledge and change in behaviour. Noe (2008) suggests that if trainers can provide the content of a training programme successfully, many learners can benefit from attending training.
- Social learning theory: individuals can learn by observing others who are familiar.
- Goal setting theory: learning can be facilitated by providing trainees with specific challenging goals and objectives (Goldstein, 2001).
- Need theories: the content of training programmes should meet the specific needs of trainees, in order to motivate them to learn.
- Expectancy theory: some outcomes (e.g. money or promotion) have potential value, due to the fact that they are instrumental in allowing an individual to achieve other results (Goldstein, 2001).

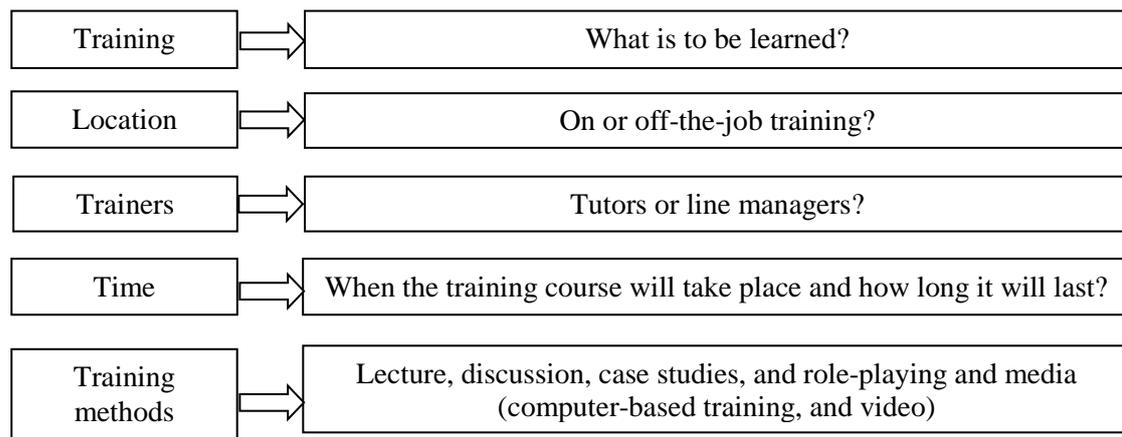
Having identified and analysed the training needs of the target group (those who are in need of training); the training needs to be well-planned and designed and consistent with training objectives (Riley, 1996). A successful training programme will meet the organisation's objectives, as well as the real needs of trainees, and enhance the knowledge and skills of all trainees (Tanke, 2001). It will ideally be based upon a training emanating from the needs assessment and that describes how the trainer

intends to raise performance levels through the learning process. It depicts in general the total T&D programme that will be developed and implemented to meet an organisation's needs (Forrest, 1990). When designing a T&D programme, there are four principles of T&D that should be considered, as described by Chapados, Rentfrow and Hochheiser (1987, p.64-65):

- *“Make the training content relevant to the trainee.*
- *Make training objectives congruent with the work tasks you're trying to effect.*
- *Make training event design systematic and be sure it relates directly to the training objectives.*
- *Make training delivery respond to trainees' frames of reference”.*

As in the analysis step, a great deal of information is required, particularly with new programmes. This stage usually takes plenty of time to ensure the success of T&D. Random planning and poor designing of any T&D programme often leads to wasted time, effort and money. Pont (1995) commented that, 'Failing to plan is planning to fail'. The time invested in good planning and designing will reap benefits in the delivery and evaluation stages of the training cycle (Pont, 1995; Riley, 1996). Decisions of design and delivery of training should include consideration of the following key elements (Pilbeam&Corbridge, 2002):

**Figure 3.3: The key elements of designing and delivering of training**



Source: Figure synthesized from Pilbeam&Corbridge (2002).

Moreover, Boella (2000) summarises the main principles, which should be known and understood by all concerned with training in order to design and deliver effective training programmes:

- Training can only be successful if it is recognised that learning is a voluntary process, and people learn at different rates.
- Training should be given in short subject-specific courses, rather than offered over a long term.
- The effective participation of trainees in each training course is essential.
- Training must take full advantage of various training techniques rather than focusing on only one type, such as the sense of hearing.
- The training objectives must be clear and consistent with the needs of trainees.
- Training should ensure confidence-building and the motivation of trainees, for example, using words of praise not censure.

Accordingly, a good assessment and design of the T&D programme are essential; however, these are not sufficient on their own for success (Stone, 2005).

In the conclusion of this section, many difficulties can face training in its different phases, such as lack of qualified and skilled trainers, lack of information if there is no existing system for recording it, lack of adequate budget for training, as well as the lack of cooperation between parties responsible for the training activity. In this context, for example, Al-Khayyat (1998) stated that, succeeding in the implementation phase requires a high level of coordination between the parties of the training system. In addition, according to Armstrong (2003), in order to ensure that training programmes proceed according to the plan and within the agreed budget, it should be evaluated continuously. Thus, the next section reviews the final phase of the training cycle.

### **3.10.1 Training methods**

When a T&D programme has been selected as the most appropriate strategy, there are a number of training methods that can be used (Buckley & Caple, 2009). Although there are many techniques and methods of training which aim to provide the trainees with new skills, knowledge, and improved the current behaviour and attitudes, these methods should be selected carefully (in the sense of using the appropriate methods for the needs of a person or group) to avoid time wasting, money and effort. Each method uses for achieving a specific purpose, for instance, the development of knowledge could be through lectures, while new skills and behaviour can be improved by using the case studies and role plays. Moreover, some of these methods according to Agnaia (1996) can be used as off-the-job training (e.g. lectures, case studies, discussion, conferences, business games, and role playing), and while others can be used on-the-job training (e.g. orientation and job rotation, job instruction, and coaching).

Each method has specific advantages and disadvantages, thus for a fuller explanation of these methods and their advantages and disadvantages are in Table 3.2.

**Table 3.2: Training methods - Advantages and disadvantages**

<b>Methods</b>	<b>Definition</b>	<b>Advantages</b>	<b>Disadvantages</b>
Lecture	Presentations to groups, usually supported by visual aids in which information about policies, practices and procedures, are described and explained to the trainees.	The trainer has complete control over content and sequence in which the material is presented. Large numbers of trainees can be catered for.	Not appropriate method to teach skills. Lack of interaction between trainer and trainees.
Discussion	A group activity usually led by the trainer in which the participants examine suggestions, attitudes, ideas and solutions to problems.	Opportunity for individuals to express opinions and to listen to the views of others. Experience and knowledge of trainees can be drawn out.	Can be time-consuming. To be effective, no more than 12 should be allowed to participate.
Role-playing	The presentation of job activities which as near as is practicable replicate the essential features of the real situation. Trainees are required to use equipment, follow procedures and to practice as if they were performing the job for real.	Introduces an element of realism. Involves high level of activity which arouses interest and motivates trainee, thus it can draw upon the experience of the trainees.	Can be time-consuming. Can be very expensive depending on what resources are required. High level of skill required by trainer to direct, manage and control the session.
Case study	Solving problems identified scenarios	Capacities of the trainees to solve problems can be developed to make the right decision.	It is not appropriate for a large number of participants.
Practical training	The focus on work practices (usually in the workplace), in order to enhance the capacities and skills of the trainee to perform a specific task.	Opportunity for trainees to practice in the working environment, under the control and supervision of trainer.	It depends heavily on the readiness of trainees as well as on the ability and skills of a trainer in performing the task.

Source: Table synthesized from Hackett, 2003; Foot and Hook, 2008; Noe, 2005; Gilley et al., 2002; Buckley & Caple, 2009; Perdue, Ninemeier & Woods, 2002)

Perdue et al. (2002, p.114) state that:

*Training employees to do their jobs effectively is one of the most important tasks undertaken by a hospitality manager. However, very little has been written about the training methods managers prefer to use to attain different training objectives.*

In addition to the training methods above, there are other types used in the hospitality industry such as those applied by Perdue et al. (2002). These methods were: first, 'one-to-one training' which means a discussion with a small group or individual, second, 'sensitivity training' which is confrontation and direct feedback by others (usually peers) in a small group setting, third, 'games' which is computerized or person-to-person interaction, finally, 'video conference' which means Video (and audio) teleconferencing.

The study's findings of Buick and Muthu (1997) on 113 hotels in Scotland found that the hotels use the 'on-the-job' training. Training methods most frequently used by the selected hotels were demonstration (79.4%), followed by role playing (68.3%).

In the Libyan context, El-Arbi (2007) found that the most commonly used training methods across Libyan companies, were theoretical classes. Many reasons could be behind this finding, one of them came in Twati and Gammack's comment (2006), who stated Libya, has one of the lowest percentages of internet users. Whereas, Maihub (2007, cited in Elfazani, 2011) criticised 'classroom training' by saying "It was difficult to find benefit standards can be used to compare the training activities in Libyan organisations, because most of them use the same approach (classroom training) in training their employees".

According to the various training methods, there are many criteria that should be taken into consideration when selecting the appropriate method, they include: the nature of trainees work and their scientific levels, training material, the number of participants on the training

courses, timing and place for each method of training, duration of training programme, and finally costs of using each method of training.

What can be concluded is that organisations need to be careful when deciding training methods because what may be appropriate for one organisation, employee, or training programme may not be for another (Acton & Golden, 2003).

It could be argued that the choice of training method should be in accordance with the actual training needs of the trainees in order to achieve the objectives of the training programme through evaluation process, which is discussed in the following section.

### **3.11 Evaluation of training**

The final logical stage in the training process is to find out how effective the training has been (Buckley & Caple, 2009). There is general agreement that a key aim of conducting a training evaluation process lies in identifying the value of training through achieved results from any training course (e.g. Williams, 1976; Brinkerhoff, 1981; Carnevale & Schutz, 1990; Sackett & Mullen, 1993; Goldstein, 2001; Al-Athari & Zairi, 2002; Buckley & Caple, 2009). According to Kirkpatrick and Kirkpatrick (2005, p.3), "The reason for evaluation is to determine the effectiveness of a training programme". There is less agreement as to when evaluation should be conducted and what should be covered. Sackett and Mullen (1993) suggest that training evaluation is only about answering two key questions: one refers to what extent changes in an individual's performance have occurred as an outcome of the training, whereas the other question sheds light on the attainment of a specified level of trainee's performance. They represent a traditional perspective in which, according to Taylor, O'Driscoll and Binning (1998), training evaluation has been seen as a distinct process from training needs analysis and considered only at the end of the training cycle.

There are other perspectives. Bramley (1996) defines evaluation of training in broad terms “as a process of gathering information with which to make decisions about training activities” (Bramley, 1996, p.5). Brinkerhoff (1981, p.66) in more specific terms considered that:

*Evaluation is an important part of any training and development effort. It is more than an assessment of outcomes or effects. Evaluation is systematic inquiry into training contexts, needs, plans, operation and effects. It should help collect information to decide what is needed, what is working and how to improve it and what has happened as a result.*

As already seen in the ADDIE model, the Bramley (1996) and Brinkerhoff (1981) perspectives can be further developed by seeing evaluation as a central linking component for each stage of the training cycle.

In terms of what should be covered the Kirkpatrick model first introduced in 1959 is known as a workable and popular approach in the evaluation of training outcomes. It consists of four-levels: reaction, learning, behaviour, and result (Alliger&Janak, 1989; Abernathy, 1999; Goldstein, 2001; Putra, 2003).

- Reaction - level one - addresses what the trainee thought and felt about the training.
- Learning – level two - considers the change in knowledge or capability of the trainee as a result of attending a programme.
- Behaviour - level three - looks into how effectively learning from the programme is translated into behaviour change at the workplace.
- Results – level four - is concerned with the impact of training programmes on the business results.

Although the four levels of Kirkpatrick are widely used, however, there are indicators that evaluation process is limited to reaction sheets and participant testing (i.e. the first level of

Kirkpatrick's model) without proper revision of training materials based on evaluation results (Bernthal, 1995; Axtell, Maitlis&Yearta, 1997).

The evaluation plan has to be accepted by people involved in the evaluation, from participants to managers, because the most common beneficiary when conducting and developing evaluation process is the organisation as a whole, including all its staff (Pineda, 2010). Therefore, organisations need to learn whether training actually improves organisational effectiveness. It is considered one of the reasons for the importance of conducting evaluation of training programmes (Putra, 2003).

According to Al-Athari and Zairi (2002), there are a number of well-known evaluation instruments that can be used to gather necessary data. However, the purpose and strategy of the evaluation process will govern what evaluation tools are most appropriate. Of the several tools that have been used in evaluating training include: tests, questionnaires, interviews, observations and performance records are the most common. Al-Khayyat (1998) asserts that an organisation should develop an evaluation process and use tools that appropriately detects deficiencies. For instance, he suggests some related questions that should be included in the level one reaction questionnaire given to the trainee at the end of the training programme.

These questions might be such as:

- To what extent is the content of the programme related to your job?
- To what extent did the programme meet your actual training needs?
- What topics of the programme were irrelevant to your job? (Al-Khayyat, 1998, p.26).

Evaluation still occupies a major place of interest of senior consultants in the field of training if only as a means to justify the investment in training (Hashim, 2001; Sarah, 1994). In order

to maximise the benefits of any training programme in the hotel sector or other sectors training evaluation should be carried out.

Nevertheless there is evidence that this process is often missing or inconsistent and where carried out rarely extends beyond Kirkpatrick's levels one and two. Berge (2008) asserts that evaluation training is a difficult process. This difficulty is due to the lack of valid instruments and workable models (Pineda, 2010). Berge (2008) considers that one of the most important reasons for this is the fact that most managers pay more attention to increasing performance and not necessarily to increasing learning. Abernathy (1999) states that the evaluation of training is so difficult to do because: "training programmes fail to achieve their objectives in many cases." He wonders why the training fails. The reason is largely a lack of planning, budget as well as sponsorship, or because these programmes are conducted for the wrong reasons.

Evaluation of training provides useful feedback to training managers, and is considered as a key process in the systematic approach to training (Goran, Bruno, Blaz&Gozdana, 2008). However, there are indicators that evaluation activities are limited to reaction sheets and participant testing without proper revision of training materials based on evaluation results (Baldwin & Ford, 1988; Bernthal, 1995).

It is generally accepted that several barriers facing training evaluation and most lie in the level of top management that are responsible for the preparation of training strategies, policies and plans. Therefore, there is a need to improve knowledge and skills for training managers, so as to enable them to know how to conduct the evaluation process as desired. They also should be aware that this process must be an integral part of any policy and training plan. At the same time, trainers must be aware of diverse evaluation methods in order to choose an appropriate method, which is consistent with the nature of each programme.

### 3.11.1 Methods of evaluation

According to Al-Athari and Zairi (2002), there are a number of well-known evaluation instruments that can be used to gather necessary data. However, the purpose and strategy of the evaluation process will govern what evaluation methods are most appropriate. Of the several methods that have been used in evaluating training include: tests, questionnaires, interviews, observations and performance records are the most common. Evaluation methods are summarised in Table 3.3, as introduced by Beardwell and Holden, (1997).

**Table 3.3: Evaluation methods**

<b>Evaluation methods</b>	<b>Description</b>
Questionnaires (feedback forms or happy sheets)	They are a common way of eliciting trainees' responses to training programmes.
Tests or examinations	They are common on formal training programmes which provide a certificate at the end of a training course.
Projects	They are initially seen as learning methods but they can also provide valuable information to trainers.
Structured exercises and case studies	They are opportunities to apply learned skills and knowledge under the observation of trainers and evaluators.
Trainers reports	It is important to have the opinions of those who deliver the training. This gives a valuable assessment from a different perspective.
Interviews of trainees	They are after the course period. These can be informal or formal, individual or group or by telephone.
Observation	Observation of training programmes by those devising training policies and plans in the training department is very useful and information from these observations can be compared with trainees' responses.
Participation and discussion	The use of this method is during training. It must be facilitated by people who are adept at interpreting responses.
Appraisal	It is an important method of evaluation and has the advantage that the line manager and trainee can mutually assess the training undergone in terms of performance and employee development.

Source: Beardwell & Holden, 1997, p.394

Addition to the evaluation methods mentioned in the table above, there is another method depends on the trainees' views. This method is 'a written report' about the T&D programme prepared by the trainees after they returned to their workplace. The findings of Agnaia's study (1996) revealed that this method was the most common for following up trainees in the two oil companies in Libya 'NOCs and OCs'. The method was used by 70% of the former company, while 100% of the latter company. He commented that the method was used by both companies may because it is easy to use, as well as not costly.

The researcher believes that 'a written report' has advantages and disadvantages. Its advantages represents in showing the trainees' notes and suggestions for developments and changes in future programmes, but it is inadequate method to show whether the trainee is capable of performing better in his/her job or not.

In addition, Tables 3.3 shows a number of evaluation methods that can be employed by a trainer, separately or in combination. For example, 'questionnaires' or 'happy sheets' are a common way of eliciting trainees' responses to training programmes. It can be employed to evaluate the levels of participants, and help the trainer to answer most of the questions of interest. Usually, it is recommended that a questionnaire should be brief and simple to obtain higher response rates. Besides the questionnaire the trainer can use the interview with the appropriate parties to obtain details not captured through the questionnaire. As Bramley (2003) stated that this is particularly important if attention is being directed to exploring the degree of transfer of training to the workplace.

In 1997, ASTD reported 94% of 300 American organisations used a questionnaire to evaluate their training programmes. These findings are similar to views of Birdi (2005), who believes that post-training survey is usually used to evaluate the effectiveness of training. Al-Khayyat (1998) asserts that an organisation should develop an evaluation process and use methods

that appropriately detects deficiencies. For instance, he suggests some related questions that should be included in the level one reaction questionnaire given to the trainee at the end of the training programme. These questions might be such as:

- To what extent is the content of the programme related to your job?
- To what extent did the programme meet your actual training needs?
- What topics of the programme were irrelevant to your job? (Al-Khayyat, 1998, p.26).

Muna (1987 cited in Agnaia, 1996), Arab organisations lack the reliable information that is used for evaluation process, which makes it difficult to follow up and evaluate T&D programmes accurately.

What can be concluded by reviewing this section is that evaluation methods can be either qualitative (e.g., interviews, participation and discussion, case studies, and observation) or quantitative (e.g., questionnaires, and tests or examinations). Training evaluation is a complex task, as has been mentioned in the previous section thus, organisations should take such evaluation methods seriously, and it is recommended that a combination of these approaches be used. Furthermore, it is necessary to elicit the responses from the trainees and the trainers, and other involved in the assessment process, such as training department, and then compare and contrast the responses for correlations. In short, a result of the evaluation is supposed to answer the question: “What happened to the skills and knowledge, attitudes and behaviour of the target group of trainees?”

### **3.12 Research context**

The following sections review training in contexts relevant to this study. The first section, reviews of training in the hotel industry globally, while the second section gives overview on developing countries, and the final section presents training in Arab countries and Libya.

### **3.12.1 Training in the hotel industry globally**

According to Yang and Cherry (2008), contemporary literature gives a considerable attention to three HRM issues as being critical in the hospitality industry world-wide, whether currently or in the future. They are:

- T&D
- Staff recruitment and selection
- Service quality

Many authors (e. g. Wood, 1997; Lucas, 2002) have remarked that the HRM in hotels is still generally underdeveloped and lacking in sophistication and the empirical data related to this industry seem inadequate. Enz and Sigauw (2000, p.48) argue that “no hotel can have an excellent operation without excellent employees and that requires excellent human resource practices.” This perception of underdevelopment equally applies to T&D. The hospitality industry has long been identified as lacking culture and sophistication in terms of employee T&D (Boella, 2000; Poulston, 2008). Putra (2003, p.49) states that “hospitality becomes more widespread and one of the biggest human resource roles in the hotel sector is to ensure success with training programmes provided for employees particularly in the area of training transfer to the workplace”.

There are a number of conflicting perspectives on the status of T&D across the sector. This is sometimes explained by the dates of the publication. Tanke (1990) views T&D as a neglected function in the hospitality sector as a whole, because many of the hospitality organisations have not paid adequate attention to well-planned, orientation and training programmes. Esichaikul (1996) cited Worsfold and Jameson (1991) in arguing that HRM in the hospitality sector needs to be redirected from the recruitment of employees to the training

and development of the existing workforce, with more focus on the quality rather than quantity of staff.

Although the T&D programmes play a vital role in improving staff's performance within various organisations, many authors continue to advance arguments for the lack of employee training in the hospitality sector (Poulston, 2008; Naama et al. 2008; Dains, 2006; Kassem, 2008), and low skills employment (Jayawardena, 2001; Crick & Spencer, 2011). In the same context, Furunes (2005) cites Jakobsen, Dirdal, Fossum and Gautesen (2002), and Mykletun, Lorentzen and Mykletun (2000), who point out that the hospitality industry has one of the lowest training rates of any industry, and thus (Maxwell, Watson & Quail, 2004) has a poor reputation for training. This problem is one of the most reasons behind staff turnover in hotels (Lashley& Best, 2002), although it is widely accepted in the hospitality sector that training is beneficial to business performance (Thomas & Long, 2001). For example, Poulston (2008) suggests that if employees were better trained they would stay longer, which in turn; leads to (Kalargyrou& Woods, 2011) decrease the rate of turnover.

Although the concept of training is taken on board by many managers, it often does not become a reality (Wilson at el., 1998). They cite Go et al. (1996), who likewise add that there are very few managers in the hospitality organisations who put training ideas into practice. Consequently, T&D strategy plays lesser roles within the hospitality sector than other sectors. Higher training costs are likely to be one of the constraints faced by the hospitality industry, and according to (Kalargyrou& Woods, 2011) these costs can be even more staggering in the hospitality sector.

Despite the benefits of T&D which are mentioned in section (3.5.2), Miller et al. (2002) state that not everyone in the industry sees training as an investment. For example, they point out

that many managers of small enterprises consider training an exercise in futility because, they say:

- Training takes more time than it is worth.
- Staff turnover is not reduced.
- People are not interested in further training.
- Training should not be necessary.

Given the first issue mentioned above, the study's findings of Buick and Muthu (1997) on 113 hotels in Scotland found that managers in the selected hotels face numerous problems in regard to employee T&D. The most frequently encountered problem was the lack of time.

Therefore, it is hard to convince these people that training is worth the investment (Miller et al., 2002). At the same time, Macky and Johnson (2000) suggest another reason for managers to neglect T&D is that "training results in skilled employees equipped and motivated to seek better employment elsewhere" (cited by Furunes, 2005, p.232).

Boella (2000, p.115) believed that this deficit is due to the following reasons:

- Many proprietors and managers have had no formal training themselves and are unaware of the benefits of training
- Many employers are concerned with immediate operational problems, and as such do not have time to plan ahead
- Many hospitality businesses are under-capitalized and cannot afford this investment
- Many believe it is the responsibility of others, such as colleges, to provide them with trained staff.

In many developing countries, T&D in the field of tourism and hospitality is still limited, while in developed countries such as the United Kingdom and the United States, training in this industry is constantly evolving, as a result of its service-intensive nature and focus on

providing a high level of service quality. Moreover, in the British hotel industry, the picture on T&D appears somewhat brighter, despite apparent weaknesses in the transfer of needs identified at appraisal into a master plan (McGunnigle & Jameson, 2000).

Some of those who view staff training in the hospitality industry becoming increasingly more effective comment that the generally high labour turnover still reduces the effectiveness of the training effort (Bruce, 2006; Becton & Graetz, 2001). Riley (1996) suggests that the training objectives of any organisation should be to improve performance, obtain better employee retention, shorten the length of training time, and facilitate change. However, Wilson et al. (1998) point out that there is only limited evidence of these objectives within hospitality organisations.

Having discussed T&D in the hotel sector globally, it could be argued that in spite of the rapid changes and developments are happening in the hospitality industry, many questions remain. For example, the extent to which an emphasis on training and development programmes have become a general feature of the hotel industry remains unclear.

### **3.12.2 Training in the hotel sector in developing countries**

My literature search indicates that the paucity of information concerning the training issue in developing countries raised by Tan and Batra (1996) is still apparent. They also argued that “In many developing countries, policymakers make critical resource allocation decisions and design education and training policies in the absence of reliable training data” (Tan & Batra, 1996, p.2).

A number of studies have focused on specific national needs for T&D in the tourism industry. For example, a study conducted on the tourism sector in Mexico by Pizam and Tesone (2005) recommends that the Mexican tourism industry should provide its tourism training and educational institutions with more opportunities for internships and practical training. In

addition, the government tourism organisations in Mexico recommend increasing the number of external tourism training and educational institutions, particularly in regions where such institutions are presently non-existent. In the same context, other studies have focused on the relationship between tourism sector and educational institutions, Manyara and Jones (2005), focus on the case of Kenya that, there is a need for co-operation between the Kenyan tourism sector and educational institutions, especially higher education. They discuss how this would help the sector in the optimal use of knowledge and technology transfer.

Globally, the tourism and hospitality sector faces a problem in developing countries due to the lack of skills training, education and structured training programmes. Jayawardena (2001) states that lower skill levels of the hotel employees are common in many developing countries. This is in contrast to developed countries who face problems arising from labour availability. In other words, “demand for labour exceeds supply, in terms of quantity in developed countries and quality in developing countries” (Esichaikul& Baum, 1998, p.359).

In addition to the problems mentioned above, some developing countries suffer from qualified and trained managers. In the Asian context, for example, Avcikurt’s (2003) study findings indicate that Turkish small and medium-sized hotel enterprises have a lack of trained managers. Additionally, employees in these enterprises at all levels often lack professional training, which is a cause of poor quality of service and lower productivity. The high rates of staff turnover are a significant problem faces the hotel industry that has attracted many researchers’ attention. Zhang and Wu (2004) stated that high staff turnover rates constitute one of the key issues among HR challenges facing the hotel industry in China.

According to Esichaikul (1996), Thailand has a problem with the quality of the existing education and training programmes, which, in turn, has led to a lack of trained employees in the Thai tourism industry, especially at the middle managerial level. He recommends that the

Thai government should play a catalytic role between the industry and education/training institutes in HRD for the tourism sector, because the private sector is not able to provide full support by itself. Furthermore, the government should help and support tourism institutions of education and training to increase the quantity and the quality of personnel in the tourism sector with an extended budget for tourism education and training. The study of Saibang and Schwindt (1998), regarding the need for employee training in Thailand hotels, showed that over 75 per cent of the respondents linked customer complaints with the fact that workers had not been properly trained. The respondents described the benefits of training as:

- Well-trained employees would be more skilful and do a more efficient job.
- Intensive training courses before employees started working would reduce the mistakes since trained employees would know how to perform their job very well.
- Training could help employees control their emotions better while providing customers with the best service and treating them well (p.208-209).

According to a recent study in Mauritius, generally, the country suffers from uncommitted managers and inadequate funding; therefore the future of training is not very bright (Kamoche, Debrah, Horwitz&Muuka, 2004). There is, however, the Mauritius hotel school under the umbrella of the Industrial and Vocational Training Board (IVTB) which has contributed to create competent employees for the hotel sector. The study in passing mentions that the IVTB is probably the only training institution in the country. However the presence of training programmes is no guarantee of success. Jithendran and Baum (2000) in their study into Indian tourism suggest that training providers tended to deliver courses in areas where they had skills, rather than in what the market required. An early Chinese study found that most educational institutions in the hospitality sector suffer from limited experience, because these institutions generally adopt a theoretical curriculum without paying adequate attention

to improving skills, and as a result, most graduates of these institutions lack practical experience before entering the industry as workers (Zhou, 1991).

Some features of the future of the hotel industry, specifically in developing countries were suggested by Pine in 1992, who stated that:

*Hotels of the future are predicted to become more sophisticated and complex in their service provision and in their use of technologically advanced equipment and operating systems. This will exacerbate the gap which already exists between the basic understanding of the hotel environment by its potential workforce in developing countries, and will place an even greater emphasis on the need for adequate education and training to be available*

(Pine, 1992, p. 21)

### **3.12.3 Training in Arab countries**

#### **3.12.3.1 General overview**

As mentioned in section (3.2.1), Knowledge is an increasingly important asset for most organisations (Handy, 2008), where T&D is one of important tools to obtaining knowledge and skills. Additional to this, in most Arab countries, the key problem was not just in the training of personnel but also in a lack of knowledge (NHRD, 2003).

In case of Libya, T&D and education are a priority in shifting the country from a culture of consumption to one of production, and this change requires a move to a knowledge-based economy, for which technical support is needed from the outside world (Patterson, 2007). “The intention is to give the Libyan workforce expertise and an incentive to produce, rather than to consume; the core of this is to change the mind-set through education” (Patterson, 2007, p.4).

Overall, what can conclude from the discussion above that is the evidence highlights the importance of the need for more skilled and trained employees from the local populace in most Arab countries.

### **3.12.3.2 Hospitality sector training in Arab countries**

In some developing countries and most Arab countries, specifically the Middle East, there is a little attention has been given to HRD and human capital investment (Ozbilgin& Healy, 2003). Libya is no exception. The problems faced by the hospitality sector that are discussed in the two previous sections are quite often similar in many Arab countries. According to Goldsmith and Zahari (1994), Saudi Arabia and Kuwait, have tended to employ foreign workers in their hospitality sector as a solution to the inability of the industry to meet international standards and provide high quality services. This was largely due to the inadequate experience of most of the hospitality institutions. Zhou (1991) added that many graduates lack practical experience before they enter the industry as employees.

Moreover, the majority of employees in the Saudi hospitality sector are from different countries because they are more skilled and qualified than the local population as well as are able to speak foreign languages. This is due to a poor image of the hospitality careers within the Saudi society, who prefer to working in other sectors, such as oil sector (Wilkins, 2001). According to Sadi and Henderson (2005), approximately three million expatriates work in the Saudi tourism industry, the majority whom are earners low-wage came from Arab countries such as Egypt, Sudan and Yemen. Others were from different nations such as Sri Lanka, Bangladesh, Indonesia, India, and Pakistan.

Sadi and Henderson (2005) added that the total number of hotels in Saudi Arabia was 7,068; only 16% of hotel staff members were from national employment, who were mainly employed in senior positions.

Surprisingly enough, the survey of 2005 revealed that the United Arab Emirates has a population of 4.1 million; the highest proportion (80%) are expatriates (Grant et al., 2007). Therefore, in Dubai, for example, the Department of Tourism and Commerce Marketing provided many training programmes to increase the number of the United Arab Emirates nationals in the hospitality industry. These programmes include English language, core hospitality industry workplace skills, and team skills workshops. Thus, the number of the UAE nationals working in the hotel sector increased from 15 in 2002 to 723 in 2008 (AME Info, 2008).

The situation in Libya is not much different because it also still relies on foreign labour to perform several jobs. This trend prevails in hospitality organisations, due to a lack of qualified and skilled national manpower. In 2005, a statistic was issued by the General Board of Tourism and Traditional Industries (GBTTI, 2008) in Libya, which revealed that foreign workers in hotels represented around 47% of the staff. In 2006, the rate of foreign workers in hotels dropped to 32%, while it increased in cafes and restaurants, up to 70% (GBTTI, 2009).

What seems to be clear from the section above is that there is a need to create a suitable environment to attract qualified national people, especially new graduates for working in the hospitality industry, with special focus on train and develop the current workforce.

### **3.13 Women's participation in the hospitality industry**

The role and participation of women in the work force in Libya differs greatly from the participation rates in more developed economies. This difference is further exaggerated where the culture is not dictated by religious practice or tradition. These differences show up particularly vividly for those who work in the hospitality industry. For example of the two million people working in the UK hospitality, leisure, travel and tourism sector, 56%, were women (People 1st, 2010).

Similarly, in the past fifteen years, Purcell’s (1996) study revealed that 60% of people employed in the hotel trade and the tourist accommodation were female, as shown in Table 3.4.

**Table 3.4: The gendering of employment in accommodation and catering**

Accommodation or catering activities (Total jobs = 1,077,600)	Male	Female
Hotel trade and other tourist accommodation	40%	60%
Restaurants, café, etc.	41.2%	58.8%
Public houses and bars	32.5%	67.5%
Night-clubs	39.8%	60.2%

Source: Adapted from Purcell (1996, p.18)

Doherty (2004) contends that female managers in the hospitality area are well represented in this industry. However, Li and Leung’s (2001) study on the Singapore and Hong Kong hotels found that only three of the managers of 72 hotels sampled in Hong Kong and two out of 77 managers in Singapore were female. This means that men are more representative of high positions in the hospitality industry (Pinara, McCuddy, Birkanb&Kozakc, 2011); they believe that “part of the reason for this disparity may be that female employees may interrupt their working lives due to preferences for marriage and caring for children (p.73)”.

In the Arabic context, in her study on female managers in Egypt, Kattara (2005) found that the total number of hotel managers was 1,161; only 13.2% of them were female, and 86.8% were males. Kattara (2005) believes that decrease in the proportion of females was due to several reasons, most important of the dominant Arabic cultures. This is largely based on several factors, such as Islamic religion and Arabic traditions, as well as some of the principles prevailing among the Arab communities, for example: “work is for men and home is for women” (Ibrahim, 2004).

When looking into the Arabic context more closely, one can easily find that, familial obligations take priority for women over any other thing. Ibrahim (2004) asserts that the main functions of women in Arab societies are taking care of their husbands, maintaining households, raising children. In addition, often, women cannot work unless take permission from their husbands or male guardians if they are unmarried. This situation was largely similar in the Asian context, for example, Li and Leung (2001), indicated that woman's involvement in, work in Asia depends on the support she receives from her husband and other relatives. Overall, despite the effective role of women's participation in the hotel industry, but they may be exposed to some risks in the workplace, for example (Poulston, 2008) they are subject to high levels of sexual harassment from both peers and guests due to their low-educational levels or low-status.

### **3.14 The Theoretical Framework**

#### **3.14.1 Overview**

A theoretical framework is a set of theories and models derived from literature (Collis and Hussey, 2003). It is logically described to illustrate the variables related to the situation of the study, and provides a basis for showing how these variables are manifested in the case study setting through questionnaires, interviews and observations, (Sekaran, 2003). The theoretical model has been developed to synthesise the key themes, thereby leading to a better understanding of the phenomenon under study. It is supported by a proposed framework that will guide the stages of fieldwork.

#### **3.14.2 Importance of the theoretical framework**

The main aim of the study is to investigate the T&D practices in the Libyan public hotel sector, with special focus on evaluating the training programmes currently being implemented within the SSFIC. The theoretical framework proposed is entirely appropriate within the context of this research because it was created in order to build and develop (rather

than to test) the theories being proposed. According to Peteraf and Bergen (2003), by using a theoretical framework, the investigation no longer lacks structure, but becomes part of a line or tradition of inquiry, which other researchers can check, replicate or build upon.

In this study, the purpose of the framework is to devise an explicit theory that could be used to achieve the aim of the study and to compare the findings in the case study organisations with the various elements of the framework based on the literature review. This will enhance the understanding of how the Libyan hotel sector, specifically the SSFIC develops its policy and plans related to T&D programmes.

### **3.14.3 The proposed model and framework**

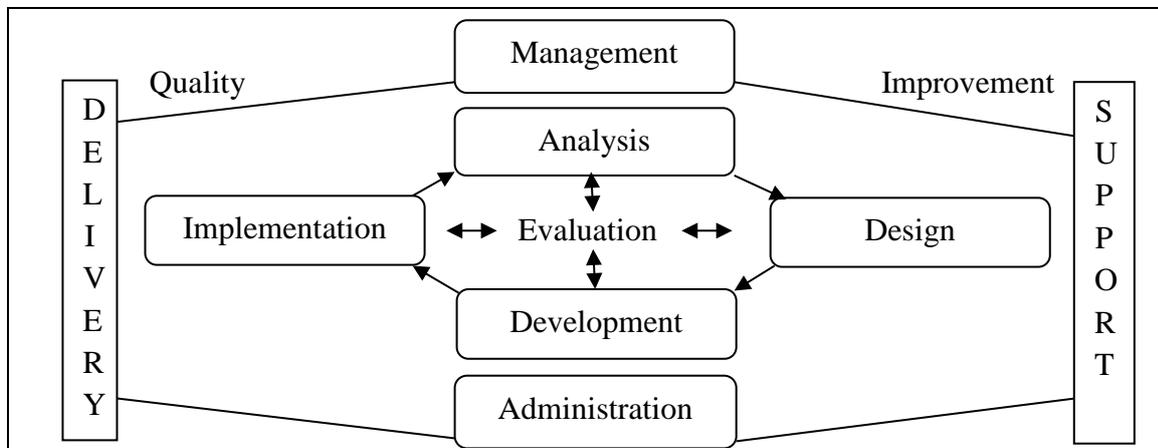
There are numerous models of a T&D programme (for example, ADDIE) that have been developed for different settings to meet the needs of different types of organisations, and each type of model is based on a different theory or philosophy that needs to be considered when a designer selects a model for a particular case. The theoretical and operating frameworks used for this study have been established after a review of the literature and the stages and core characteristics of ADDIE model. The researcher identified three key issues from the study of Allen (2006) on the evolution of the ADDIE training system, which were considered an indicator for the revision of the current model:

- (a) Many versions of ADDIE have evolved during the years to be responsive to other settings.
- (b) ADDIE model was in need of the revision, for possible application in various areas such as education, management development, and technical training programmes.
- (c) Most training sponsored by organisations, five decades after the introduction of ADDIE, still have difficulty investigating the application of the skills and knowledge of participants at the end of training.

From the revised ADDIE model which was presented by Allen (2006), the researcher found that it ignored a major phase of training, specifically that which allows us to evaluate and improve training and make it more effective. This phase is ‘*transfer of training*’ to the workplace. It is one of the most important phases in evaluation (Pineda, 2010; Bhatti&Kaur, 2010; Reid & Barrington, 1999), as discussed in section 3.7. The ADITE model (Figure 3.5) derived from the revised ADDIE model of Allen (2006) is used as an overarching framework for analysis of the field data against a model of received good practice that incorporates transfer of training.

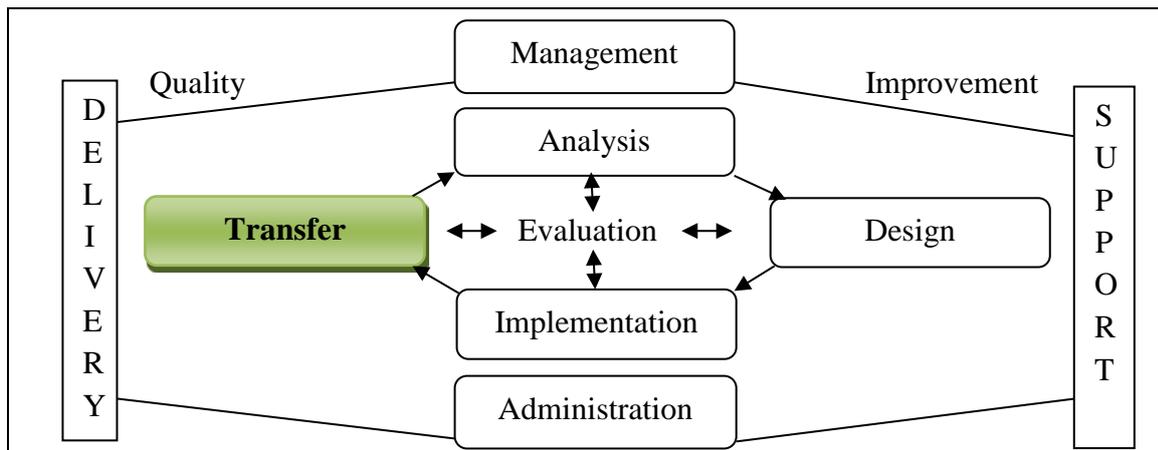
To illustrate the change made to the revised ADDIE model, it is useful to re-display the model again here as figure 3.4, to clarify the new phase, which was added by the researcher to the systematic training cycle (see green box, figure 3.5)

**Figure 3.4: Revised ADDIE model**



Source: Department of the US Air Force (2001, p.15), cited in Allen, 2006, p.438.

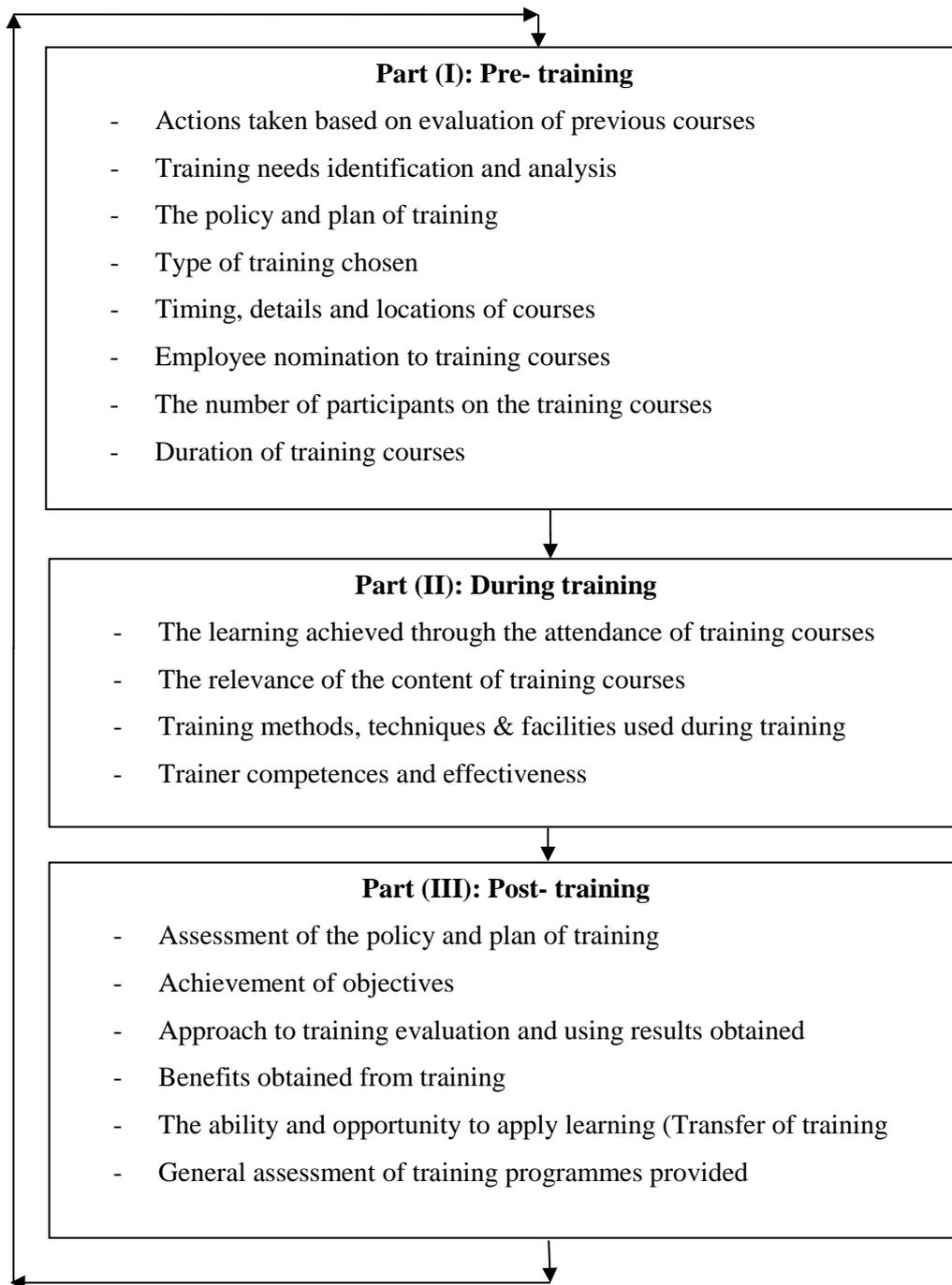
**Figure 3.5: Revised ADDIE model in the current study (ADITE)**



Source: Prepared by the researcher

Evaluation is the centrepiece of both models, ADDIE and ADITE and also, it is central to this study. It is broader than course evaluation, which is only part of what is being evaluated in the systematic training cycle. The operating framework which has influenced the structure of the investigation and the design of the questionnaires described in Chapter 6 reflects the main phases of the training process as presented in ADITE, and is shown in figure 3.6. According to the existing literature regarding training in the public hotel sector, in particular, no previous studies in this area have been conducted that include all the mentioned factors in one framework.

**Figure 3.6: The proposed framework to conduct the fieldwork in the selected cases**



### **3.15 Chapter summary**

This chapter has sought to investigate the relevant literature on training and the hospitality sector. Generally, T&D plays a vital role in promoting success for individuals and organisations alike through improving knowledge and skills. In recent years, the majority of countries and organisations have become more aware of the importance of training. They are

therefore paying more attention to this activity and spending an enormous amount of time and money on T&D programmes to improve the performance and efficiency of their staff. This is largely due to changes and new developments in today's environment. Without any doubt, all countries are seeking to develop their local human resources, in order to face many increasing challenges at work in both industrial and service organisations. On the other hand, many countries, including Libya still rely on foreign labour to perform several jobs. This trend prevails in the hospitality organisations, due to a lack of qualified and skilled national manpower. Weir et al. (2006) point out that an increased competition globally has led to the need to get the right people, with the right skills, in the right place, at the right time. Therefore, investment in the T&D of these people is a key element in the hospitality industry, particularly in the hotel sector.

In addition, as outlined in this chapter, T&D has many benefits, such as a reduction in staff turnover and employees' tensions, an improving employee morale and job satisfaction, product and service, and organisation image. Despite these benefits there are some difficulties with T&D within the hospitality industry. For example, Stolovitch (2007) states that training programmes fail many times due to it is completed for reasons other than the need for enhanced knowledge and improved skills of the individual. He adds that training expenditures are wasted for several reasons: poor selection of trainees and a lack of follow-up after training. Moreover, very few funds are allocated for the implementation of these programmes. All these problems have led to a poor reputation for training programmes within this industry in general (Maxwell et al. 2004; Pratten, 2003).

The key types of training (on and off-the-job training) were discussed in section 3.6, and followed by transfer of training in section 3.7, which revealed that this process is a critical outcome of HRD (Yamnull & McLean, 2005), because (Bhatti & Kaur, 2010) state that both organisations and employees can achieve their objectives if learning skills are transferred

effectively to the workplace. The researcher has focused on this process by highlighting its effective role in the systematic training, which was discussed in section 3.8. This section revealed that Western training practice emphasises the importance of systematic training of which the ADDIE model is one example.

The ADDIE approach provides a systematic process for the determination of training needs, the design and development of training programmes, implementation of the programme, and the evaluation of the effectiveness of the training (Gagne et al. 2005). Figure 3.2 showed that the most recent ADDIE model, its phases operate as a training cycle with evaluation a continuous process that takes its place at every stage. Having introduced a brief description of a theoretical model (ADDIE), further explanation for these phases were discussed in sections 3.9, 3.10 and 3.11. In order to get a better understanding of T&D practices and programmes in different contexts, section 3.12 was allocated to discuss this issue, first in the hotel industry globally, second, in developing countries, and finally, in Arab countries. One of the key discussions of this section revealed that there is a need for more skilled and trained employees from the local populace in most Arab countries.

The theoretical framework was discussed in section 3.13. The revised ADDIE model presented by Allen (2006) was developed to ADITE model (Figure 3.5) as a good practice model for developing the training and evaluation in the Libyan hotel sector. It incorporated the phase of *training transfer to the workplace* which is one of the most important phases in evaluation elements (Pineda, 2010), as was discussed in section 3.7.

The next chapter will focus on training in the context of Libya, with particular reference to its important role in the development of the hotel sector.

## **CHAPTER FOUR: OVERVIEW OF TRAINING IN LIBYA**

### **4.1 Introduction**

For several years, Libya has sought to diversify its national economy, but the focus on the human element has largely been absent in the development equation (Aagnaia, 1997). Therefore, most organisations in the country still face many problems, such as a lack of skilled managers, which affects the quality of the outputs of those organisations (UNDP, 1994), and “The quality of the labour force can be improved through greater attention to demand driven vocational and technical training, as well as the quality of public education” (LAS & UNDP, 2009, p.51).

### **4.2 Local organisations responsible for training in Libya**

There are two organisations:

#### **1- General People’s Committee (GPC)**

A background on the General People’s Committee (GPC) was discussed in Chapter 2, in section 2.5.3.

#### **2- Department of Labour and Vocational Training (DLVT)**

The Department of Labour and Vocational Training (DLVT) was established on 04/04/2009 to replace the General People’s Committee for Labour and Training, according to the law of the General People’s Committee No. (124). The DLVT is concerned with the organisation of areas of work and employment and vocational training through the employment offices which are available in various Shabiyat (see Chapter two, section 2.5.1). The tasks of the DLVT are:

- to follow up the implementation of legislation related to labour and employment and follow-up replacement procedures in national employment to reduce the number of foreign workers in different sectors.
- to evaluate labour market conditions to identify employment opportunities, and coordinate to fill them.
- to prepare studies and propose plans to ensure the creation of real job opportunities in collaboration with various sectors to develop and organise the labour market so as to achieve a balance between demand and supply.
- to grant permission to bring foreign workers according to percentages established by the DLVT.
- to identify jobs prohibited to foreigners.
- to develop the basic principles of professional calibration and conditions, standards accreditation of training centres and public and private institutions, and quality control in coordination with the relevant authorities.
- to propose the annual training plan to be approved by the GPC, and follow up its implementation and evaluation of outcomes to ensure its responsiveness to the requirements of the labour market.
- to conclude the agreements with Arab and International organisations in various areas relevant to labour and training.
- to develop a database and statistics on employment and update it by using modern scientific means and cooperation with other relevant authorities (<http://www.smpt.gov.ly/>).

Libya, like many developing countries, has developed its education and training systems because they are regarded as vital for the development of life activities of the country

(Alhmali et al, 2007), and has made many efforts to develop its organisations, and the goals of administrative development are to:

- enable Libyans to contribute to managing and implementing economic and social projects;
- further expand education and training programmes in different levels and fields;
- promote efficiency and effectiveness by different techniques in order to increase the level of productivity;
- redistribute manpower according to need and priority (Aгнаia, 1996, p. 38).

The Libyan economy has been characterised for its dependence of more than 90% on oil revenues, while, at the same time, the country is witnessing a fast growth in population, which, in turn, leads to an increase in demand for goods and services, quantity and quality alike. Consequently, the policy of training and development is required to enable the country's organisations to face these developments, and make them similar to those in the fast growing economies of many other developing countries (Aгнаia, 1996a).

Aгнаia (1996) pointed out that in July 1968, with the help of the UN; Libya established the first organisation concerned with training and development programmes, under the name of the National Institute of Public Administration (NIPA). The NIPA's activities and goals were identified by Act 41 in the same year. After that, the country issued many laws to identify and organise these activities within its public organisations, for instance, article 1 of the law No. 37 of 1973 which was supported by the law No. 97 of 1990. These laws described training as:

*... preparing and qualifying individuals by providing them with necessary skills and knowledge, and by altering their attitudes in different activities in order to promote*

*their productivity and to cover quantity and quality shortages which contribute towards achieving the goals of development plans.*

(Al-Zawie, 1990 cited in Agnaia, 1996, p.36)

Al-Zawie also points out that the Libyan legislation emphasizes the provision of training opportunities for all workers. Therefore, article 30 of Act 55 of 1976, and article 50 of Act 13 of 1981, aimed to highlight the necessity of organisations giving training opportunities (internal or external) to their staff in order to qualify and enable them to do their work better. It is clear from the arguments above that Libya from 1968 has sought to promote investment in its human resources through paying much attention to the management of training and development. In addition, it established institutions of training and development by allocating more financial support. Agnaia (1996) cites Ghiadi (1986), who said that despite these efforts made by Libya to develop its administrative system, further co-operation and co-ordination is required among agencies and organisations responsible for management training development, because the organisations concerned with administrative development are incapable of affording the required number of qualified employees. To support this, Agnaia (1996) states that all sectors in the country suffer from some shortcomings and problems related to administrative development, such as the lack of preparation of a comprehensive plan, which is an essential process for any organisation to ensure the achievement of its objectives.

Agnaia (1996) pointed out that the Libyan management practices were not being implemented effectively to meet required standards due to several political and cultural factors (more details see sections 3.5, 3.6 and 3.7). The case of the public sector, which of course includes the hotel sector, had difficulty in identifying training needs for their employees. This situation led most companies, particularly in the private sector, to recruit

from other countries to fill the shortfall. Agnaia (1996) described the responsibility for T&D in the country was split between education, planning, and treasury. This situation has also led most organisations to face many difficulties in obtaining the information and financial resources they require.

Moreover, little effort was made by most developing countries to support ties between syllabi and the needs of their economy (Agnaia, 1996), the situation is described by Banutu-Gomez (2002) as not being helpful in enabling countries to face their challenges. Despite the shortage of skilled people, some managers prefer not to attend training courses, on the grounds that it is proof of their incompetence, and thus this will influence their careers and social status (Kamoche et al. 2004). Although Libya is one of the richest countries in Africa, HRM which includes training and development practices seem to be at the formative stage, as is true in most developing countries. These practices are influenced by several factors, such as socio-cultural structure, religion and family. These factors mean that most managers are more interested in creating useful social relations in the workplace than with the job itself (Kamoche et al., 2004). Agnaia (1996a) points out that many countries have focused on management training development. At the same time, a number of modern studies have highlighted the significant role of management in the building of societies, and the important role of competent staff in this respect. Again, Agnaia (1996, p.2) states:

*many developing countries, including Libya, have paid a great deal of attention to national economic and social problems, but less attention has been given to managerial and organisational problems, which have an important impact on the performance of development plans.*

In recent years, Libya has paid more attention to administrative reform. Consequently, the country has established many institutions of training and development. It has reformed the

organisational structures of the public sector, and has been worked to simplify the procedures of work. In addition, it has sent a lot of people abroad, particularly to Britain in order to obtain relevant new knowledge and skills in various disciplines (Aagnaia, 1996; Kamoche et al., 2004).

### **4.3 Overview on structure and characteristics of Libyan society**

Culture in general has a major impact on different aspects of people's life with national culture having a significant role in forming the characteristics and beliefs of individuals from an early age (Hofstede 2001). He added the stability of the national cultural values over long periods of time leads to their transition from one generation to another.

The cultural characteristics of Libyan society have much in common with other Arab countries and Islam is the dominant religion as in other Arabic countries located in North Africa. Culture in the Arab world is closely linked to religion, as it relates to all aspects of life among Muslims (Almhdie et al. 2004). Both Arabic culture and Islamic religion have a significant impact on all aspects of life in Libyan society such as social values, beliefs, behaviour and attitudes, state laws and its policies both political and economical.

Furthermore, Arabic language and family structure have a strong influence in these aspects in general and business organisations in particular. From a study of Weir et al. (2006) the following points can be drawn:

- In relation to economic activities, Islam in general encourages people to value work, thrift, ingenuity and progress; and allows trade but prohibits usury. Concerning politics, Islam has provided a set of general rules and guidelines which organise the relationship between the government and public. It illustrates the rights and duties of either party.

- With respect to education, Islam calls for knowledge and the encouragement of learning in order to achieve progress and prosperity for individual and society. It founded a set of principles that could be applied to different areas of sciences such as economic, management, humanity, and so on. Some of these values are represented by the concepts of trust, honesty, cooperation, planning and consultation.

It can be said that the Islamic religion has a major impact on almost all features of life including specific cultural aspects of the Arabic societies and in Libyan society in particular. Socially and based on the rules of Islamic religion, Libyans have respect for age which occupies a prominent place in the behaviour of Libyan society and within its organisations. For instance, according to Abdul-Khalik (1984), managers in Arab countries often focus on seniority, rather than merit, in most of their decisions that affect employee relations.

Libyan society is conservatively based in its social structure and bound by the Islamic teachings that call for acceptance of the authority of parents and elders as well as other senior members of the social group either outside or inside the workplace. Accordingly, Libyan society can be described as conservative and coherent as long as the teachings of Islam are still in practice, and the family structure is still strong and coherent (Weir et al. 2006).

The philosophy of Gaddafi, which was published in his 'Green Book' in 1973, emphasises participation and involvement of the Libyan workforce in their organisations (Smith et al. 1989). According to Otman and Karlberg (2007), however, in the 1970s and 1980s Libyan society and organisations seems to have remained profoundly conservative and resistant to the revolutionary impulses for change that emanated from its leaders. This suggests that Libyan organisations possess a strong culture that resists organisational change in most aspects. This issue is consistent with Cameron and Quinn's (1999) suggestion which says

many of the managerial failures to implement planned change arise due to neglect of the culture within the organisation concerned.

In the Arab world, organisations often seek to fulfil personal obligations toward group members rather than meeting organisational needs. Group membership is often based on ethnicity, family and religion. For example, family ties and sectarianism play a major role in organisational life rather than academic qualifications, significantly affecting managers' recruitment and promotion decisions (Hayajenh et al., 1994). Twati and Gammack (2006) state that employees in Libyan organisations care about the reputation of their names, families and tribes, thus, social reputation plays an important role in the structure of the Libyan society. Research conducted by Hutchings and Weir (2006) to study networking in China and the Arab World, including Libya, indicated that the culture in both societies involves networking through individual relationships. The term which explains these relationships within Arab countries is called 'wasta', meaning 'connection' 'nepotism' or favouritism. In an attempt to overcome the country's rampant corruption, in its various sectors, including hotels, Porter and Yergin (2006) pointed out that the Libyan government in recent years has emphasized the importance of appointing individuals to key government positions on the basis of merit, rather than 'wasta'. It could be said that 'wasta' has a significant impact on Arabic organisations which might also be have an impact on training activities. This issue is addressed when conclusions are drawn later in the thesis.

It is apparent that people across nations and culture behave and believe differently. In this context, four dimensions were presented by Hofstede (1983) to differentiate national cultures: Power distance, uncertainty avoidance, individualism, and masculinity. In relation to Libyan context, Hofstede (1983) argued that the Libyan national culture is characterised by high power distance, low individualism, medium masculinity and high uncertainty avoidance. Libyan organisations that are owned by government promote values of high power distance

and collectivism (Twati and Gammack, 2006). Despite the low individualism, the strong relationships between individuals of Libyan society lead to a lack of teamwork and cooperation between managers to achieve organisational goals. Furthermore, the classical bureaucratic structure is the most common form of the Libyan organisations. This is in line with the study of Bezweek and Egbu (2010), who found that organisations in Libya are characterised by a bureaucracy and tall hierarchal structure.

The most important weakness of the Libyan administrative system is the extent of bureaucratic red tape (Porter and Yergin, 2006). There is also an impact of social relationships on administrative relationships that have become dependent on personal rather than objective evaluation. According to Agnaia (1997), during official working hours little attention is paid to the importance of work time as employees spend a lot of time meeting their visitors during working hours, which is considered a form of socialization. They also do not observe official working hours which results in a delay in the performance of their duties as employees arrive late in the morning, absenting themselves during the day, and leaving before the end of the working day.

Elgamal (2000) argues that the key sources of Arab managerial conceptualization and practices are the Islam religion and Arab culture. The combined effect of high community loyalty and high power distance manifests itself in paternalism in managing the human resource, where paternalism is represented by the relationship between supervisor and subordinate within the organisation. Supervisors play the role of a parent and consider it an obligation to provide support and protection to subordinates. In contrast, subordinates seek to show loyalty, compliance and respect to their supervisors.

Al-Hamadi et al. (2007) looked at an important point regarding the relationship between organisational and national culture. They argue that although organisational success in

developed countries leads many organisations in developing countries and the Arab world, including Libya to adopt Western models, this inevitably leads to conflict between organisational values and national values due to the ignorance of the impact of local cultural values.

In this regard, the researcher believes that according to Hofstede's study (1980), the cultural differences between nations will remain, which render Western management theories without modification inapplicable in different cultural settings. To support this, Common (2011, p.423) states that:

*Without an appreciation of national culture, management theories and practices adopted from outside the national setting of the organisation may be inappropriate to local needs and circumstances.*

According to Denison (1996 cited in Alabani 2009), the notion of organisational culture became popular early in the 1980s. It was described by Schein (2004) as a system of shared meanings that distinguish one organisation from others. One can say that each organisation, regardless of the size or the type of its activity, has its own organisational culture, influenced by the country in which it is operating. Organisational culture can be viewed as sub-nation culture (Hutchings and Weir, 2006). Furthermore, in line with the view of Goffe and Jones (1998), it could be said that there is no 'right' or 'best' culture for all organisations; but there is an appropriate culture for an organisation, which can facilitate it to cope with its business.

Organisational culture can have positive impacts by, for example, facilitating the communication between employees within an organisation. In this context, with regard to training for employees in organisations, there is an organisational culture that encourages employee development and constant progress, which includes the encouragement of employees on transfer of training to the workplace (Elangovan and Karakowsky, 1999). In

contrast, Sivunen (2005 cited in Abozed et al. 2010) argues that an organisational culture might hinder transfer of training.

Given national cultural influences, Twati and Gammack (2006) consider organisational culture in the Libyan context as a strong culture, which resists organisational change in many ways, including decision making process, communication, employment, and other aspects, training is no exception.

#### **4.4 National Human Resource Development (NHRD) systems**

In the traditional perspectives, national human resource development (NHRD) was focused narrowly on employment, and issues relating to it, such as manpower planning and human capital investment, but recently it has been extended to include other social issues, such as health, culture, safety, and community (McLean 2004, Devadas, 2009). As part of its social and economic remit NHRD needs to include training, retraining, education and re-education, relocation, and compensation for people losing jobs through no fault of their own (Cho and McLean 2004, Devadas, 2009).

Hence, NHRD has been gaining wider popularity as many factors underscore its importance (Devadas, 2009) which explains the rising interest in studying NHRD in terms of public policy and strategy (Cox, Al Arkoubi and Estrada, 2006). However, even some of the most developed economies have been slow to recognize the importance of NHRD. Cho and McLean (2004, p.391) state that the “United States is behind most of the rest of the world in acknowledging the value of NHRD. As a result, the USA does not have a clear vision of its national human resource development”. Wang (2008) considers that current literature on NHRD has not advanced knowledge in some key areas, including HRD under different cultural contexts. He suggests that NHRD research should be positioned as HRD policy studies, with special reference to the similarities and differences in NHRD policies.

Paprock (2006) in his introductory overview to NHRD in the developing world emphasises that the NHRD context differs from organisations and their subsystems (communities, nations, regions) resulting in variations in the nature and expected outcome of NHRD between countries. He then considers NHRD from human and social capital, and transition and change perspectives.

Human capital focuses on the economic behaviour of individuals, especially the ways of acquiring knowledge and skills that enable them to increase their productivity and income. Social capital is concerned with networks and the relationships that occur between them.

The relationship between human and social capital can be analysed by means of the following four elements:

- Focus: human capital focuses on the individual agent, while the social capital focuses on relationships.
- Measures: measures of human capital include duration of schooling and qualifications arising, whereas measures of social capital are based on attitudes, participation and trust levels.
- Outcomes: outcomes of human capital are both direct (income, productivity) and indirect (health, civic activity), whereas outcomes of social capital are social cohesion, economic achievement and more social capital.
- Model: the human capital's model is linear, but the model of social capital is interactive. (Paprock, 2006).

In terms of transition and change, Paprock (2006) adopted the framework of Katz and Kahn (1966) to examine the environment in transitioning societies in the developing world. Katz and Kahn (1966) stated that transition adapts and exists within five environments: the cultural, the political, the economic, the technological, and the ecological. The degree of

transition for these five environments can be measured on four dimensions: (stability to turbulence, uniformity versus diversity, organized versus random, and scarcity to plentiful).

In 1990, the first Human Development Report (HDR) was published by the UN, which has actively promoted and supported all member countries to develop HDR national and sub-national reports (Wang, 2008). In addition, the Human Development Index (HDI) measures overall achievements in each country: life expectancy, attainment of education, and adjusted real income. According to Harbison and Myers's typology (1964), there are four levels of countries, as shown in Table 4.1.

**Table 4.1: Four Levels of Harbison and Myers (1964)**

Levels	Description
I	Underdeveloped countries, whose economy depends heavily on foreign labour to perform several jobs in both public and private organisations
II	Partially developed countries, which have a developed industrial base, are able to produce the greater part of their own non-technical, high levels of workforce such as teachers, managers, and supervisors, but are reliant on more advanced economies for scientific and engineering manpower
III	Countries, which are on the road to becoming an advanced economy, and are largely self-sufficient in providing their own high-level labour needs with the exception of scientific and technical labour.
IV	Advanced industrial economies with large stocks of high-level labour, particularly scientists, engineers, and administrative/managerial personnel. These human resources are able to make major scientific, technological, and organizational discoveries and innovations.

Source: Based on Paprock (2006, p.22)

Cho and McLean (2004)) presented five models of NHRD with examples from the developed and developing world: (a) the centralized model, (b) the transition model, (c) the government-initiated model toward standardization, (d) the decentralized/free-market model, and (e) the small-nations model. The core characteristics of these models as applied to five developing countries are summarised by Lynham and Cunningham (2006) in table 4.2.

**Table 4.2: The five models of NHRD and their core characteristics**

NHRD Models	Core Characteristics
<b>Centralised</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Top-down, state-driven approach to education.</li> <li>- HRD policy and strategy formulation, implementation, and assessment a critical role of central government.</li> <li>- HRD needs part of central planning of government.</li> <li>- Addressing social and moral needs a vital dimension of HRD.</li> <li>- Economic development a key role of central government, not one of corporate sector</li> <li>- HRD policies typically linked to a multiyear, national development plan.</li> <li>- Cho and McLean examples: China, Poland, Kenya, and Mexico.</li> <li>- Developing-world examples: Particularly China and Morocco.</li> </ul>
<b>Transitional</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Typified by tripartite approach to HRD policy and strategy (government, trade unions, private sector).</li> <li>- Major role of HRD is to coordinate HRD goals and initiatives to meet national political, social, and economic skill needs</li> <li>- Planning, implementation, and evaluation of HRD policy and strategy is the responsibility of multiple government departments.</li> <li>- Cho and McLean examples: India and Singapore.</li> <li>- Developing-world examples: Particularly Philippines, South Africa, Morocco, and Brazil.</li> </ul>
<b>Government initiated, toward Standardisation</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Standardization of every aspect of NHRD is the central theme.</li> <li>- Consultative and stakeholder view of HRD and economic needs.</li> <li>- Development of human resource competencies are controlled and coordinated by a national needs framework.</li> <li>- A network of government-monitored agencies drives implementation and evaluation of NHRD needs and goals.</li> <li>- Private sector pressured into compliance through established and monitored targets and tax incentives to comply.</li> <li>- Cho and McLean examples: United Kingdom, South Africa, Australia, and Singapore.</li> <li>- Developing-world examples: Particularly South Africa.</li> </ul>
<b>Decentralised free market</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Competitive market forces push HRD efforts.</li> <li>- Education and training seen as the responsibility of the individual and the private sector.</li> <li>- The state indirectly supports the individual and private sector initiatives.</li> <li>- Cho and McLean examples: Canada and United States.</li> <li>- Developing-world examples: Particularly the Philippines and Brazil.</li> </ul>
<b>Small nations</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Driven by need to cooperate regionally for increased competitiveness.</li> <li>- Distinguished by coopection—the need to simultaneously compete and cooperate.</li> <li>- NHRD initiatives supported and promoted by regional intergovernmental organisations.</li> <li>- Characterized by use of participative processes to determine and agree on HRD needs and how can be addressed for benefit of all.</li> <li>- Cho and McLean examples: Pacific Islands and St. Lucia.</li> <li>- Developing-world examples: Particularly South Africa, Morocco, and</li> </ul>

Source: Lynham and Cunningham (2006, pp.123-124)

Lynham and Cunningham (2006) pointed to the key similarities between the selected countries of China, Philippines, South Africa, Morocco and Brazil:

- a colonial past
- a highly heterogeneous society
- a young and relatively unstable economy
- fundamental political transformation with the accompanying need for economic and social transformation
- a high unemployment rate
- a markedly uneven distribution of wealth, especially between the rural and urban populations
- the urgent need for human skills for the global labour market
- recognition of the need to reform the basic education

Further to the similarities mentioned above, Lynham and Cunningham (2006) found some cultural differences within the five countries, in particular different levels of corruption.

They found that there are four dimensions for analysing of NHRD for practice in the developing world, and each of these dimensions, whether separately or together, informs the needs and necessary goals of NHRD. These dimensions are:

- political system, which can range along a democracy continuum of new to established
- economic system, which can range along a free-market continuum between conservative and liberal.
- social system, which is ranged along a developmental continuum of fractured to integrated.

- education system, which is ranged along a quality and access continuum of elite to equal.

In addition to the four dimensions, Lynham and Cunningham (2006) identified seven characteristics that inform an integrated and theoretical model for NHRD in developing nations.

- 1- NHRD must focus on knowing how to repair imbalances, which are the result of unequal access to political, economic, social, and educational opportunities.
- 2- NHRD must be more than education; it aims to develop human expertise in multiple learning features.
- 3- NHRD must be nationally purposeful for improving the economic, political, and socio-cultural well-being of specific nations and its citizens.
- 4- At the national level, HRD strategy must encompass all learning systems necessary, including for example, education of the citizenry; policy and practice on formal and informal learning; and skills development in both the short and long term.
- 5- NHRD must address the development of incentives, to attract and retain high-level skills by helping nations to both compete and collaborate within the global labour market.
- 6- NHRD must include a number of rights, such as the right to continuous learning and development, the right to informed participation of the citizenry in the governance of its people and nation, the right to justice, freedom of choice and health.
- 7- NHRD must be deeply concerned with human development, including affecting life expectancy, education, gender-related development, the distribution of wealth and poverty levels.

The four dimensions and the seven attributes, together with the components of the five models, are necessary to inform the development of an integrated and collaborative

theoretical framework for the study and practice of NHRD in the developing world (Lynham and Cunningham, 2006). They also highlighted some gaps in the Harbison and Myers’s (1964) framework which need to be, addressed in future studies. The gaps include four major issues: (a) “omission of technology-related indices, now part of the standard repertoire of the annual reporting on human development by the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP); (b) omission of environment-related indices; (c) outdated country classifications that [...] need to be matched to current classifications in the event of application of the framework in a modern-day context; and (d) adjustment of the framework from an international to a global context” (Lynham and Cunningham, 2006, p.129).

Elfazani (2011) in a recent study into the Banking sector in Libya considered that none of the five models listed in Table 4.2 fitted the emerging Libyan situation. He introduced a sixth model, centralised-transitional that drew upon, and expanded, features of the Centralised and Transitional models.

**Table 4.3: The emerging Libyan model of NHRD**

<b>NHRD Models</b>	<b>Core Characteristics</b>
Centralised transitional	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Top-down, state-driven approach to education</li> <li>- Major role of HRD is to coordinate HRD goals and initiatives to meet national political, social, and economic skill needs</li> <li>- HRD needs are part of the central planning of government</li> <li>- HRD policies typically linked to a multiyear, national development plan</li> <li>- Planning, implementation, and evaluation of HRD policy and strategy is the responsibility of multiple government departments</li> <li>- Loosening trade barriers to encourage international competition</li> <li>- HRD has significant role in developing internationally competitive workforce</li> <li>- Encouraging overseas experience of a selected group of individuals regarding international operations</li> <li>- Greater focus on language training especially English</li> <li>- Evaluation of HRD still done in terms of course approval and attendance as opposed to learning outcomes – i.e. meeting quotas as opposed to meeting identified needs</li> </ul>

Source: Elfazani (2011)

The NHRD study of Morocco by Cox et al (2006) was particularly relevant to this study because of its proximity to Libya. In terms of workforce characteristics, Morocco was classified by Cox et al. (2006) as being largely self-sufficient in high-level manpower needs with the exception of scientific and technical fields. They added that Morocco, as in other Arab countries, faces many difficulties, such as poverty, unemployment, illiteracy, and educational deficits. Concerning, education and training Morocco has a surplus of graduates from higher education in the humanities and law, but there is a lack of graduates in the area of business administration and engineering. Accordingly, “educational and training systems must improve in terms of enrolment, quality, and relevance of instruction. Promoting and incentivizing strategic occupations must be addressed along with related coordination among the various agencies” (Cox et al. 2006, p.91).

Two factors affecting the NHRD strategy were discussed by Cox et al. (2006). These are ‘enabling’ and ‘impeding’. The first factor focuses on improve the situation of the country’s political and economic situation. There is a need for more scientific research and studies as well as the creation of appropriate incentives system to attract human capacities to various key positions related to the HRD. In contrast, a number of impeding factors are prevalent in transition and impact on the environment HRD. These factors include centralization of government, the ineffectiveness of commercial activities with rampant corruption, motivational deficits of marginalized groups, and the departure of strategic human capital.

Based on these factors, especially ‘impeding factors’, some Moroccan sectors need to develop and reform. For example, Cox et al (2006) suggest that the agribusiness sector in urban regions should be developed by HRD professionals and policy makers for the introduction of technologies to improve productivity. Accordingly, the low level of educational attainment in rural areas ought to be addressed. Tourism and manufacturing, described by Cox et al. (2006) as sectors with a high potential for growth, require special

attention to be paid to the education and training systems. In relation to other sectors of the Moroccan economy, there is a need for training and re-training of employees, in order to ensure a flexible workforce in terms of the types of jobs lost and created.

In conclusion, the review of the study of Cox et al. (2006) on NHRD in the Moroccan context is one of the key references for the study of NHRD in the context of Libya. The reason is that there are many commonalities between the two countries. Geographically, both are located in North Africa and under classification of developing countries. Culturally, there are common features, such as language, traditions, ethnicity and religion. In addition, another similarity is their emergence from a colonial past, and the legacies, positive and negative, that accompanied such a past (Lynham and Cunningham, 2006).

Paprock (2006) identified nine questions derived from Harbison and Myers (1964) to ask when looking at NHRD. These questions, which are reflected in the approach adopted in this thesis to constructing the questionnaires for the case study analysis and evaluating the Elfazani centralised-transitional NHRD model for Libya from the perspective of the hospitality sector, are:

- What is the nature of the transition in the economic, social, and political national context?
- What pressures and imperatives are driving the nature of and need for HRD?
- What currently comprises HRD?
- What are the specific and necessary goals and components of HRD?
- How is HRD defined?
- What are important elements for an effective HRD strategy?
- What factors are likely to impede successful implementation of an HRD strategy?
- What factors are likely to enhance/enable successful implementation of an HRD strategy?

- What specific challenges face policy makers and professionals in the development, implementation, and evaluation of national HRD strategy?

#### **4.5 Training in the Libyan hotel sector**

As a result of the new changes and developments in the 21<sup>st</sup> century, investment in training is more important than ever before at the individual, organisational and national level. In a country like Libya, which is a relative newcomer to tourism, there is a crucial need for T&D programmes in order to develop the skills and knowledge of the local employees, which is considered a corner stone to develop this sector. T&D programmes in the tourism sector and particularly in the hotel sector, as pointed out by Salih (2005) and Danis (2006) are very limited and still remain insufficient and overdue because the Libyan government has only recently begun to focus on this area. This study is therefore very timely, given that well-trained and skilled manpower is a vital element in the success of the majority of organisations, particularly the hotel sector.

The Libyan government has paid great attention to develop the tourism and hotel industry through the issue of a number of publications, such as the Libyan Tourism Master Plans (LTMPs) (1999-2003), (1999-2018), and (2009-2025). However, Naama et al. (2008, p.485) identify several weaknesses in the LTMP (1999-2018) related to education delivery and training programmes as follows:

- lack of consistency in curriculum delivery and heavy reliance on foreign curricula;
  - lack of in-service training for teachers and few Libyan teaching staff;
  - insufficient practical training;
  - lack of teaching materials and practical training facilities;
  - outdated teaching methods which do not encourage active participation of the student;
- and

- lack of on-the-job training.

It could be argued that the absence or lack of appropriate training courses for hotel staff will reflect on their performances and that might affect a customer perception of a hotel's service quality. Therefore, to develop its tourism sector, Libya has to satisfy its immediate training needs for its workforce, which enhance both new knowledge and required skills. The tourism sector in Libya still suffers from a lack of trained personnel. This is despite the fact that, as Danis (2006) describes, to facilitate such workforce developments, and to bridge the gap of required skills the Ministry of Education is sending people abroad for short and long-term training in different areas such as HRM, economics, marketing, and tourism in order to obtain relevant new knowledge and skills in various disciplines. In Britain alone in 2008, there were around 3.500 Libyan students in UK higher education or studying in English language courses, additionally there were others who were sent by other Ministries, such as oil (British Council, 2008).

The finding above explains that the country depends heavily on off-the-job training (i.e. overseas training) to bridge skills gap. It could be argued that this strategy was adopted by other Arab countries, for example the total number of Omani students who study abroad was 13,210 between 2003/2004, as shown in the following table.

**Table 4.4: Omani students studying abroad for 2003/2004**

Source of funding	Males	Females	Total
Public	323	114	437
Private	4,240	8,533	12,773
Total	4,563	8,647	13,210

Source: Martin (2007)

In the conclusion of this section, it should be noted that the organisations responsible for the hotel industry and tourism in Libya have been reviewed in Chapter 2, section 2.5.3.

#### **4.6 The need for T&D in the Libyan hotel sector**

In the late 1990s, Libya recognised the need for T&D programmes in hotel management and catering technology during the initial stages of preparing the national tourism plan of tourism development (LTMP, 1999-2018). Employees in the tourism sector in various activities need to be trained to make them skilled and personable. Libyan tourism SMEs, for example, have similar views to developing countries. Jwaili et al. (2004) state that these tourism SMEs seek to improve education and training facilities for the tourism sector by enhancing and supporting the existing institutions, and the establishment of new institutions of training. The main aim of T&D in Libya is to meet the required quota of local employees (Kamoche et al., 2004). Nevertheless, the country still relies on foreign labour to perform several jobs as mentioned in the preceding chapter, section 3.12.3.2. This trend prevails in hospitality organisations, due to a lack of qualified and skilled national manpower. Kamoche et al. (2004) argue that “the shortage of appropriately trained staff continues to make the returns on investment in the industrial base woefully inadequate” (p. 179). In 2005, a statistic was issued by the General Board of Tourism and Traditional Industries (GBTTI, 2008) in Libya, which revealed that foreign workers in hotels represented around 47% of the staff. In 2006, the rate of foreign workers in hotels dropped to 32%, while it increased in cafes and restaurants, up to 70% (GBTTI, 2009).

#### **4.7 Educational and training institutions in the Libyan tourism and hotel industry**

According to Naama (2007), the number of institutions specialising in hospitality training was quite low (see Table 4.1) and they tend to attract low numbers of students. Libya has three main institutes specialising in tourism and hospitality training:

- (1) The Hotel Professions Institute in Tripoli, which was established in 1990 and serves the population of the western region.

(2) The Hotel Professions Institute in Musratha, which was established in 1995 and serves the population of the central region.

(3) The Hotel Professions Institute in Shahat, which was founded in 1992 and serves the population of the eastern region of Libya.

**Table 4.5: Institutions of Hospitality Education and Training in Libya**

Types of education and training	No. of educational and training institutions	No. of students joining them
Hospitality Education Institutions	3	1292

Source: Naama (2007)

Given the small number of Libyan employees who had received formal training in their specialties, hotel institutes were established in five cities: Benghazi, Musratha, Shahat, Sosa, and Jansour (LTMP, 2009-2025).

**Table 4.6: Number of tourism and hospitality institutes in Libyan cities and able to grant degrees**

City \ Degree	Medium Diploma	High Diploma	BCs	MSc
Tripoli	1	---	---	1
Musratha	1	1	---	---
Benghazi	1	---	---	---
Janjour	---	1	---	---
Sosa	---	1	---	---
Derna	---	---	1	---
Shahat	1	---	---	---

Source: LTMP, 2009-2025

It can be seen from the above table that the number of tourism and hospitality institutes in Libya are very few, which is only nine institutes. This confirms that this sector was neglected by the Libyan government over the past years, as discussed in chapters one and two.

Furthermore, according to the LTMP (2009-2025), all of these institutions face significant challenges which can be summarised in the following points:

- The low level of educational curricula and facilities used in training.
- A significant shortage of academic staff in the area of tourism and hotels, so most of those staff are non-national.
- A significant shortage in numbers of trainers.

#### **4.8 The key difficulties faced by T&D in the Libyan hotel sector**

Most Libyan sectors still suffer from a lack of skilled employees, not only the hotel sector. For example, the oil sector is the most important sector among other sectors due to the fact that it has been the main source of employment in the country since the 1970s; nevertheless, this sector still suffers from a serious shortage of skilled and qualified staff at many levels (Aagnaia, 1996a). Porter and Yergin (2006) likewise have reported that there are poor standards of education and training, which in turn leads to a skills gap in most Libyan sectors, including the hotel sector.

Poor salary is another core issue faced by the public sector, including the hotel sector. Over the years, many laws were issued by the Libyan government governing employment (e.g. wages and salaries) in various sectors of the economy, including the hotel sector. Law No. 15 (1981) is the most important one which has had implications for the performance of most sectors as well as for their image as employers (Naama, 2007).

The law was issued by the Libyan government regarding the salaries of national employees in Libya, based on the previous Law No. 55 (1976) regarding the civil service. It is applied to all employees in the companies and organisations of the Libyan public sector. It was controlling

the course of economic activity in the country for a long time, yet it was representing the only sector for several years.

According to Law No. 15 (1981), average salaries of government employees are between 150 and 500 Libyan Dinars (LD) per month, depending on grade. The Decision No. 277 (2006) was issued by The General People's Committee (GPC), to establish basic government salaries at the following levels: "LD 130 for people without dependents, LD180 for families with two members, and LD 220 for a family of three or more members" (U.S. Department of State, 2011).

In addition to the above, there is considerable variation in the system of salaries between different sectors where hotels are one of the sectors characterised by low wages compared with other sectors. For example, Naama (2007) states that the lowest salary in the hotel sector was LD 120 per month, while the lowest monthly salary in the oil sector was LD 450. Low wages within the hotel sector are not just a Libyan phenomenon. An accepted feature of the UK hotel industry is the presence of many low paid workers on the national minimum wage. (Warhurst, Lloyd, & Dutton 2008)

This section has revealed the key barriers facing the tourism and hotel sectors. There is a lack of skilled employees, poor standards of education and training, in addition to a lack of coherent strategy of training (Vimpany et al. 2009), which could be behind a lack of suitable training programmes (Porter and Yergin, 2006, Saleh, 2005, Danis , 2006, and Kassem, 2008), and poor salaries according to Law No. 15 (1981).

## **4.9 Chapter summary**

This chapter has reviewed the relevant literature on training in the Libyan context in general and in the hotel sector in particular. Libya is witnessing a fast growth in different sectors after the economic openness in the country in recent years, which, in turn, has led to an increase in demand for goods and services, quantity and quality alike. Consequently, the policy of training and development is required to enable the country's organisations to face these developments, and make them similar to those in the fast growing economies of many other developing countries (Aagnaia, 1996a).

This chapter has introduced the local organisations responsible for training in Libya (GPC and DLVT) in section 4.2. Employee training is a critical part of creating and maintaining a competitive edge in today's hotel industry, especially for developing countries, such as Libya because it is a relative newcomer to tourism. In Libya, T&D programmes in the tourism sector and particularly in the hotel sector are very limited and still remain insufficient because the Libyan government has only recently begun to focus on this area (Salih, 2005; Danis, 2006). However, there are indications (see Chapter 2, for example section 2.5.4) that the current environment will witness a large and rapid evolution and an opening up of the market which will force the hotel sector to reconsider its policies. This will be especially relevant to its training policy and achievement of quality standards.

National Human Resource Development (NHRD) was introduced in section 3.3. NHRD focuses on employment, and other issues relating to it, such as manpower planning and human capital investment as well as other issues, such as health, culture, safety, and community. The five models of NHRD (the centralized model, the transition model, the government-initiated model toward standardization, the decentralized/free-market model, and the small-nations model), and their core characteristics (Table 4.2) were discussed in the

same section. One of the key references for the study of NHRD in the context of Libya was the study of Cox et al (2006) on NHRD in the Moroccan context. The reason is that there are many commonalities between the two countries, both geographically and culturally. The core characteristics of Libyan society, national and organisational culture were discussed in sections 4.5, 4.6 and 4.7. Section 4.9 showed that most Libyan organisations still rely on foreign labour to perform several jobs, especially in hospitality organisations, where according to the statistics of GBTTI (2008), foreign workers in hotels represented around 47% of the staff. This was due to a lack of qualified and skilled national workforce. Moreover, section 4.10 showed that the number of institutions specialising in hospitality training was quite low (Table 4.4) and they tend to attract low numbers of students (Naama, 2007). Training cost in the SSFIC was discussed in section 4.11. This section showed that the cost of implementing overseas training was costly compared with internal courses which were managed by training providers inside the country. The final section (4.12) has reviewed the most prominent difficulties faced by T&D in the Libyan hotel sector.

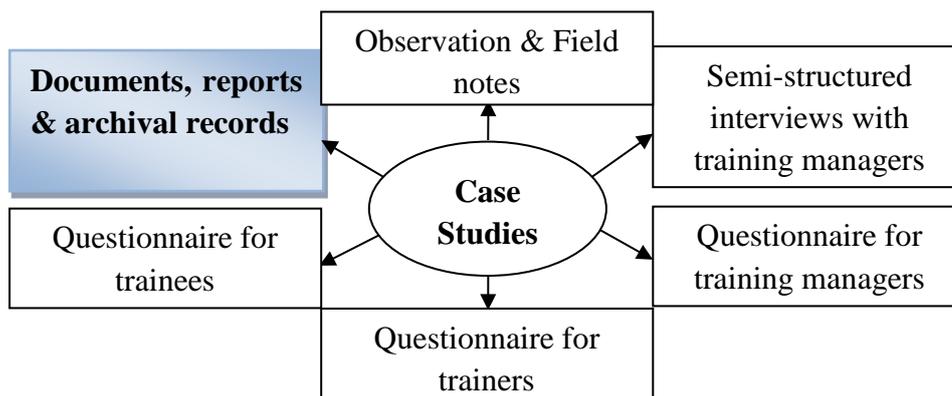
## CHAPTER FIVE: CASE STUDY ORGANISATION'S BACKGROUND

### 5.1 Introduction

This chapter provides general background to the two case organisations (SSFIC and CBAH). It reviews various issues, such as foundation and Legal Status, organisational structure, and general policies and strategies. It also introduces the structure of the training function within the two organisations, indicates how decisions on training investment are made and outlines the training activities conducted. It draws upon a number of diagnostic frameworks including that used by Pugh and his colleagues (1969) who, in analysing context factors, focus on: origins and history; ownership and control; size (e.g. number of operating sites); charter; technology; location; and dependency on other organisations.

The data for this chapter has been collected from journals, books, internet sources and archival data collected during a 2008/2009 field trip to Libya. See top left figure 5.1. These documents are introduced in next chapter, Table 6.10.

**Figure 5.1: Field work & Data collection**



## **5.2 Profile of the SSFIC (Case A)**

### **5.2.1 Foundation and legal status**

The SSFIC was established in 2007 with capital of LD 500m, in accordance with the decision of the General People's Committee 32/2007, issued on 29/01/2007 (<http://www.ssfi.ly/arabic/index.html>). The hotel division consists of two national organisations: the Social Security Company for the Conduct of Hotels (SSCCH) was established in 1993 in Tripoli. Most hotels across the country, as shown in Table 5.1, were under the umbrella of this company. In 1997, a subsidiary company, a new branch called the Tebesty Company for Hotels (TCH) was established in Benghazi to manage the hotels located in the eastern region. According to the provisions of Libyan Commercial Law, the two hotel companies were incorporated into the SSFIC, the SSCCH in Tripoli on 31/07/2007, and the TCH in Benghazi on 06/02/2008. Following the merger, the management of the SSFIC used the assets and the workforce of these two companies to create a new investment company. It also inherited a large number of national employment who needed to be trained and to develop their skills. This resulted in a radical change in the work culture. The hotels within the new group needed renovation and development (The SSFIC's report, 2008). The SSFIC is a joint stock Libyan company which enjoys legal personality and financial independence and is wholly owned by the Social Security Fund (SSF). The SSFIC is one of the most important financial institutions in Libya.

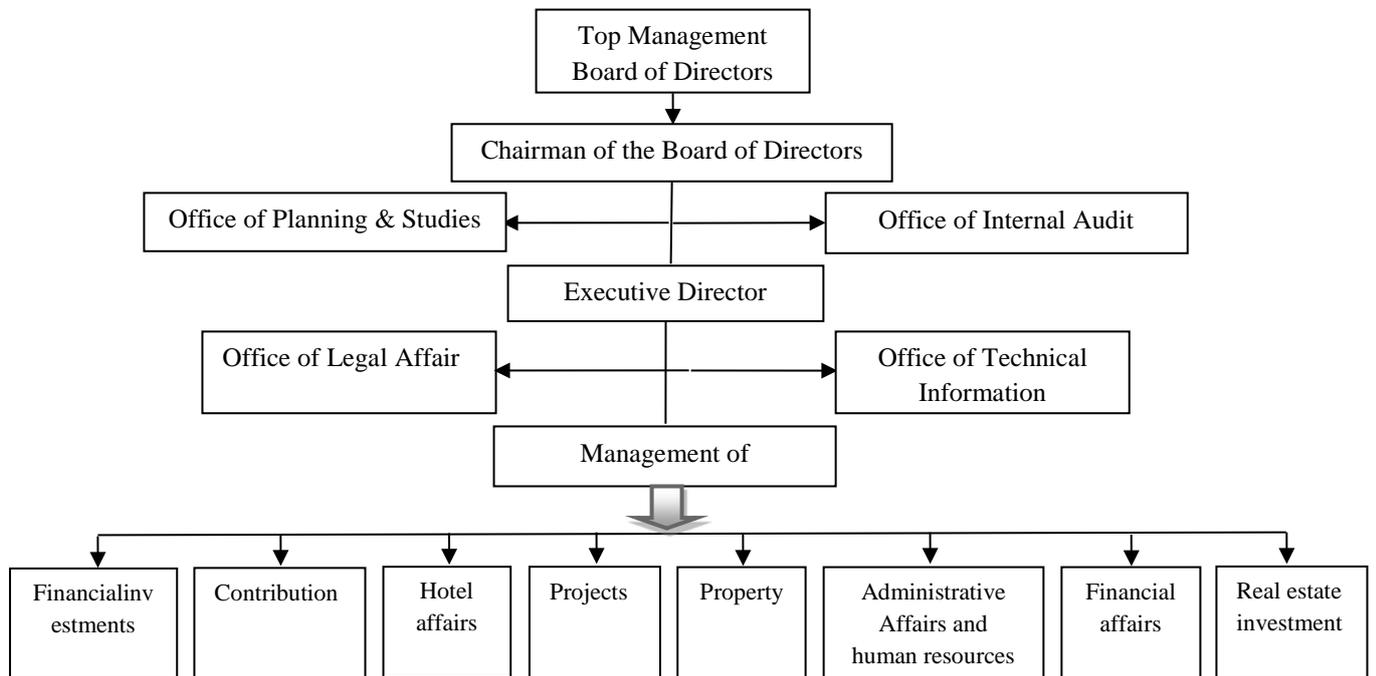
It specialises in the investment of social security funds by investing in real estate assets, such as land, hotels and tourist villages, as well as investments in liquid assets. It also invests in other assets as part of its portfolio management in order to achieve maximum return on investment. Among the purposes of establishing the SSFIC is the operation of a number of hotels owned by the fund security (Table 5.1). The company welcomes and encourages foreign direct investment in its various projects and for the hotel industry in particular

Management of the chain of hotels and investments across the country is one of the key purposes of the SSFIC (<http://www.ssf.ly/arabic/index.html>). Management of the company is conducted by a Board of Directors, which consists of at least five members, including the Chairman and the Chief Executive Officer, who have the following powers:

- 1- proposing the general policy of the company.
- 2- proposing administrative, financial and technical systems of the company.
- 3- preparing a draft of estimated budget and showing the budget to the General Assembly, which is represented in the Management Committee of the SSF.
- 4- proposing to establish branches or offices of the company according to need.
- 5- preparation of data and statistical studies.
- 6- supervision and follow-up of the business of the company, taking the necessary steps to maintain operational efficiency and increase the level of performance and training, and making suggestions to develop the company and its services and implementing them.
- 7- taking all measures relating to employees of the company, and its hotel units, according to legislation.
- 8- making recommendations and proposals for the creation of any facilities complementary to the business units, and the development or renovation of capital assets (Kassem, 2008).

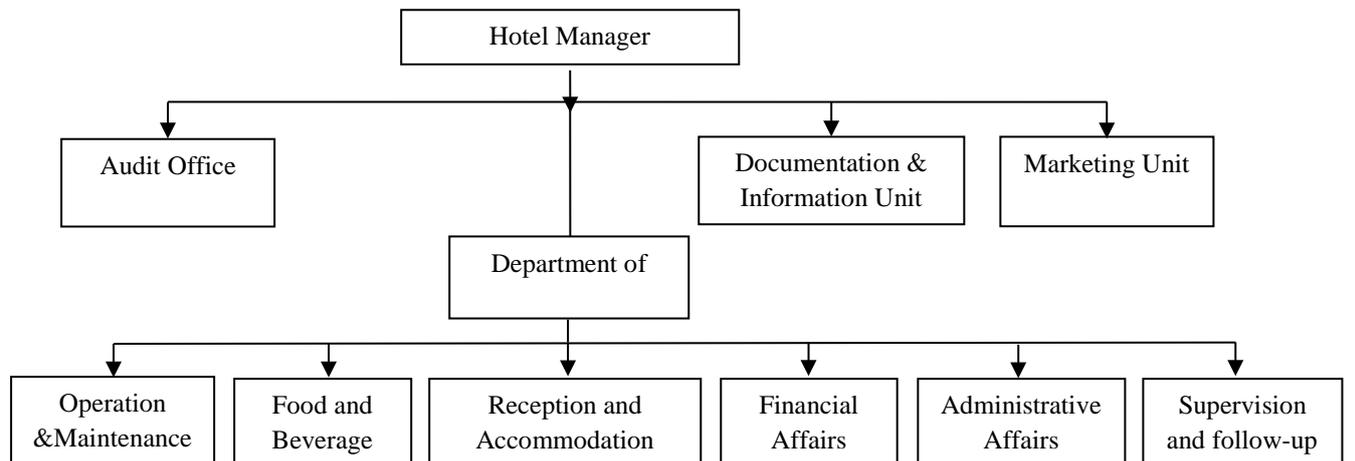
### 5.2.2 Organisational structure of the SSFIC

Figure 5.2: Organisational structure of the SSFIC



Source: SSFIC: Office of Planning and Studies, 2009.

Figure 5.3: Organisational structure of the SSFIC's hotels



Source: Kassem(2008, p.77)

### 5.3 The workforce within the SSFIC and its hotels in February 2009

**Table 5.1: The workforce in the SSFIC and its hotels**

Unit	National employment	Non-national	Total
Management of SSFIC	207	2	209
<b>Hotels4★★★★</b>			
Al-Mahari	494	25	519
Al-Kabeer	483	30	513
Bab Al-Bahr	429	23	452
Tebesty	417	53	470
Aozo	268	26	294
Sirit	244	48	292
<b>Total</b>	<b>2335</b>	<b>205</b>	<b>2540</b>
<b>3★★★</b>			
Janzour Tour Village	366	38	404
Garyunis Tour Village	224	17	241
Al-Wahat	324	16	340
Ghozettik	182	6	188
Zliten	57	0	57
<b>Total</b>	<b>1153</b>	<b>39</b>	<b>1192</b>
<b>2★★</b>			
Zaytouna	23	4	27
Bab Al-Jadid	249	10	259
Al-Rabta	54	1	55
Al-Jabal	29	3	32
<b>Total</b>	<b>355</b>	<b>18</b>	<b>373</b>
The total of workforce	4036 (93%)	302 (7%)	4338

Source: SSFIC: Administrative Affairs and Human Resources, 2009

Despite the fact that generally foreign workers make up a significant percentage of Libyan labour, particularly in the service industries (U.S Commercial Service, 2008), it should be noted from the table above that the situation in the SSFIC is different, because the rate of foreign workers in its hotel chain is low, representing only 7%.

However, the situation is somewhat different in other Libyan hotels. For example, in 2005, a statistic was issued by the General Board of Tourism and Traditional Industries (GBTTI, 2008) in Libya, which revealed that foreign workers in tourist facilities, including hotels,

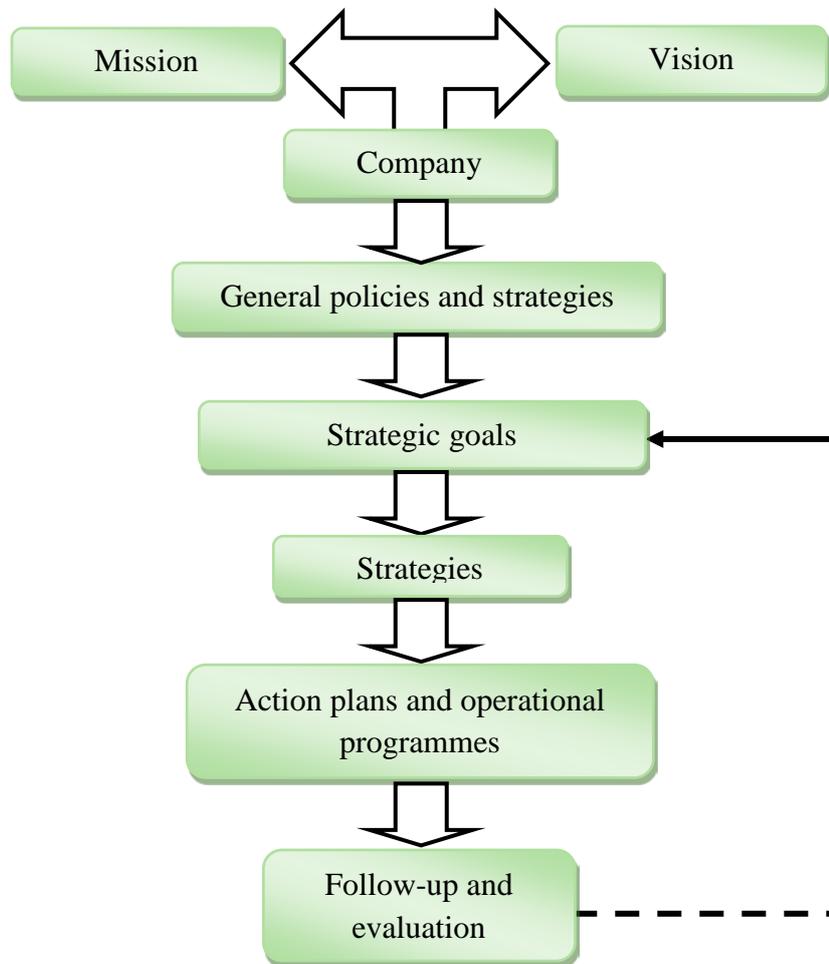
represented around 47% of employed staff. In 2006, the rate of foreign workers in hotels dropped to 32%, while it increased in cafes and restaurants, up to 70%(GBTTI, 2009).

To improve the quality of hotel services, the management of SSCCH brought in foreign workers, more than once, most recently in 2006, when workers from Tunisia and Morocco were employed. However, quality did not improve because workers were in need of training and continuous development in the light of the rapid development of this industry (Kassem, 2008).

#### **5.4 Strategic Plan of the SSFIC**

The following strategic planning framework of the SSFIC implies that the company follows a systematic and sequential strategy analysis process to strategy formulation and implementation. It has become conventional for Western companies to differentiate between vision, mission and core values before moving on to strategic goals and action plans and the SSFIC adopts the same approach.

**Figure 5.4: Strategic Plan of the SSFIC**



Source: SSFIC, Report of 2008

#### **5.4.1 The SSFIC Vision**

Generally, a vision is what a company aspires to achieve. It ‘functions as a sort of directional map for [its] sphere of operations’ (Walton, 1999, p.30). For the SSFIC it is stated as follows: The SSFIC is characterised by professionalism, credibility and successful evaluation of investment opportunities (The General Strategic Plan (GSP) of the SSFIC, 2008-2012) and (<http://www.ssfi.ly/arabic/index.html>).

#### **5.4.2 The SSFIC Mission**

The SSFIC should achieve the greatest return on investment at an acceptable level of risk (GSP, 2008-2012).

### **5.4.3 The SSFIC Values**

- Working with each other and with our customers respectfully and accepting other opinions.
- Associating words with deeds and delivering on promises.
- Working as a team in accordance with the company vision.
- Working with transparency and clarity.
- Taking responsibility for our actions.
- Striving to be a model of achievement and loyalty to be followed by other investment institutions (GSP, 2008-2012).

### **5.4.4 General Policies**

- Diversification of investment to allocation of risk.
- Study investment opportunities on the basis of economic feasibility.
- Act in accordance with the organised procedures of the company's activities.
- Decisions-making based on information and facts.
- Guided by the recommendations of the International Society of Social Security related to the investment of social security funds (GSP, 2008-2012).

### **5.4.5 General Strategies**

- To benefit from the experience of professional institutions and to transfer their knowledge to the assessment and management of investments.
- Directing the company's activities towards investment rather than operations.
- Support and promote the self-development of the company's employees at all levels.
- Adopt a team-work approach in performing work (GSP, 2008-2012).

#### 5.4.6 Strategic Goals

There are six strategic objectives of the SSFIC in general (GSP, 2008-2012). They are not dissimilar to those that might be found in a contemporary Western company and are:

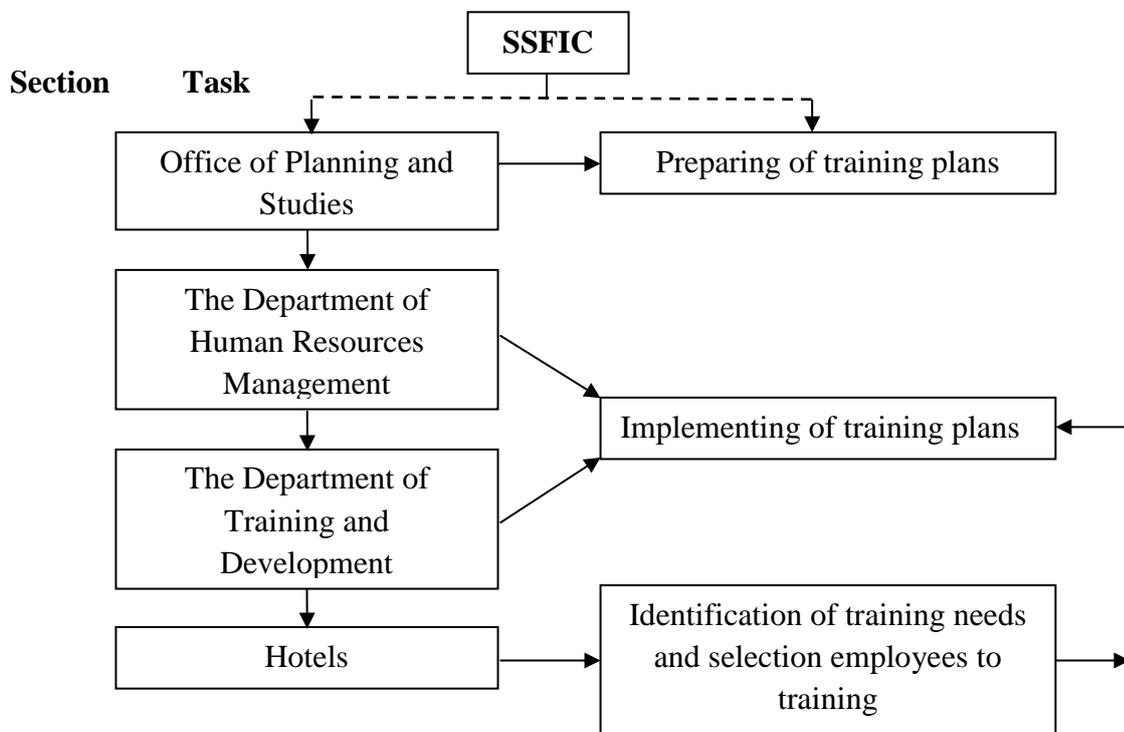
- The creation of investment projects that will achieve the greatest return on investment.
- Building human resources capable of achieving the company's vision and mission, and at the same time responding quickly to changes in the external environment.
- Building a database and advanced information system commensurate with the company's activities.
- Organising and developing the performance of existing projects.
- Building an investment brand based on the principle of professionalism in the local and international environment.
- The creation of a sophisticated and stimulating work environment dominated by the principle of loyalty and a culture of achievement.

The strategic objective of human resources is to train and develop of human resources to achieve the objectives of the SSFIC and respond to changes in the external environment affecting the company's activity. The findings of the study (Chapters 7 and 8) will highlight to what extent these objective meet through the training programmes which targeted a large number of employees. The values – policies – strategies - objectives do appear confusing in some areas. They mix such diverse concepts as investment planning, building a database, creating work environments and encouraging a team approach into one set of objectives and in no particular order of importance. This could be indicative of the lack of direction and emphasis throughout the SSFIC organisation.

### 5.5 The structure of the training function

Within the SSFIC, there are three key units for training activity. The top unit is the Office of Planning and Studies (OPS), which is responsible for the preparation of strategies, policies and plans of training. The second unit is called the Department of Human Resources Management (DHRM), whilst the third unit is the Department of Training and Development (DTD), which works under HRM. The two departments are responsible for the implementation of training plans prepared by the OPS.

**Figure 5.5: The parties responsible for training in the SSFIC**



Source: Prepared by the researcher

#### 5.5.1 Human Resources and Training

One of the six most important strategic goals of the SSFIC is to develop the local human resources. Therefore, the SSFIC has developed a strategic human resources plan to serve this end. The objectives to be pursued and achieved through the human resources plan are:

- Attracting and retaining qualified staff with extensive experience and skills in areas related to the work of the company.
- Developing an integrated plan for the development and improvement of the skills and efficiency of the staff.
- Creating a consensus concerning the goals and objectives of the company's employees.
- Developing and applying an effective system of performance management.
- Creating a work environment supportive of the motivation and performance.
- Creating a culture of teamwork while also instilling a spirit of competition between individuals.(GSP, 2008-2012)

### **5.5.2 Training Centre of the SSFIC**

The training centre of SSFIC is located in JTV, and it was established in 2006. At the beginning of the study a range of training courses were conducted there, (see Chapter 7, Table 7.12). However, while conducting the field study in April 2009 and according to the statement of the Head of DTD in the SSFIC, it was noted that the SSFIC relied little on this facility because the building needed maintenance. Before 2007, the training centre of the SSCCH relied on its own staff with qualifications or good experience for the implementation of training courses. However, many courses were implemented in external training organisations. After 2007, the SSFIC has sought to rely on the selection of qualified external trainers to conduct training courses at its training centre.

The report issued in 2008 by the SSFIC included two projects:

- 1- Establishment of a centre for advanced training in the field of tourism and the hotel industry in the Janzour Tour Village(see Appendix 8).

The SSFIC has signed a contract with Marina First Company to implement this project which is expected to be ready by 2012. The SSFIC seeks to make this centre a major investment project which will meet the training needs of hotels and tourist projects, and will contribute to providing about 32,000 new jobs for the Libyan economy.

2- Company training facilities:

Work is underway on the construction of three modern well-equipped company training rooms.

### **5.5.3 Training courses**

The SSFIC implemented many training courses since its establishment in 2007. According to the data of Table 5.2, it targeted a large number of employees to training programmes, whether internal (inside the country) or external (overseas) over three years (2007/2008 and 2009), where the total number of trainees was 6215. Explanation and analysis of these courses as well as the comparison between them in three years (2007/2008 and 2009) is discussed in Chapter Seven, section 7.2.2.1.

**Table 5.2: 2007-2009 training courses, and the number of trainees at each session**

<b>Training programmes (2007/2008) – Internal courses (in Libya)</b>	
Kind of course	No. of trainees
English Language	725
The International Computer Driving Licence	85
Computer programmes	78
Specialized professions	324
Behavioural skills	258
Financial professions	45
Department of stores	28
Identifying training needs	37
<b>Total</b>	<b>1580</b>
<b>External courses (outside Libya)</b>	
Specialized professions	174
International hotel management	10
<b>Total</b>	<b>184</b>
<b>Total trainees of internal &amp; external courses</b>	<b>1764</b>
<b>Training programmes (2009) – Internal courses (in Libya)</b>	
Kind of course	No. of trainees
English Language	1478
Technical skills	989
Behavioural skills	498
Professional	1486
<b>Total</b>	<b>4451</b>

Source: Prepared by the researcher according the data of training reports for 2007-09

### **5.6 The challenges faced by the SSFIC in the area of HR**

According to the GSP of the SSFIC (2008-2012), there are five negative points that need to be remedied if the objectives are to be met:

- 1- The company is experiencing an excess of unqualified employees in many departments, and a lack of qualified and trained people to providing outstanding hotel service.
- 2- The weakness of the system of motivational and material incentives.
- 3- The lack of an effective training policy and plan.
- 4- The lack of a qualified workforce.
- 5- Most of the Libyan staff prefer administrative work.

The SSFIC should take into consideration the five issues mentioned above in justifying expenditure on training. In other words, the results of training should emerge through a clear improvement in the skills and knowledge of the SSFIC's labour force. These improvements are apparently still slow to emerge because the SSFIC is still in the beginning of the process. Moreover, it could be argued that although the hotel sector in Libya is growing rapidly, particularly with respect to the size of new tourist projects by local and foreign investors, there is no balance between physical investment and human investment, due to a severe shortage of national workforce to operate in this sector, as stated in the SSFIC's report in 2008. This shortage also applies to the current situation and future of the SSFIC, which seeks to accomplish a number of new investment projects during the next few years, as mentioned in sections (5.10), (5.11), (5.12), and (5.13).

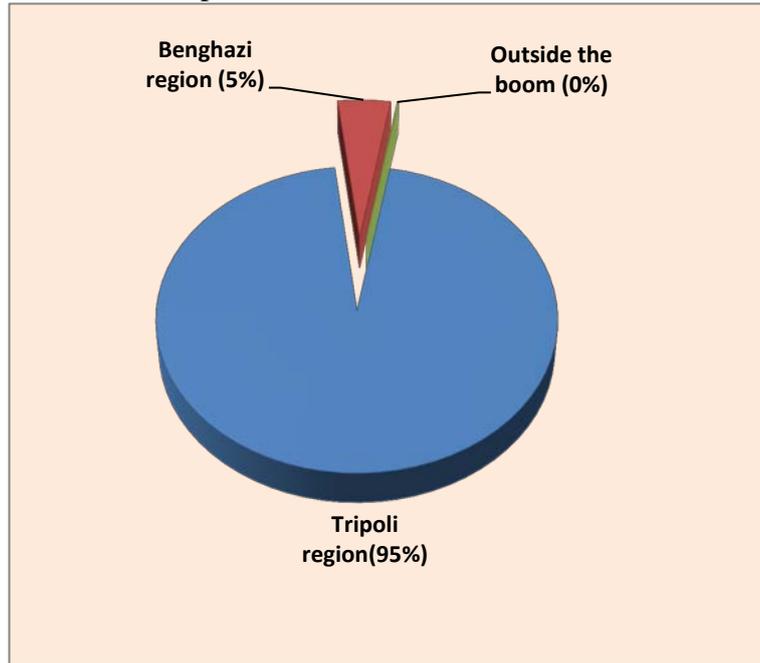
### **5.7 The financial performance of the hotels of the SSFIC**

**Table 5.3: The financial performance of the SSFIC's hotels in three regions**

<b>Hotels</b>	<b>Total revenues in LD</b>	<b>Net returns achieved in LD</b>
Tripoli region	59,488,830	19,850,488
Benghazi region	22,515,609	954,339
Region outside the boom	4,854,296	-16,857
<b>Total</b>	<b>86,858,735</b>	<b>20,787,970</b>

Source: SSFIC, Report of 2008.

Figure 5.6: The financial performance of the SSFIC's hotels



Source: SSFIC, Report of 2008.

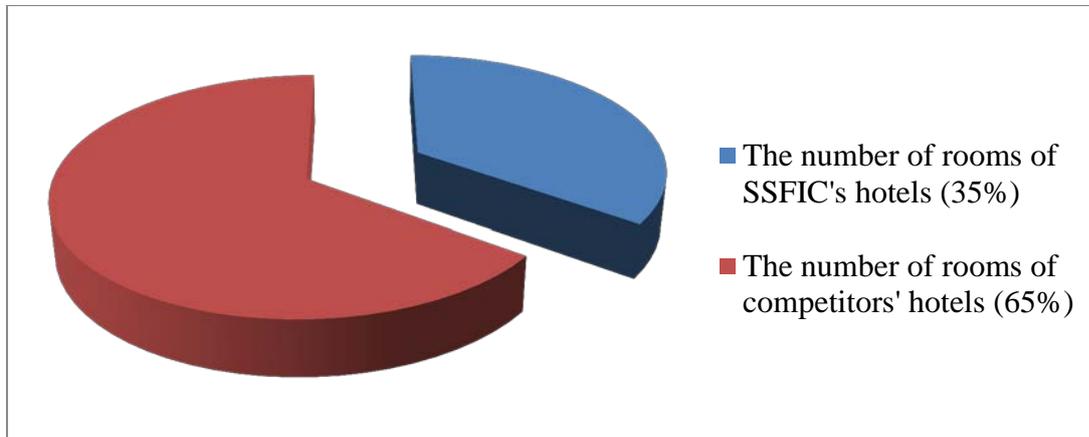
As reflected in Table 5.2 and Figure 5.6, hotels located in the Tripoli area achieved the highest percentage of revenue compared with Benghazi Hotels. The relative performance of the Tripoli hotels is a reflection of the conditions of the external environment which characterise the region. It could be said that the high rate of demand for hotel services is as a result of economic movement in the Tripoli region as the nucleus of economic activity in Libya. Hence, present this information is to support why hotels of the SSFIC located in Tripoli region were selected for conducting this research.

### 5.8 Competition

To date, hotels of the SSFIC located in Tripoli work in a quasi-monopoly in terms of price and weak competitive environment. The SSFIC hotels were supported by most public organisations through directing their guests from home and abroad to book with the SSFIC hotels. Nevertheless, there are many problems represented in the debts accumulated by those organisations due to late payment (According to the SSFIC's report, 2008).

### 5.8.1 The current market share of the SSFIC's hotels in Tripoli region

**Figure 5.7: Relative distribution of the number of rooms in Tripoli area**

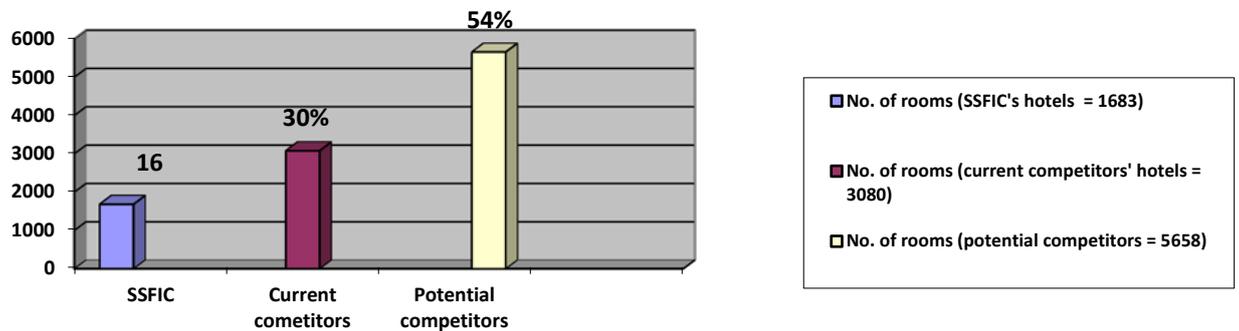


Source: SSFIC, Report of 2008.

The figure 5.7 shows the concentration of developments in the hotel services market in Tripoli. As mentioned above, the favourable circumstances for the SSFIC's hotels to work in a quasi-monopoly position has enabled them to achieve high returns through pricing strategy and high occupancy levels. There are indications that the current environment will witness a large and rapid evolution and on opening up of the market will force the SSFIC to reconsider its policies. This will be especially relevant to its training policy and achievement of quality standards.

### 5.8.2 The market share of the company's hotels in Tripoli region in 2011

Figure 5.8: Distribution of the likely number of rooms in Tripoli area in 2011



Source: According to the SSFIC's report of 2008.

It can be seen through figure 5.8 that increased competition will be an essential factor in the success of hotels in Libya in the near future and to the SSFIC's hotels in particular. The SSFIC's hotels will represent a lower ratio among potential competitors in 2011, especially since many of these competitors will be from foreign investors. For example, the Al-Waddan Hotel, which is operated by the Continental Company, Radisson Blu SAS Hotel, which is managed by a Turkish Company and has been opened recently on 23/11/2009, and the opening of the Marriott Hotel and several others which are expected to enter the Libyan market over the next few years. These hotels will face a scarcity of skilled and trained workforce in the Libyan labour market; this highlights the importance of training national elements to work in those hotels.

### 5.8.3 What are the strategic objectives achieved by the SSFIC since its establishment, taking into account the challenges inherited from hotel companies merger?

The report issued in 2008 by the SSFIC included two projects: Establishment of a centre for advanced training in the field of tourism and the hotel industry in the Janzour Tour Village and construction of three modern well-equipped company training rooms (see section 5.6.2). There are many other investment projects, the purpose of the review of these investment

projects is to support the importance of the SSFIC's role in the Libyan economy as one of the most important financial institutions in the country, as mentioned in section 5.2.1.

## **5.9 Investment Projects**

The focus of current projects is to add new investments and attract foreign investors to contribute to the planning and establishment of successful investments in spite of the global financial crisis, but most of these investors are still in negotiations with the company. The main current investment projects are in Tripoli and Benghazi (for more details, see Appendix 8).

### **5.9.1 Challenges facing the SSFIC in the completion of new projects**

To complete those projects mentioned above, the labour force of the SSFIC and its hotels needs a great deal of training. The SSFIC has been preparing and implementing several intensive training programmes that are designed to create new awareness, skills and culture, as discussed in the first sections of Chapter Seven. According to the SSFIC's report in 2008, the SSFIC faced two difficulties:

- 1- The enormity of the workload required, thus the company needs enough time to complete these projects.
- 2- Lack of local and foreign construction companies in the Libyan market

### **5.9.2 Challenges facing the SSFIC in hotel investment**

According to multi-sources of data, such as observation and field notes, the GSP of the SSFIC (2008-2012), the SSFIC report 2008, interviews and discussions with managers of training activities and managers in some hotels, there is a collection of challenges facing the SSFIC in hotel investment, these are:

- Low quality of services
- An increase in the size of indirect employment

- The low standard of specialised technical skills
- The need for maintenance and development
- Limited capacities to cope with the current competition, especially for the future
- Hotels outside the tourist boom, i.e. hotels in small towns, such as Al-Jabal Hotel, Zaytuna Hotel, Zliten Hotel, Goz teak Hotel, and Al-Rabta Hotel, still achieving losses
- The absence of clear work plans of the current hotels

## **5.10 Profile of the CBAH (Case B)**

### **5.10.1 Foundation and legal status**

The Corinthia Hotels were founded in 1968 on the Mediterranean island of Malta in order to offer new and distinguished services within the hospitality industry. The Corinthia hotel chain has become one of the leading hotel groups in many countries of the world, and the Corinthia Bab Africa Hotel (CBAH), five-star in Libya is one of them (<http://www.corinthiahotels.com/>).

In 2000, the Corinthia Palace Hotel Company Limited (CPHCL) was incorporated within the International Hotel Investments (IHI) on the Malta Stock Exchange, which holds a controlling stake. IHI's holdings include seven hotels and a hotel management company. In 2006, the CPHCL joined with the National Real Estate Co of Kuwait to incorporate Mediterranean Investment Holding Ltd (MIH), the North African Real Estate development arm of the Group. The CPHCL holds a 50% stake in the company. MIH has signed a contract with Libya for the implementation of two projects: the first, Palm City Residence in Janzour which consists of 413 residential units, whilst the second project, Medina Tower is in the heart of the capital Tripoli.

The CPHCL owns hotels in Malta and in several other countries, such as Hungary, Czech Republic, Portugal, Turkey and Tunisia. Moreover, it owns a Bakery, a Laundry and a Project Management Company in Malta, and is a major shareholder in a tour operating company in Britain.

Main partners of the Corinthia Group of Companies are:

- 1- Nakheel Hotels, Dubai, U.A.E
- 2- Wyndham Hotels Group, U.S.A
- 3- National Real Estate Company, Kuwait

<http://www.corinthiacorporate.com/cphcl/content.aspx?id=143997>

#### **5.10.2 International Hotel Investments (IHI)**

Corinthia Palace Hotel Company Limited (CPHCL) holds a controlling stake in International Hotel Investments (IHI). IHI was launched by CPHCL as a publicly-traded company in 2000, with the intention to acquire, develop and operate upscale hotels and ancillary real estate in Europe and beyond, principally in fast-evolving destinations. To date, IHI has acquired and developed seven landmark hotel projects, in Prague (Czech Republic), Tripoli (Libya), Lisbon (Portugal), Budapest (Hungary), St Petersburg (Russia) and St Julian's (Malta). In early 2008 IHI together with LFICO and Nakheel acquired a major property in London which is being developed into a five-star hotel and residences.

<http://www.corinthiacorporate.com/cphcl/content.aspx?id=143997>

**Table 5.4:Corinthia Hotels Group in different countries**

<b>Country</b>	<b>Hotel</b>	<b>No. of Rooms</b>	<b>No. of Beds</b>
Belgium (Antwerp)	Corinthia Antwerp Hotel ****	213	426
Czech Republic (Prague)	Corinthia Panorama Hotel ****	450	900
	Corinthia Towers Hotel *****	544	1088
Hungary (Budapest)	CorinthiaAquincum Hotel *****	310	620
	Corinthia Grand Hotel Royal *****	414	828
<b>Libya (Tripoli)</b>	<b>Corinthia Bab Africa Hotel *****</b>	<b>299</b>	<b>598</b>
Malta	Corinthia Palace Hotel *****	155	310
	Corinthia San Gorg Hotel *****	250	500
	Corinthia Marina Hotel *****	200	400
	CorinthiaJerma Palace Hotel ****	326	652
Portugal (Lisbon/Santarem)	CorinthiaLisboa Hotel *****	517	1034
	Corinthia Santarem Hotel ****	105	210
Russia (St. Petersburg)	CorinthiaNevskij Hotel *****	284	570
The Gambia (Banjul)	Corinthia Atlantic Hotel ****	204	408
Togo (Lome)	Corinthia 2 Fevrier Hotel *****	316	632
Tunisia (Gammarth)	CorinthiaKhamsa Hotel *****	309	618
Turkey (Antalya)	CorinthiaClubhotelTekirova *****	530	1122
	Corinthia Excelsior Hotel ****	181	362
	CorinthiaGulluk Hotel ****	36	72
	CorinthiaLabranda Hotel *****	140	280
<b>Total</b>		<b>5,783</b>	<b>11,630</b>

Source: Corinthia Hotel International, Press Pack, 2007.

### 5.10.3 Hotel Management

Corinthia Hotels International (CHI) based in Malta, its hotels and resorts are leaders in hotel management and offer a full range of technical assistance and administrative services to the owners of hotels around the world. CHI is the exclusive operator and developer for the luxury Corinthia Hotels brand as well as the Wyndham and Ramada Plaza brands in Europe, Africa and The Middle East. The hotels and resorts of CHI are a joint venture between International Hotel Investments plc (IHI), 70% and the Wyndham Hotel Group (WHG), 30%.

(<http://www.corinthiacorporate.com/cphcl/content.aspx?id=143997>)

#### **5.10.4 Industrial operations**

- 1- Swan Laundry
- 2- Danish Bakery Limited
- 3- Flight Catering Company Limited (FCCL)
- 4- Corinthia Airport Services
- 5- Consultancy Services Limited

#### **5.10.5 Corinthia Finance**

Corinthia Finance Plc is a public liability company, registered in terms of the Act on the 6th September 1999 with number C25104, and having its registered office at 22, Europa Centre, Floriana. Corinthia Finance was set up and established to act as finance company for the Corinthia Group and is a fully owned subsidiary of Corinthia Palace Hotel Company Limited. The Company is expected to develop its business acting as the finance arm of the Corinthia Group. <http://www.corinthiacorporate.com/cphcl/content.aspx?id=143997>)

#### **5.11 Corinthia Bab Africa Hotel (CBAH) in Tripoli**

The CBAH was established in 2003, it is in a strategic location at the heart of the capital city ‘Tripoli’, which is known as the Queen of the Seas. It is a stylish five-star hotel in a seafront location, close to the International Tripoli Airport, about half an hour by car. It overlooks the old city of Tripoli. It encompasses 200 deluxe standard rooms, 65 executive club rooms, 28 junior executive suites, 5 senior executive suites, and 1 presidential suite. Moreover, it has a place to host international events and conferences and a number of exclusive halls and meeting rooms (Events at Corinthia).

**Figure5.9: Location of the Corinthia Bab Africa Hotel in Tripoli**



Source: <http://www.kiwicollection.com/luxury-hotels/africa/libya>

### **5.11.1 CBAH Training Academy**

This training Academy is located within an area of the hotel. It includes audio-visual means of training. There is only one person responsible for training activity. Preparation and organisation of training courses is through coordination and cooperation between the head of the Training Academy and all heads of departments in the hotel. The Training Academy depends on qualified instructors including supervisors and line managers from the hotel in the implementation of most of the training courses. This Academy aims to develop the hotel's employees according to the training plan and long-term development plan. This is reflected in the following five goals:

- 1- Basic skills: to ensure that all staff are fully aware of their functions and tasks.
- 2- Specialised programmes: to build deeper interest in the broader aspects of the specialty, to increase self-confidence in the job performance of each employee.
- 3- Professional development programme: to ensure that all direct supervisors or front line managers are able to manage time according to the Company's rules.

- 4- Programme to push and speed up administration: through investment in training programmes to develop management skills to build self-confidence, and professional managerial personality to reach a high performance level.
- 5- Top management programme: developing facilities and skills of managers in the top management so that they are able to achieve the company's goals.

(CBAH, Employees Handbook)

### **5.11.2 Training programmes**

According to (CBAH, Employees Handbook), there are eight values and principles for training in the Corinthia Academy: Goal setting, self-confidence, knowledge of job requirements, commitment, willpower, sincerity, team spirit, and creativity and innovation.

What can be said through the review above regarding the CBAH is that the multinational hotel companies have an important role in the development of tourism and hospitality industry in developed and developing countries. In some countries, those hotel companies represent 70% out of the total number of hotel companies. However, those hotels constitute only less than 1% out of the total number of Libyan hotel companies (Abusa et al. 2008).

International hotel chains, for example, Corinthia Group Company, which have opened a branch in Libya since 2003, are in a continuing need to invest in training programmes. This is in response to a rapid growth of international hospitality organisations, and in hotel sector in Libya in particular. The advantage to Libya is represented in attracting people who want to work in the hotel industry (Jones, Thompson and Nickson, 1998). However, hotels operating in an international context usually faced some challenges related to training and development due to the differences in the Libyan social and cultural values, political and economic environment and the labour market (see Chapter 4, sections 4.5, 4.6 and 4.7). These factors

can create some difficulties or reduction in training effects (Carrell, Elbert and Hatfield, 2000).

### **5.12 Chapter summary**

This chapter has reviewed general background about the two case study organisations (SSFIC and CBAH). It has reviewed various issues, such as foundation and legal status, organisational structure, and general policies and strategies related to training practices and HR. It should be noted that many documents were collected from the former case (see Chapter 6, Table 6.10), but the researcher was unable to access to such documents from the latter case for some reasons, the most important one lies in instability in managerial structure of training department because during the field study in April/May 2009, the new Head of the Training Academy who was commissioned to manage this section a few days ago was unable to provide complete information. Moreover, this function has become vacant since the end of 2010, addition to other unknown reasons. Accordingly, this situation made difficulty in comparing with Case A. Therefore, most available data was on the former case (SSFIC), which represents the main case in this research. The early sections of this chapter describe the vision, mission and values of the SSFIC, in addition to the general policies and strategies. Section 5.5 showed the structure of the training function which includes human resources and training, the SSFIC's Training Centre, and training courses. The challenges faced by the SSFIC in the area of HR were discussed in section 5.6, while competition was discussed in section 5.8. The last sections on the former case were on the investment projects which explained the future strategy of the SSFIC, including training activity.

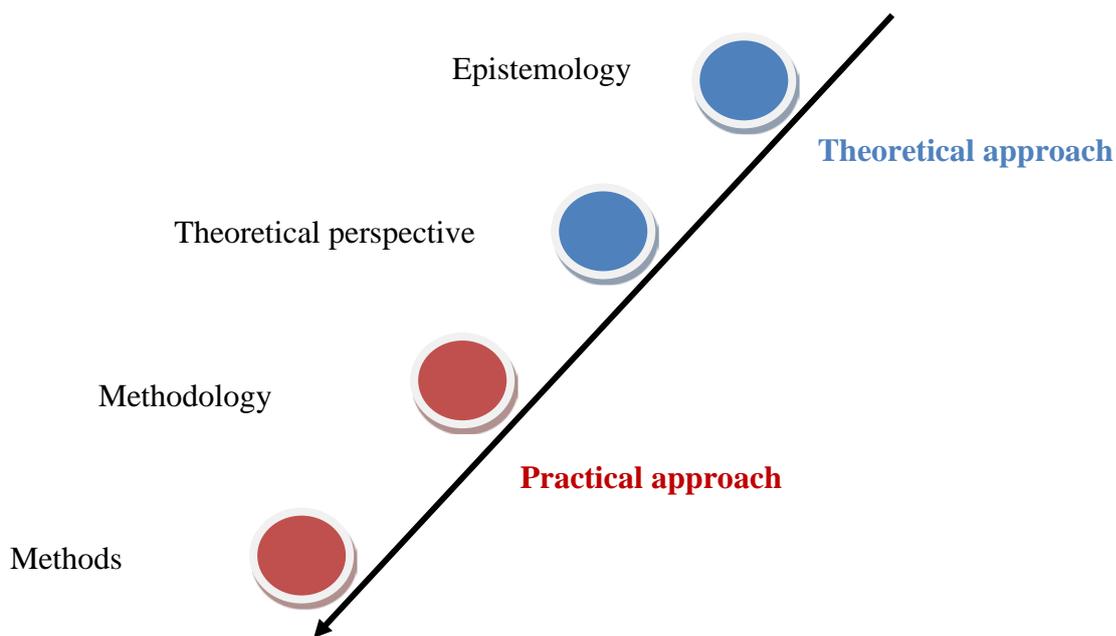
Concerning the second case (CBAH), Table 5.4 shows Corinthia Hotels Group in different countries, overview of CBAH in Tripoli was given in section 5.11, which included CBAH Training Academy and training programmes.

## CHAPTER SIX: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

### 6.1. Introduction

In general, the purpose of any research is to explore a specific phenomenon or to achieve an answer to a given problem. According to Crotty (1998), there are four key types of research issues that should be taken into consideration when designing research, as shown in figure (6.1) below:

- Epistemology
- Theoretical Perspective
- Methodology
- Methods



**Figure 6.1: Research approach synthesised from Crotty (1998, p.3)**

Crotty declares that embarking on the research in the right sequence should support the research process and therefore determine the status of the findings. He describes this sequence that moves from a theoretical to a practical approach as follows (p.3):

- Epistemology refers to the knowledge theory, which is embedded in the theoretical perspective and thereby in the methodology.
- Theoretical perspective is the philosophical stance informing the methodology and consequently provides a context for the process and forms a basis for its logic and criteria.
- Methodology is a process lying behind the selection and application of specific methods and is followed by linking these methods to the desired results.
- Methods means simply some techniques or procedures used to collect and analyse data related to research questions or hypotheses.

In this chapter epistemology and theoretical perspective are grouped together in the next section under the broad heading of research philosophy. Research methodology covers the overall approach and strategy adopted towards the conduct of the research and to answer its questions. This chapter also highlights the methods of collecting data used to achieve the objectives of this study.

## **6.2 Research Philosophy**

Research philosophy relates to the development of knowledge and the nature of that knowledge. In other words, the researcher should be well aware of the nature of the contribution to the knowledge in the area of his/her research. The key stage that should be taken into account at the research design stage is the philosophy or paradigm of research to be adopted. Saunders et al. (2007) state that the research philosophy reflects the researcher's concepts for doing his/her research, which in turn lead to adding a new contribution to the knowledge. In the same vein, Creswell (2003) observes a strong link between the design of the study, i.e., the overall approach followed to solve the particular research questions, and the inquiry paradigm adopted, which sets the philosophical basis for the research.

Our epistemology and theoretical perspective influences the type of research questions that we ask: ‘Different ways of viewing the world shape different ways of researching the world’ (Crotty 1998, p.66). Several writers (e.g. Remenyi et al. 1998; Easterby-Smith et al. 2002; Collis & Hussey, 2003; Saunders et al. 2007), have stated that there are two main philosophies or ways of viewing the world that are dominant in the literature: phenomenology and positivism, and both have an important role to play in business and management research. The core differences between positivism and phenomenology are shown in Table 6.1. The phenomenological paradigm – often referred to as the interpretive paradigm – underpins the methodological approach which is adopted in this research.

Table 6.1: Comparison between the Positivist and Phenomenological Paradigms

Description	Positivist paradigm	Phenomenological paradigm
Basic beliefs:	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▪ The world is external and objective.</li> <li>▪ Observer is independent.</li> <li>▪ Science is value-free.</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▪ The world is socially constructed and subjective.</li> <li>▪ Observer is part of what is observed.</li> <li>▪ Science is driven by human interests.</li> </ul>
Researcher should:	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▪ Focus on facts.</li> <li>▪ Look for causality and fundamental laws.</li> <li>▪ Reduce phenomena to simplest elements.</li> <li>▪ Formulate hypotheses and then test them.</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▪ Focus on meaning.</li> <li>▪ Try to understand what is happening.</li> <li>▪ Look at the totality of each situation.</li> <li>▪ Develop ideas through induction from data.</li> </ul>
Preferred method included:	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▪ Operationalising concepts so that they can be measured.</li> <li>▪ Taking large samples.</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▪ Using multiple methods to establish different views of phenomena.</li> <li>▪ Small samples investigated in depth.</li> </ul>

Source: Easterby-Smith et al. (1991, p.27).

The phenomenological/interpretive paradigm is best suited for this study because it helps researchers to understand the basic meanings attached to organisational life (Saunders et al. 2007) by drawing upon multiple methods. The main purpose of the present study is an

attempt to understand and explain a particular aspect of organisational life - the current status of training practices in the SSFIC and its hotels. The paradigm also emphasises constructivism: the belief that social phenomena such as training practices develop in particular social contexts. They may seem obvious and natural to those operating in that context but to others can seem strange and represent a distinctive culture.

A number of sources (e.g. Lincoln & Guba 1985; Hammersley 2007; Lincoln & Lynham 2011) have argued that using traditional positivist criteria such as reliability and validity are not appropriate measures of research rigour and relevance within a phenomenological/interpretive paradigm. For example reliability, as usually understood is concerned with the lasting applicability of a study (Yin 2003), the consistency of results over time and the question of whether they are repeatable. There are various ways in which this can be attempted. It is often suggested that if a later investigator followed the same set of procedures, as described by the earlier investigator and conducted the same case study, the results and conclusion should be the same. Reliability in this sense cannot be demonstrated for this study since the situation in Libya changed so significantly during its course. Another test of reliability is whether another researcher conducting the study at the same time would obtain the same data and draw the same conclusions. In a country such as Libya where access is dependent on connections it is highly unlikely that a UK researcher, say, would be told the same things, or would interpret events in the same way. Some sources argue that one can never replicate the results and conclusions (Burawoy 2003).

This study follows Golafshani (2003) who suggests that when reliability and validity are used in such research they need to be redefined so that rigour and relevance is appropriately reflected and that any errors and biases arising out of the study are minimised. In terms of reliability Lincoln and Guba (1985) proposed the alternative term *dependability*: is there

enough evidence provided to convince one that the research has been rigorously conducted, the findings make sense and seem relevant;

Validity as interpreted for this research is the extent to which methods used, theoretical constructs developed and conclusions drawn are well founded and correspond to the real world. A valid study is one that has properly collected and interpreted its data so that the conclusions accurately reflect and represent the situation and context investigated (Yin 2011). In other words validity is concerned with the integrity of the conclusions that are generated from a piece of research (Bryman and Bell, 2003). Terms that convey similar meanings are *trustworthiness* of results, *authenticity* of data, and *credibility* of findings.

As far as possible the research has followed the guidelines of Maxwell (2009) who recommends that in order to reduce threats to validity in obtaining and analysing case study research data the following seven steps are undertaken:

1. Intensive long-term field involvement –obtain a complete and in-depth understanding of field situations including any opportunities to make repeated observations and interviews.
2. Rich data – explain fully the field situation with detailed and varied data.
3. Respondent validation – obtain feedback from the people studied to lessen the misinterpretation of their self-reported responses.
4. Search for discrepant evidence and negative cases – to test rival or competing explanations.
5. Triangulation – collect converging evidence from different sources.
6. Descriptive statistics – provide actual numbers and %s wherever possible instead of using adjectives such as ‘many’ or ‘few’.

7. Comparison – compare explicitly results across different settings, groups or events.

These steps provide a broad framework but have not been undertaken fully as the opportunity to do so was not available. For example, long-term field involvement was not undertaken; however extensive field visits were used. In these visits, a mixed methods approach was seen as an appropriate way to strengthen the validity/trustworthiness/relevance of findings (Yin 2011) by generating a range of rich data from a variety of sources, enable triangulation and provide corroborative evidence. Therefore, this research employed five research methods (questionnaires, semi-structured interviews, archival data, observations and field notes). In addition, the questionnaire sample is selected from various locations as shown in Tables 6.7 and 6.8. Wherever appropriate, numerical data has been provided. For example the Chapter 7 analysis provides a set of descriptive statistical tables of responses in which precise numbers and %s are presented.

### **6.3 Research methodology: Types of research**

According to Brotherton (2008) there are three key types of research: exploratory, descriptive and explanatory. The key features are outlined in Table 6.2.

Table 6.2: The goals of exploratory, descriptive and explanatory research

<b>Exploratory research</b>	<b>Descriptive research</b>	<b>Explanatory research</b>
Become familiar with the basic facts, people and concerns involved.	Provide an accurate profile of a group or an organisation.	Determine the accuracy of a principle or theory.
Create and develop a general mental picture of what is happening.	Describe a process, mechanism or relationship.	Find out which of several explanations is best.
Generate new ideas and develop tentative theories and conjectures.	Rely on new data to compare with previous data	Advance knowledge about an underlying process.
Determine the feasibility of doing additional research.	Give a verbal or numerical picture.	Link different issues or topics under a common general statement.
Formulate questions and refine issues for more systematic enquiry.	Find information to stimulate new explanations.	Build and elaborate a theory so it becomes complete.
Develop techniques and a sense of direction for future research.	Reports on the background or context of a situation.	Extend a theory or principle into new areas or issues.
	Create a set of categories or classify types.	Provide evidence to support or refute an explanation.
	Clarify a sequence, set of stages or steps.	
	Document information that helpful to explain a specific subject.	

Source: Adapted from Neuman (2006).

In light of the above, this research has elements of all three. Exploratory research is an appropriate approach with discussion of facts and issues of a specific area that has previously been neglected or had little written about it (Neuman, 2006). An exploratory study is a valuable means of finding out ‘what is happening; to seek new insights; to ask questions and to assess phenomena in a new light’ (Robson, 2002, p.59). It is particularly useful if you wish to clarify your understanding of a problem, such as if you are unsure of the precise nature of the problem. The exploratory element, for example, enabled the researcher to become familiar with the basic facts and concerns about training. The descriptive element focused on providing an accurate verbal and numerical picture of what was discovered. The explanatory element was concerned with establishing why things happen. One key outcome from the

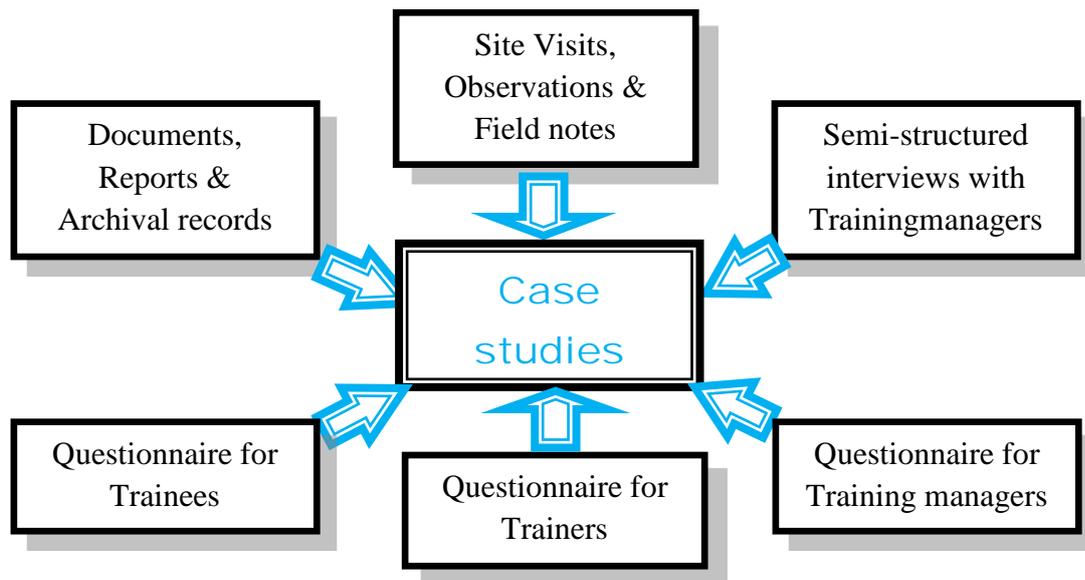
explanatory element includes making recommendations that can help the SSFIC in overcoming the difficulties faced and change its situation for the better. Another key outcome involves explaining relationships between the approach adopted towards training within SSFIC and the overall Libyan context.

#### **6.4 Research methodology: case study design**

This section clarifies the strategy and the appropriate methods employed in the present study. Many authors, e.g. Hakim (1987), Yin (2003a), Agnaia (1996), have pointed out that there is no one type of research which is entirely appropriate, but each one has its own distinctive characteristics. In this regard, it is worth mentioning that the appropriate kind of research design should be selected in accordance with the nature of the questions to be asked, and the resources and time available (Hakim, 1987). However, it should be noted that the environment appropriate to apply specific research findings may not be suitable or successful in other environments.

The study aims to investigate the training and development practices and programmes in two organisations operating within the hotel sector in Libya, namely the SSFIC and the Corinthia hotel. After the researcher had reviewed the literature of research approaches in social science generally, and particularly in human resources management/development and the area of hospitality, a mixed methods approach design that elicits both quantitative and qualitative data was adopted within an overarching case study framework.

**Figure 6.2: Multiple sources of evidence used in the case studies**



Source: Prepared by the researcher

The case study approach, drawing upon a range of research methods has many advantages, for instance, it allows one to combine different methods for collecting evidence whether qualitatively and / or quantitatively, in order to describe, verify, or generate data that explain phenomena in unique contexts (Yin, 2003).

The use of a case study as a successful approach has been clearly seen since the early years of the last century. Agnaia (1996) considers the first use of the case study to be the five volume study of ‘The Polish Peasant’ by William Isaac Thomas and Florian Znaniecki written between 1918 and 1920. They used largely personal documents, diaries and letters. According to Paulin et al. (1982), the case study is the most appropriate research design because it can present good empirical evidence. Naama (2007) agrees with Bell (1993) that a case study methodology is particularly appropriate for individual researchers, because it gives the opportunity for one aspect of a problem to be studied in depth within a limited time scale. Bell also asserts that one of the key advantages of the case study methodology lies in making the researcher more focused on a particular instance or situation. Case studies are usually inductive. Yin (1994) takes a different position when he contends that the main disadvantage

of selecting case studies is that they do not allow for the generalisation of findings to broader perspectives. There is a compromise position between the two perspectives.

### **6.5 Research methodology: Qualitative and quantitative research**

There are two main methodological emphases to conducting research, these being, qualitative and quantitative (Yin, 2003b); Hussey & Hussey, 1997). The literature on research methods often suggests that the quantitative approach is helpful for theory verification; while most qualitative approaches are useful for theory generation. Each approach has specific characteristics. Qualitative research is based on collecting in-depth information, and quantitative research is based on large amounts of numerical data that can be statistically generalised (Hussey & Hussey, 1997). Berg (2001) describes qualitative research as referring to definitions, meanings, concepts, characteristics, symbols, metaphors, and descriptions of things, whilst quantitative research refers to the counting and measuring of certain specified items.

In order to describe and evaluate training practices in the Libyan hotel industry through obtaining broad and comprehensive views, multiple methods that incorporated both quantitative and qualitative aspects were adopted. Saunders et al. (2007) state that, “Using multiple methods can provide better opportunities to answer a research question and to evaluate the extent to which findings may be trusted and inferences made” (p.154). In Agnaia’s view (1996), using a mixed approach, for example questionnaires and interviews, for gathering data minimises the percentage of mistakes or disadvantages and at the same time secures more benefits. Mingers and Gill (1997) likewise argue that the mixed method is an appropriate approach to achieve this type of research. A mixed method research design was adopted to achieve the purpose of this research, and to overcome the limitations of some previous studies that only used one method of data collection, either quantitative or

qualitative. This study adopted a quantitative method (questionnaire) to gain information from trainees and trainers, supported by qualitative methods such as semi-structured interviews conducted with the training managers in order to generate rich descriptions and to obtain additional comments and observations from this category. More details in section 6.9.

## **6.6 Research methods**

There are several methods of data collection, such as: questionnaires, interviews, observation and documentary analysis, and, as indicated above, one can use a combination of these methods, according to the nature of the data to be collected (Yin, 2003a; Saunders et al. 2007). The main ones used are discussed below.

### **6.6.1 Methods of data collection**

#### **6.6.1.1 Site visits**

The researcher conducted site visits during the course of three visits to Libya (See Appendix 10 for a summary table). In August 2008, the researcher visited the SSFIC, which represents the basic case in the research project in order to gain available preliminary data and to give the key people involved a brief background about the aim of the research. The second visit to Libya as shown in Table 6.3 was when the main fieldwork was carried out. It commenced on the 1st April 2009, and data collection commenced on the 4th of the same month, after visiting the Faculty of Accounting in the University of Gharian to obtain a letter confirming that the research was to be conducted by one of the academic staff. This kind of letter is usually an important requirement for gaining authorisation to deal with official institutions in all parts of the country. This letter was given to the Office of Administrative Affairs in the SSFIC, and after three days the researcher received permission from the top management to collect the required data from the management of the SSFIC and its hotels. During several visits to the SSFIC, the researcher conducted introductory interviews, i.e. informal interviews

and discussions with some staff in different departments, for example, Administrative Affairs, OPS, and DTD. The researcher obtained fundamental information about the training issue within the SSFIC and its hotels through these meetings. In accordance with these data, the researcher selected hotels that are all located in Tripoli, because the capital city is characterised by a tourist boom, also most training programmes target these hotel more than others, especially those which are located in small cities.

**Table 6.3: The second visit to Libya (1/04/2009 – 21/05/2009)**

Activity	Date
Translation of the questionnaires from English into Arabic	3-5/4/2009
Pilot study	7-12/4/2009
Main study (distribution and collection the questionnaires)	Distribution (16-20/4/2009) Collection(26/4 – 20/5/2009)
Conducting the interviews	6-26/4/2009 (see table 6.9)
Second study (distribution and collection of questionnaires)	Distribution (4/5- 2009 Collection (9/5 2009)
Conducting the interview	7/5 2009

It should be mentioned here that the hotels in Benghazi were not targeted in the study because a Director-General of these hotels and the training managers in SSFIC confirmed that there was a very small number of training courses conducted there. The total number of selected hotels was seven.

The third visit to Libya was not planned for collecting data, because its purpose was to check on the health of the author's father, who underwent a major operation on his head. So, its duration was short (from 31st March to 10th April 2010), but it was an opportunity to visit the SSFIC to collect additional data, such as expenditures on training (see Table 6.10).

A number of fieldwork visits were conducted by the researcher to the CBAH. For example, on Monday 27th April 2009 he met with the manager of human resources. This visit aimed to take permission from CBAH to collect required data based on the two letters from the University of Gloucestershire and the Faculty of accounting in Gharian. After a week the researcher received permission from the Department of human resources to distribute the questionnaires. Next visit was in 4.5.2009 for handing the questionnaire (see section 6.6.3.2). In addition, in this visit the researcher obtained 'Employees Handbook' from the DHR which includes information about the training policy of the CBAH (see Table 6.10). In general, it should be noted that the researcher was not able to get relevant documents from CBAH due to instability in managerial structure of Training Academy during the field study (more details in section 6.10). In 7.5.2009, the researcher visited the DHR to collect the questionnaires. Concerning the Training Academy of CBAH, the researcher visited it twice; the first was for handing out the questionnaires of trainers and training manager in 7.5.2009, while the second visit was for collecting them in 9.5.2009.

#### **6.6.1.2 Observations and field notes**

The site visits provided an opportunity to observe and record what was taking place. Observation is a somewhat neglected aspect of research. Yet it can be rewarding and enlightening to pursue and, what is more, add considerably to the richness of research data (Saunders et al. 2007). Likewise, (Neuman, 2006) states that observation is one of the methods of data collection. It depends on viewing and listening carefully, i.e. the researcher uses all the senses, where he/she becomes a tool that absorbs all sources of information.

It should be mentioned that direct observation notes are one of the types of field notes. This type was adopted largely in this study. It can describe this type accurately as stated by Neuman (2006, p.400):

*the basic source of field data are notes a researcher writes immediately after leaving the field, which he/she can add to later. The notes should be ordered chronologically with the data, time, and place on each entry. They serve as a detailed description of what the researcher heard and saw in concrete, specific terms. To the extent possible, they are an exact recording the particular words, phrases, or actions.*

Based on the above discussion, observation and field notes were adopted in this research because they provided an opportunity to gather and record information about the processes, activities and people and their behaviour in their natural work environment by describing what they actually do (Sekaran, 2003). The notes are the researchers' own written records about what they have seen (Brownell, 1995). Therefore, researchers should have the ability to know what should be recorded and how to record in a reliable and accurate way for valuable data. In this aspect, the researcher had an opportunity during the field work to observe many things throughout the period of data collection (for example, during frequent fieldwork visits to the two organisations under study for collecting distributed questionnaires during the period of April to May 2009). Moreover, the researcher had an opportunity to visit the SSFIC's Training Centre, and CBAH's Training Academy, and observing some of their training rooms and facilities.

It should be noted that all people participated willingly and were happy for notes to be taken on what was seen. These observations are discussed in full in Chapters Eight and Nine to support the results of questionnaires, interviews and documents obtained.

### **6.6.1.3 Survey through questionnaires**

The study seeks to get a better understanding regarding training practices and programmes that have been adopted within Libyan hotels and the ways of their evaluation. Furthermore,

this study aimed to evaluate training programmes from perspectives of training managers, trainees and trainers. Surveys are appropriate to such studies, and can be used to explore aspects of a situation, or to search for an explanation (Robson, 2002).

Surveys were used for this particular study according to the following additional reasons:

- This type of research design is widely used in the social science research, including tourism research (Veal, 2006).
- It was the most commonly used approach among researchers in the field of hospitality industry (e.g. Pinara et al. 2011; Poulston, 2008; Baum & Devine, 2007; Connolly and McGing, 2006; Furunes, 2005; Watson, et al. 2004; Ramos et al. 2004; Avcikurt, 2003; Becton & Graetz, 2001; Jameson, 2000; Saibang & Schwindt, 1998; Wilson et al. 1998).
- It allowed the researcher to compare the findings of this study with other related studies, for example, Putra (2003), Jawili (2004), Dains (2006), Naama (2007), El-Arbi (2007), and Kassem (2008).
- The two companies selected for case study review not only gave permission to carry out the study but allowed access to a reasonably representative cross-section of the relevant population.
- It helped to cover a large number of participants of this study, which involves three groups: training managers, trainees, and trainers. It would not have been possible in the time available to obtain data from so many respondents by other means.

The use of questionnaires to conduct surveys is not only one of the most widely used methods to collect data in social research (Saunders et al 2007), it is also considered as a particularly important method for evaluating training programmes (Pearce, 1995). Accordingly, three types of questionnaires were designed in order to distribute to these three categories: training

managers, trainees and trainers. Each questionnaire took the form of a list of organised questions that were designed to obtain information, attitudes, views and beliefs of respondents about a specific topic (Sekaran, 2003, Saunders et al., 2007).

The important aspects that were considered during the design stage of the questionnaire are as follows:

- The questions were clearly focused to elicit the response that are of relevant and interest to the research without collecting extraneous information.
- Particular care was taken to ensure that the questions are clear and unambiguous.
- The questions were tested prior to the pilot stage to estimate the time required to answer and to ensure that all respondents are competent to answer. The purpose of the pilot testing is to refine the questionnaire, and ensure that the respondents will face no problems in answering the questions. In addition, it allows assessment of the question's validity, reliability and enables investigative questions to be answered for preliminary analysis (Finn et al, 2000 and Saunders et al, 2003).
- As a positive result of pilot testing, the three groups in the pilot study made minor comments about some questions, which were taken into account (see the pilot study, Chapter 6, section 6.6.3.1, p. 177).

This case study research is a typical instance of a phenomenological study. It is concerned with obtaining rich data from respondents and informants who have experienced the phenomena being investigated in order to explain why something is occurring. This lends itself to purposive sampling. Purposive sampling is a form of non-probability sampling that is used when the researcher has a particular end in view and often a specific pre-determined population in mind (Trochim, 2006). This has similar features to the comparative study undertaken into training transfer in Australian hotels (Putra, 2004) where non-probability

purposive sampling was undertaken with trainees and trainers who were chosen because they had direct experience of the phenomenon being investigated.

### 6.6.2 Sample population and response rate to questionnaires

The main aim of this study is to evaluate training practices and programmes in Libyan hotels. The study focuses particularly on the public sector hotels, because it has been the dominant sector for many years. However, over the past few years, the country has moved towards privatising many public companies, and has also encouraged individuals to establish private businesses, for example, in education and health. The SSFIC has been selected as a case study because at the beginning of the research it owned 18 of the major hotels in several Libyan cities as shown in the following Table 6.3.

**Table 6.4: Hotels of the SSFIC**

Hotel Name	Location	Number of Rooms
1. Al-Kabeer Hotel	Tripoli	334
2. Bab Al-Bahr Hotel	Tripoli	404
3. Tebesty Hotel	Benghazi	-
4. Aozo Hotel	Benghazi	-
5. Al- Mahari Hotel	Tripoli	After maintenance, it has been opened recently on 23/11/2009 under a new name: Radisson Blu (SAS)
6. Janzour Tour village	Tripoli	376
7. Garyunis Tour village	Benghazi	-
8. Al-Wahat Hotel	Tripoli	304
9. Zaytouna Hotel	BabiWalid	34
10. Zliten Hotel	Zliten	64
11. Al-Jabal Hotel	Sebha	25
12. Ghozettik Hotel	Misurata	172
13. Al-Rabta Hotel	Gharian	68
14. Bab Al-Jadid Hotel	Tripoli	-
15. Kasr Al-Baydaa Hotel	Al-Baydaa	Under maintenance.
16. Shahat Shore Cabins	Shahat	It is under maintenance.
17. Derna Hotel	Derna	After its maintenance, it was opened on 14/9/2009.
18. Tubruq Hotel	Tubruq	A contract is made for its development and operation will start during 2009.

Source: SSFIC, 2009

Due to the limited time and cost, it was not possible to investigate all of these. With one exception the study was targeted at hotels that are all located in Tripoli, because the capital city is characterised by a tourist boom. One hotel is situated in Gharian because the researcher is a resident of this city. The total number of selected hotels is seven. By contrast, there was only one hotel from the Corinthia chain, which was selected as a small international case to compare the training issues with local hotels. With regard to the characteristics of the sample, chapter eight will present a profile of those characteristics, which will ensure the reader has a complete picture of those who participated in the acquisition of data through questionnaires, interviews and documents.

The combination of a survey and two case studies (using questionnaires, semi-structured interviews and documentation reviews) has enabled the researcher to gain a relatively comprehensive view of the issues studied.

Within the seven SSFIC hotels that were selected as a population 537 people were targeted for this research study. 510 were attendees on training courses, 7 were training managers in the SSFIC, while 20 trainers were from different training centres which the SSFIC dealt with. Within the CBAH, 29 people participated in this survey, 25 trainees, 3 trainers and the Head of Academy Training.

### **6.6.3 Questionnaires design, distribution and collection**

#### **6.6.3.1 Questionnaires' design**

The design process of the questionnaire included several stages.

##### **(a) Developing Questionnaire**

The first stage in designing the questionnaire started in the second academic year (2008) with a review of the literature and a number of questionnaires used in previous related research (e.g. Agnaia, 1996a; Putra, 2003; Al-Ali, 1999; Kassem, 2008; Bayoud, 2000; Zhao, 1999;

Wang, 2008). Some changes were made to adapt the questions to the Libyan training and development context.

In the design phase of the questionnaire, through regular meetings with supervisors and some PhD students who are specialists in the field of human resource management, many discussions were held to improve and refine the content and formulation of each question. In addition, before travelling to Libya at the beginning of April 2009 to conduct the field study, some final valuable comments on three types of questionnaires were given by the supervisors: Professor John Walton and Mr Mike Deakin during the meetings on the 23rd and 24th of February 2009, and the meeting with Mr Mike Deakin on the 30th of March 2009.

After travelling to Libya, the three types of questionnaires were translated from English into Arabic by the researcher himself first; then, revised with the assistance of the Al-Qubes centre for translation and some Libyan linguists to ensure the correctness of the translation process. The first Arabic version of the questionnaire was checked and discussed with some Academic colleagues in the University of Al-Jabal El-Gharbi, where some comments were suggested regarding the structure of questions. For example, “the respondents should be given enough time to answer all the questions; and the list of questions should not be too long”.

#### **(b) The pilot study**

In this stage, the questionnaire was pilot tested to ensure its reliability and clarity (Aagnaia, 1996) among a small selected sample of three target groups in the present study. The researcher preferred to do this study in Libya during the fieldwork, which represents the research environment. Due to the limited time of the study, the pilot study targeted only SSFIC. 40 questionnaires (30 for trainees, 5 for training managers and 5 for trainers) were given to the Head of Administrative Affairs (HAA) by hand to distribute. All the

questionnaires were distributed by hand as confirmed by the HAA. The number completed and returned was as follows: 25 from the trainees, 5 from the training managers and 3 from the trainers.

All the questionnaires were in Arabic. Due to the previous feedback from the three academic staff who are interested in HR in the Faculty of Accounting in the University of Al-Jabal El-Gharbi, the questionnaires were more appropriate. Moreover, the three groups in the pilot study made comments about some questions, which were taken into account, i.e. some amendments were made to the questionnaire, whether adding, cancelling or rephrasing some questions. For example the third and fourth options were deleted in the following question:

Are there any training courses taking place outside the hotel? Yes/ No/ A few/ A lot.

Adding new questions included:

Does the company or the hotel grant incentives to the trainees after the end of session? Yes/ Sometimes/ No/ If yes, please specify.

The result of the pilot test was positive, which revealed that the questionnaire and cover letter were appropriate and understandable for the target sample through their access to the information to complete the questionnaire.

### **(c) Styles of the questions**

By reviewing the training literature in Chapter Three, the researcher enhanced his knowledge about the concept of training and development, particularly in the hospitality industry to generate the questionnaire questions. As mentioned above, these questions were derived from some previous studies, and developed to include multiple choice or 'Yes' or 'No' questions, others were open-ended questions. Examples of these questions are as follows.

- Multiple choice (Did you see that the duration of the training course was: Too short/ Appropriate duration/ Too long).
- ‘Yes’ or ‘No’ questions (Are there any training courses taking place outside the hotel? Yes/No).
- Open-ended questions (If the objectives of training were not fully achieved, what were the main reasons?).

As mentioned previously the selected sample for the study included three groups, i.e. there are three different types of questionnaires. The styles of the questions are shown in the following table.

**Table 6.5: The structure of the questionnaire**

Target sample Type of questions	Trainees	Training managers	Trainers
	Number		
Multiple choice	21	10	6
Yes’ or ‘No’	3	2	1
Open-ended	3	3	2
Total	27	15	9

**(d) Themes covered by the questions**

Table 6.6 shows the type of questions and summarises how many themes have been covered in the study under investigation. The questions of each type of the questionnaire were divided into several sections. The themes covered by the questions included the trainees’ profiles: gender, position, work experience, and nationality. In accordance with the operating framework presented in Chapter 3 as figure 3.6 the questions related to training have been divided under three main themes: (a) Pre-training, (b) During training, and (c) Post-training.

**Table 6.6: Themes covered by the questions**

Trainees	Training Managers	Trainers
<p><b>Section (a) Pre-training</b></p> <p>Nomination (Q.6)            Information about training courses before holding (Q.7)            Type of training chosen (Q.8 )            The number of participants on the training course (Q.9)            The duration of the training course (Q.10)</p>	<p><b>Section (a) Pre-training</b></p> <p>Training policy &amp; plan (Q.3)            Training objectives (Q.1 &amp; 4)            Choice of location (Q.2)</p>	<p><b>Section (a) Pre-training</b></p> <p>Training objectives (Q.1)</p>
<p><b>Section (b) During training</b></p> <p>The content of training courses (Q.14)            Training methods (Q.15 &amp; 16)            The equipment, facilities and location of the training courses (Q.18)            Competence and effectiveness of trainers (Q.19,20)</p>	<p><b>Section (b) During training</b></p> <p>Training methods (Q.11)</p>	<p><b>Section (b) During training</b></p> <p>Training methods (Q.4)            Training evaluation methods adopted(Q.3)            Relevance of content(Q.7)</p>
<p><b>Section (c) Post-training</b></p> <p>Assessment of training policy &amp; plan (Q.13)            Training benefits and ability to apply (transfer) (Q.11, 12 &amp; 21)            Training incentives (Q.17)            General assessment of training programmes (Q.23)</p>	<p><b>Section (c) Post-training</b></p> <p>Assessment of policy &amp; plan (Q.14)            Achievement of training objectives (Q. 5)            Training evaluation (Q.6,7,8,9,10,12 &amp; 14)            Training incentives (Q.13)</p>	<p><b>Section (c) Post-training</b></p> <p>Assessment of policy &amp; plan (Q.8)            Training evaluation (Q.2,3,5,6)</p>

### **6.6.3.2 Questionnaires distribution and collection**

Questionnaires may be self-administered to the target sample, via several methods, such as by telephone, face-to-face interviews, or by post. Moreover, questionnaires can be delivered by hand to each participant (Saunders et al. 2007), which was similar to the procedure adopted in the current study.

In this stage, Arabic copies of the questionnaire (see Appendix 11 for example) were distributed to the majority of respondents (three groups) in SSFIC, with the exception of four questionnaires in English which were distributed to some British instructors, who work with Awardbrand training centre, located in Tripoli (see Table 6.6). Also, five questionnaires in English were distributed to the participants in CBAH, three trainers, only one trainee and the Head of Training Academy.

The three questionnaires were distributed by hand, which took longer than distribution by mail. This way was adopted in the process of distribution because the postal services in Libya were not an efficient means to send and receive these questionnaires within the time available to complete them (Jwaili, 2006). The questionnaires for training managers and trainers were delivered by hand to the respective places of work and left for them to fill out, and then collected on a subsequent occasion, whereas the questionnaires for trainees were delivered by hand as well, but they were given to the Heads of Administrative Affairs in selected hotels in order to distribute them to the employees who had attended training courses. The researcher used this way because the parent company and its hotels did not have an accurate list showing the number and names of staff who had attended training sessions before. Delivering questionnaires by hand ensures a high response rate from respondents (Oppenheim, 1992).

In addition, delivering the questionnaires by hand gave the researcher an opportunity to discuss them with the Heads of Administrative Affairs in selected hotels to clarify any misunderstandings. These managers were then able to deal with any questions from the respondents. Consequently, the researcher ensured that all questions were clear and they would be answered. There were several obstacles which faced the researcher during the process of distribution and collection of the questionnaires. The main problem is the time factor; but the researcher was fortunate at this stage. He found a very cooperative manager, who works in the Bab-Bahur Hotel; he did his best to help the researcher in this task in that hotel and with other hotels, because he has good relationships with all managers in administrative affairs in those hotels. For example, he contacted all the managers after we first met. It was a good chance to make appointments with those managers. The researcher would like to mention this manager, because he was one among the rare people who appreciated how important this research is, and thus he was a good example in the researcher's view.

The researcher visited the CBAH, specifically the Department of Human Resources, to distribute the questionnaires on 4.5.2009. 50 questionnaires for trainees were given to this Department for distribution to the employees who attended training courses. The questionnaires were handed to this Department because the receptionist at the hotel and the Head of Human Resources confirmed that the Head of the Training Academy was not available to meet because she had only just taken up her post. However, the researcher met with her on 7.5.2009 after an appointment made by telephone. The purpose of the meeting was to explain the process of distributing and collection of questionnaires from training managers and trainers, as well as to answer any enquiries. The final visit to the

CBAH was on 9.5.2009 to collect the questionnaires from the Head of Training Academy and the Head of Human Resources(details about the rates of response, see section 6.8).

### **6.7 Why three groups?**

To serve the purpose of this study, the data were collected by multiple sources and from different organisational levels to ensure access to more comprehensive data. Information about policies and training plans came from training managers, while the participation of trainers and trainees helped in verifying the implementation of these plans on the ground through various training programmes carried out by the training organisations, whether internal or external. Accordingly, the aim of designing a variety of questions in accordance with the nature of the work of each target group is that this would address the most important issues in this study. In other words, when collecting data about training policies or plans, the people responsible for training activities, i.e. training managers, will be able to provide useful information in answer to such questions as:

- Are there specific objectives for the training programmes?
- To what extent have the objectives of the training programmes been achieved?

This is simply because training managers will be able to see the value of the training in relation to the organisation's goals (Putra, 2004).Similarly, questions to provide useful data from trainees include:

- What were the benefits that you achieved through your attendance of the training sessions?

- Do you think that the methods of training were appropriate for your training needs?

Questions to provide useful data from trainers include:

- Are there specific objectives for conducting the evaluation process?
- Do you have a method that you adopt in the evaluation of training for trainees?

On the other hand, there were general or similar questions in order to obtain more precise information from the three groups. For example:

- Are there any training courses taking place outside the hotel?
- What are the methods used in the implementation of training courses?

## **6.8 Rates of response**

### **- SSFIC**

510 questionnaires were distributed to trainees working in different departments at the SSFIC and seven of its hotels. The number completed and returned was 201, i.e. the rate of responses was 39.41%. One reason for the low rate of response lies in the fact that the target hotels and the parent company did not have an accurate list showing the number and names of staff who had attended training sessions before, as mentioned in section 6.6.3.2. The response rate of Furunes' study (2005) in the Norwegian hospitality sector was approximately 30%, i.e. 56 questionnaires returned out of 185. In addition, in Baum and Devine's study (2007) in the hotel sector in Northern Ireland, 64 questionnaires returned from 150, i.e. the response rate was about 43%.

Seven questionnaires were distributed to the second target group (training managers) who work in the SSFIC. Within SSFIC there are three key units for training activity. The top unit is the OPS, and four questionnaires were distributed there. The second unit is called HRM, whilst the third one is the DTD, which works under HRM. One questionnaire was filled in by the HDHR, and two questionnaires were filled in by managers within the DTD. All the questionnaires were completed and returned.

The third group was trainers; the number of distributed questionnaires was twenty, and ten were returned (50%). A random sample was chosen for the category of trainers from different external training organisations that the SSFIC deals with.

**- CBAH**

50 questionnaires were distributed by hand to trainees working in different departments at the CBAH. These questionnaires were given to one of the managers of human resource in the hotel during her face-to-face interview in April 2009. The researcher explained the purpose of this study and discussed with her the questionnaire's questions; she confirmed that all questions are clear. 25 were completed and returned by the participants. The rate of responses was 50%. The trainers' questionnaires and the questionnaire of the Head of Training Academy (HTA) were given to the HTA by hand to distribute, where 10 questionnaires were distributed to trainers; only three were returned (30%). One questionnaire was distributed to the HTA. Tables (6.7) and (6.8) below display the number of trainees and trainers participating in the survey of selected hotels, and the percentages of responses.

**Table 6.7: Questionnaires were completed and returned by trainees**

SSFIC			
No:	The SSFIC and its hotels	Trainees	
		N*	%*
1-	The SSFIC	14	7%
2-	Al-Kaber Hotel	33	16.4%
3-	Bab Al-Bahr Hotel	29	14.4%
4-	Al- Mahari Hotel	62	30.8%
5-	Bab Al-Jadid Hotel	22	11%
6-	Al-Wahat Hotel	24	12%
7-	Janzour Tour village	13	6.4%
8-	Al-Rabta Hotel	4	2%
Total		201	100%
CBAH			
1-	Corinthia Bab Africa Hotel	25	100%

\*(N): the number of participants in the survey.\*(%): percentage

**Table 6.8: Number of the trainer participants from different training centres**

SSFIC		
Training centre	N	P
SSFIC's Training Centre	2	20%
Awardbrand	4	40%
High Academy Studies	1	10%
Arab Union for Technical Education	2	20%
Alalamia	1	10%
Total	10	100%
CBAH		
Training Academy Centre	3	100%

## 6.9 Interviews

Interviews can be divided into three types: structured, semi-structured and unstructured, according to the extent to which the questions, and the order in which they are asked, are planned in advance of data collection (Sekaran, 2003, Saunders et al., 2007). An

unstructured interview is a normal conversation, where the questions are generated from the context of the situation. While a semi-structured interview is intended to discuss certain issues, there is no specific order in which topics should be covered. It allows for the researcher to add new questions or cancel some previous questions in accordance with the current status of the interview. The adoption of semi-structured interviews allows the researcher more flexibility in presenting questions, as it is not necessary to ask the same questions at all the interviews. Most importantly, in this type of interview, the researcher can ensure that the respondents understand the questions and their replies are also understood by the interviewer (Sekaran, 2003). A structured interview is described as the most systematic format of interviews. It usually involves specific questions that should be asked in a specific order.

In this study, semi-structured interviews were conducted with three of the seven training managers who were responsible for training activity in the SSFIC and who participated in the survey questionnaire. Table 6.8 shows their departments. The first informant was one of the officials in the OPS, another interview was with the HDHR, and the third person was the HDTD. Three interviews were conducted with the first informant on different days, because the interviewee pointed to important documents that could be available in future meetings. The purpose of the interviews was to get more information about the issues under study which were not covered in the questionnaire. For example, the existence of a contract between SSFIC and Suma Company was discovered in answer to the question: Why have most training programmes targeted the employees in the Al-Mahari Hotel? One of the training managers described the current situation of the SSFIC

and the key difficulties faced. Also, most of the archival data was obtained through these interviews.

All the interviews were conducted in the workplace of the training managers, i.e. in the parent company (SSFIC), and in the Arabic language, the researcher's mother tongue, which enabled the researcher to understand each word and expression during the interview. During the interviews the researcher took notes because all the respondents refused to be tape-recorded, which is common in Arabic society due to cultural issues (El-Arbi, 2007). After each interview the researcher thanked the respondent for his time and participation.

The researcher followed the guidance of Easterby-Smith et al (1991, 2002), in leaving enough time between the interviews to allow sufficient time to write notes and think about data, and possibly to explore some issues raised.

During the interviewing process the researcher had an opportunity to collect other materials relevant to the study, such as company documents, archival records, training policies and plans. Additionally, he took advantage of a great deal of co-operation in SSFIC, especially from the OPS. It was a good opportunity for the researcher to take a quick look at these documents and discuss the key points. Therefore, most of the interviews lasted about two hours. Accordingly, some questions were cancelled in order to save time because their answers already found in these documents. The following table 6.9 shows summary data about these interviews.

**Table 6.9: The schedule of interviews with training managers in the SSFIC**

Department	Number of interviewees	Number of interviews	Duration of interview	Date
Planning and Studies	1	3	1.45 hours	06.4.2009
			2.5 hours	16.4.2009
			1.5 hours	29.4.2009
Training and Development	1	1	2 hours	29.4.2009
Human Resources	1	1	15 minutes	26.4.2009

The questions of the interviews focused on the following points:

- What are the key difficulties in training faced by the SSFIC and its hotels?
- Is there cooperation with other parties such as the private sector or the hospitality education institutions regarding the training issues?
- Why have most training programmes targeted the employees in the Al-Mahari Hotel?
- What is your assessment of the training programmes provided locally or overseas?
- Why has the company resorted to the implementation of some training courses abroad, especially in some Arab countries such as Tunisia and Jordan?
- Are there any training activities conducted within the hotels, i.e. in the workplace?

### **6.10 Archival data**

The current study uses archival data and documentation (secondary source of data collection) such as written materials. This has allowed a good understanding of the

issues under investigation to be obtained and overall research aims to be achieved. According to Silverman (2010), documentary work could be the main undertaking of qualitative research. Yin (2003a) indicated that documentation which includes administrative documents is likely to be relevant in every case study that is the object of explicit data. In addition, document analysis allows a deep understanding which other sources of data may not be able to provide such as questionnaire or interview (Patton, 2002). Yin again (2003, p.87) claimed that “the most important use of documents is to corroborate and augment evidence from other sources”, but this researcher found that the documents obtained were invaluable in their own right in setting a clear background to the issue being investigated. Brownell (1995) suggests that the case study research should look for the documentary evidence which assists in the establishment of validity of the phenomena. It may contain final reporting that is related to the T&D practices and programmes, the hierarchy of organisation, organisation objectives, and any other relevant documents.

Archival data for this study was collected from the parent company (SSFIC) in Tripoli, during a research visit to Libya in August 2008 and during the main fieldwork between April and May 2009. These include documents, training policies and training reports for 2007-2009. The following table (6.10) shows source documents.

Archival data were inspected and translated because they give the researcher other important evidence in addition to the questionnaire and interviews about the T&D practices and programmes implemented by the selected organisations (SSFIC & CBAH). It comprises official sources from the SSFIC, such as foundation and legal status,

organisational structure, workforce, strategic plan, general policies, the structure of the training function and published reports (see Chapter Five).

The data obtained from the documents, helped the researcher to develop a general understanding of the basic meanings of organisational life and several issues regarding the training programmes, policies and plans. To summarise, there were several advantages of the use of documentary analysis through the experience of the researcher. Firstly it provides basic context information about the issue being investigated. Secondly it allows the researcher to assess and check the quality and reliability of the data collected by other methods. Thirdly, it allows the researcher to avoid repeating the data collection process by other methods due to limited time.

Concerning the CBAH, it was not possible to get relevant documents from this organisation due to several reasons, for example, instability in managerial structure of training department because during the field study in April/May 2009, the new Head of the Training Academy who was commissioned to manage this section a few days ago was unable to provide complete information. Moreover, this function has become vacant since the end of 2010. This situation caused difficulty in obtaining full data about training, such as reports and statistics etc. to compare it with SSFIC, addition to other unknown reasons.

**Table 6.10: Documents and reports referred to in thesis**

<b>SSFIC</b>		
<b>Document type</b>	<b>Date obtained</b>	<b>Obtained from</b>
Training courses implemented from Nov 07 to Dec 2008	2008	The Office of Planning and Studies
Investment Projects	May 2009	Bab-Babur Hotel
The workforce within the SSFIC and its hotels	April 2009	Administrative Affairs and Human Resources
Organisational structure	April 2009	The Office of Planning and Studies
Report of 2008	May 2009	Bab-Babur Hotel
GSP of SSFIC 2008-2012	April 2009	The Office of Planning and Studies
Training courses 2008 & 2009	April 2009	The Office of Planning & Studies
Training plan 2009	April 2009	The Office of Planning & Studies
Trainee end of course reaction sheets	April 2009	Department of training & Development
Trainers reports including assessments of trainees	April 2009	The Office of Planning & Studies
Training needs analysis form (recently introduced)	April 2009	Department of Training & Development
Expenditures on training	March 2010	Financial Department of the SSFIC
Cost of training courses from July 2008 to 30 April 2009	April 2010	Financial Department of the SSFIC
End of course certificate	Not seen	
<b>CBAH</b>		
Document type	Date obtained	Obtained by
Corinthia Hotel International, Press Pack, 2007	2010	My friend (a PhD student)
CBAH, Employees Handbook	April 2009	Department of Human Resource
Various websites related to CBAH's activities		

**6.11 Research ethics**

Blaxter et al. (2006) points out that in social science research, responsibility and ethical issues should be the top priority. Punch (2006) claimed that all social research involves ethical issues because the research seeks to collect data from people and about people. Ethical issues are of more importance when selecting qualitative approaches because this approach intrudes to some extent into people's lives more than other approaches (Punch,

2006). Ethics in this context refers to the appropriateness of behaviour in relation to the rights of those who become the subject of the study, or are affected by it (Saunders et al. 2007). All of these ethical considerations need to be taken into account in real world studies (Robson (2002), of which this research is an example.

Throughout the current study, the researcher followed all the University of Gloucestershire's ethics guidelines. All the participants in this research from the three target groups were informed of the purpose of the research, the time required and confidentiality of the data provided. For example, in the case of questionnaires survey, each questionnaire included a preface clarifying the main purpose of this study, and urged the respondents to recognise the importance of their role in achieving the goals of this work through their cooperation in giving accurate responses with anonymity, and assured them that this questionnaire would not be used for any purpose other than this study. With regard to interviews with training managers, appropriate appointments were arranged with target sample and the purpose of the study was introduced at the outset of each interview. Furthermore, those people had information about the purpose of this research in advance, because following official letters from the University of Gloucestershire and the Faculty of Accounting at the University of Gharian, the company management circulated an official letter to all departments and its hotels to allow the researcher to collect the required data from the parent company and its hotels in accordance with the purpose of research.

For reasons of confidentiality, the names of the interviewees remain anonymous. The participants also were assured of the confidentiality of their replies. In addition, the

researcher has offered to provide the participants with a copy of the research findings if they would like.

In conclusion, in this research, there were no potential ethical difficulties arising from the distribution of questionnaires or conducting interviews, since these people participated willingly.

## **6.12 Analysis of data**

### **6.12.1 Analysis of annual training reports (archival data)**

Five steps were undertaken as follows:

- 1- Two annual training reports were collected from the SSFIC during the visits to Libya. The first report was collected from the OPS before the field work in August 2008. This report includes the training programmes that were implemented in 2007 and 2008. The second report which covers 2009 was obtained from the same office during the second visit to Libya, i.e. during the field work, which was in April 2009.
- 2- The training programmes covered in these reports were divided into two groups: internal courses, those that were delivered in the country, and external courses delivered overseas. The internal courses were then segmented into two types: (a) courses that were implemented by the SSFIC's Training Centre, and (b) courses that were conducted by independent training centres in Tripoli.

- 3- All training programmes were translated from Arabic into English. Translation was revised with the assistance of the University of Gloucestershire language support tutors.
- 4- To facilitate analysis and comparison training programmes were then further classified into four types: English language, computing, behavioural skills, and professional subjects.
- 5- The final stage in the analysis of the archival data (training reports) was a tabular comparison of all named training programmes to highlight all the similarities and differences over the three year period of this study.

#### **6.12.2 Data analysis of questionnaires**

After the fieldwork was completed in May 2009 and before travelling back to the UK, the researcher started sorting and classifying of data from all the questionnaires in order to give coding and numbering to all the questionnaires that were useable from all selected hotels. Then the researcher began the analysis when he returned to the UK, using the following process:

The first step was translating from Arabic into English language all the responses to the open-questions of the questionnaires and the interview transcripts. Then the translation was revised by English teachers in the University of Gloucestershire to ensure the correctness of the translation.

The second step involved reading through all responses of questionnaires and interview transcripts, notes, documents and other data, to become intimate with the data as

recommended by Huberman and Miles (2002), who stated that prior to sifting and sorting data the researcher must familiarise himself with its diversity and gain an overview about the gathered material.

The third step involved an initial categorization of the collected data, classifying it into meaningful categories (Saunders et al. 2007). When classifying respondents in this way, it became much easier to understand and control the raw data collected. This process is supported by Saunders et al. (2007) who further stated that some analytical strategies can be applied inductively without any pre-determined theory.

During the fourth step, the researcher continued to explore key themes and patterns or relationships among the data units. In addition to the data that was collected by questionnaires and interviews, the researcher continued using other sources of data collected during the fieldwork, such as training policies, plans and reports and other archival documents. This was for the purpose both of triangulation in order to clarify the issues and themes under investigation and also because different sources of data provide additional information and different insights.

In the final step, data collected by questionnaire was analysed through descriptive statistics that focused on frequencies and percentages (Putra, 2003) using SPSS Computer Software. Descriptive statistics are a way of organising and summarizing data and may take different forms, such as graphs, tables or charts (Weiss & Weiss, 1995 cited in Amara, 2011), as used in Chapters Five and Seven.

This study does not attempt to prove correlation or causality between variables, and therefore descriptive statistics were adequate for the purposes of allowing the researcher

to present succinctly the reactions of a number of people to a limited set of questions, and draw broad and generalizable conclusions relating to these (Patton, 2002). The findings and data analysis are presented in Chapter Seven.

### **6.12.3 Data analysis of interviews**

There is no standardised approach to the analysis of qualitative data (Saunders et al. 2003), and many strategies exist in this respect, although an analytical strategy is commonly used (Hussey & Hussey, 1997; Saunders et al, 2003). Taylor and Bogdan (1984) stated that all researchers develop their own ways of analysing qualitative data, and Yin (2003) noted that analysis consists of examining, categorising, and tabulating of data. However, in this study, regarding the interviews with the training managers in the SSFIC, it should be noted that due to the small size of the sample selected from this category (i.e. only three people, see Table 6.9), analysis of their responses was combined with the analysis of the questionnaires' findings, i.e. it was considered as a supportive source to the findings that came from these questionnaires. Three steps were undertaken as follows:

The first step, to facilitate analysis of collected data from interviews the researcher recorded the interviewees' responses by making handwritten notes, since there was no willingness amongst the interviewed people to accept tape recordings. This problem was largely due to cultural traditions, as reported in many previous studies (see section 6.9).

The second step, at the end of each interview, the researcher summarised the responses of each interviewee at home and often on the same day because the summary of the interview dialogue was still fresh in his mind, and then classification of responses to a range of themes to facilitate linking with the questionnaires' findings (see Chapters Seven

and Eight). However, for the interviews data, using the method of grouping the interviewees' responses around the critical issues, it was possible to determine their responses relating to the themes identified in the literature and other documentation.

In the third step, after returning to the UK, the researcher reviewed the interviewees' answers again and then translated them into English. The number of questions in these interviews was specific and few to avoid collecting data already obtained by questionnaires or documentary data.

### **6.13 Difficulties which emerged during the field study**

A number of difficulties were encountered that can be summarised in the following points:

- Even though the researcher arranged appointments to meet managers of administrative affairs in different hotels to give them the questionnaires, some of these appointments were cancelled because some managers were extremely busy, and it was not easy to secure another date soon after.
- Re-arrangement of new appointments took a long time due to the distance between the residence of the researcher and Tripoli. This meant the researcher travelling to Tripoli every day, and the journey 'one way' usually took about two hours, because the motorway was under maintenance at that time.
- Despite the advantages that were mentioned regarding the stage of distribution which started with Bab-Bahur Hotel, more than ten visits were arranged to collect all the questionnaires. There were two reasons behind this problem: the first

reason lies in the fact that the hotel did not have a list showing the number and names of staff who had attended training sessions before. It should be said here, that this problem was prevalent among all hotels and the parent company. While the second reason was as a result of a lack of attention being paid to this questionnaire by some staff, for unknown reasons.

- There was instability in the managerial structure of training department in CBAH because during the field study in May 2009, the new Head of the Training Academy who was appointed to manage this section a few days ago was unable to provide complete information. Moreover, this function has become vacant since the end of 2010. This situation caused difficulty in obtaining full data about training, such as reports and statistics etc to compare it with SSFIC.

Despite the difficulties that were encountered in the questionnaire process, a major effort was made to distribute and gather the greatest possible number of questionnaires. Relationships and personal contacts have helped in the completion of this stage. For example, many telephone calls were made with the Heads of Administrative Affairs in selected hotels in order to make sure that the questionnaires were completed before driving a long distance. This is consistent with Al-Faleh (1987), who pointed out that the social relations in the Arab world appear to be an effective means to achieve objectives, whether personal or work-related ones.

#### **6.14 Chapter summary**

This chapter has introduced the research design regarding the adopted methodology to achieve the aim and objectives of this research. The research philosophy was discussed in

this chapter, along with the reasons for adopting a phenomenological/interpretive paradigm in this study. Three key types of research: exploratory, descriptive and explanatory were discussed, as were different research strategies appropriate for the type of case study investigation being conducted. This chapter also reviewed issues associated with qualitative and quantitative research. Mixed methods of data collection were adopted for the study, as is consistent with a case study strategy involving site visits. Questionnaires, together with semi-structured interviews and archival sources were used, explained and justified. A pilot study (questionnaire) was undertaken prior to conducting the main study in the targeted organisations in Libya. A full description of the conduct of the fieldwork (the main study) was presented and clear information concerning how the data were collected and analysed. Difficulties which emerged during the field study were provided at the end of the chapter. The general limitations of the research are discussed in Chapter Nine (section 9.5). The next chapter provides presentation of the findings emerging from collected data analyses.

## **CHAPTER SEVEN: CASE STUDIES ANALYSIS AND FINDINGS**

### **7.1 Introduction**

The key aim of this chapter is to present and analyse the data collected from SSFIC and CBAH. The chapter begins by analysing the archival data obtained in order to establish the scope and extent of training provided. This is followed by an initial data analysis of the questionnaires that focuses on the elements of the systematic training cycle derived from the literature and developed in the operating framework presented in Chapter 3 as figure3.6, and as shown in Chapter 6, Table6.6, where three phases are adopted: Pre-training, during training, and post-training. Regarding the interviews with the training managers in the SSFIC, it should be noted that due to the small size of the sample selected from this category (i.e. only three people, see Chapter 6, Table 6.9), analysis of their responses is combined with the analysis of the questionnaires' findings. Where appropriate, statements have been transferred from live interviews to illustrate and clarify relevant points. A more detailed discussion of the points arising out of the questionnaires and interviews will be provided in Chapter 8.

### **7.2 Analysis of archival data**

The archival data collected from SSFIC consists of two training reports, one for the period from November 2007 to the end of 2008, and the other for 2009, in total covering 26 months, with additional information on training costs. However, the information obtained was not as comprehensive as the researcher would have liked despite his best efforts. At the time of writing SSFIC did not have a training plan for 2010, and in June

2010 no implementation schedule. A training plan was found to be in its final stages of development and expected to be ready in a few months, this was as reported by one of the training managers in the SSFIC e-mail on 27 June 2010. Similar training reports were not available to collect from CBAH. The two training reports obtained did not cover an equivalent period. The 2007/8 report was for a 14 month period as opposed to the 12 months for 2009. To complicate the situation even more, the format adopted for these two reports was different, as was the content. For example the 2009 report made no mention of programmes conducted outside of Libya. The researcher also obtained some information on training costs between 2008 and 2009 from SSFIC finance department but this also was partial and the time periods covered didn't coincide with the training reports.

Despite the absence of the 2010 training plan and the problems associated with not having fully comprehensive and comparative data, the documentation obtained provided an important source by which to identify and analyse training programmes

### **7.2.1 SSFIC Training courses from November 2007 to the end of 2009**

The SSFIC implemented many courses since its establishment in 2007 to the end of 2009.

The next tables (7.1) and (7.2) show detailed data of these courses.

**Table 7.1: Training courses implemented from November 2007 to December 2008 with number of trainees**

Kind of course	SSFIC	Al-Mahari	Hotel units	Total
	C	Hotel		
English Language	60	534	131	725

The International Computer Driving Licence	39	—	46	85
Computer programmes	—	—	78	78
International hotel management (External course)	3	—	7	10
Specialized professions	—	303	21	324
Specialized professions (External course)	—	106	68	174
Behavioural skills	—	258	—	258
Financial professions	4	27	14	45
Department of stores	3	10	15	28
Identifying training needs	7	—	30	37
Total	116	1238	410	1764

Source: Training report 2007/2008

**Table 7.2: Training courses in 2009 with number of trainees**

No.	The name of session	Hotels															SSFIC	Total	
		(1)*	(2)*	(3)*	(4)*	(5)*	(6)*	(7)*	(8)*	(9)*	(10)*	(11)*	(12)*	(13)*	(14)*	(15)*	(16)*		
1	Recent trends in HRM	2	1	1	1	1	1		1	1	1	1	2	1	1	1	3	19	
2	Identifying training needs	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	16
3	Leadership skills	1			1	1					1							2	6
4	Innovation and creative thinking	1	1		1	1		1			1	1	1			1	2	11	
5	Crisis management	1	1			1						1	1				1	6	
6	Communication skills	7	4	6	6	5	1	1	1		4	3	7	3	3	6	6	63	
7	Strategic planning																	12	12
8	Time investment	5	4	3	7	1	1	1	1		3	9	8	6	9	7	13	78	
9	Dealing with job stress	10	7	6	7	6	2	2			5	9	12	5	2	11	10	94	
10	Team work	12	10	5	9	3		2			2	5	7	4	2	6	10	77	
11	Solution of problems and decisions-making	9	9	9	6	7	1	1			6	7	9	3	4	6	10	87	
12	Negotiation skills	1	1									1	1				7	11	
13	Supervision skills	9	13	12	10	14	4	2	4	4	5	17	3	10	12	16	5	140	
14	Planning skills	10	8	6	6	6		2			4	8	10	2	2	5	6	75	
15	Presentation skills	2	2		1	1					1	2	2		1	1	7	20	
16	Development skills of middle management			3			2	2			1			2	2	2	5	19	
17	Development of administrative skills of new managers	1	1	1	1	1					1	1	1		1		1	10	
18	Evaluate the performance of employees	3	9	1	7	9	4	2	3	3	6	7	11	6	5	5	8	89	
19	Skills of conducting personal interviews					1	1				1	1	1	1	1	1	1	9	
20	Planning of career paths	1	1								1	2	2	1			1	9	
21	Job description and preparation of the staffing	1	1									1	1	1			2	7	
22	Projects management	1	1									1					6	9	
23	Skills of procurement	5	2	3	4	4	1	2	1	1	2	2	2	2	2	1	2	36	
24	Customers service	59	33	34	22	12	4	5	4	0	12	14	33	7	3	13		255	
25	Preparation of general relations plans	1	1	1	1	1		1			1	1	1		1	1	2	13	
26	Excellence in providing service	1	4	3	2	3	1				1	4	5	3	3	2		32	
27	Secretariat	1	1	1	1	1					1	1	1	1	1	1	12	23	
28	Managing of exhibitions and conferences	2	1			1						1	2			1	4	12	
29	Management of electronic archives	1	1		1	1		1			1	1	1			1	20	29	

30	Skills of meetings management		1	2		2					1	1	2	2	2	1	6	20
31	Skills of writing reports	2	2	1	3	4		1	1	1		7	2	3	3	3	12	45
32	Marketing																1	1
33	Management planning																2	2
34	Cooking skills	8	5		6	2						1	2					24
35	Food safety	27	16	11	16	12	1	1	1		4	13	23	6	10	7		148
36	House-keeping	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1		15
37	Skills of providing food and beverages	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1		15
38	Managerial skills	9	9	3	3	3		2			3	5	6	1	2			46
39	Managing restaurants	2	1			1					2	2	3	1	1	2		15
40	Security and professional safety	2	2	1	1	4					1	2	1			3		17
41	Quality service in restaurants	31	19	11	17	6		1			5	13	4	1		3		111
42	Preparation of conferences and concerts	3	2									3	3					11
43	Managing food and beverages	1	1									1	1					4
44	Hotel marketing	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1		1	1	1	1	2	16
45	Preparation of hotel rooms	2	2	1	1	1	1	1	1		1	2	2	1	1			17
46	Negotiation skills and conclusion of contracts	1	1		1	1					1	1	1					7
47	Legal consulting	1	1	1	1	1		1			1	1	1	1	1	1	2	14
48	Preparation of legal reports	1	1		1	1					1	1	1			1	2	9
49	Hotel accounting	3	3	2	2	1	2	2	2	2	1	1	3	2	1	2		29
50	Internal audit	1	1				1	1	1	1							5	11
51	Preparation of estimated budgets	1	1		1							1	1				3	8
52	Costs accounting	1	1		1	1		1				1	1	1	1	1	2	12
53	Financial analysis	1	1		1	1						1	1	1	1	1	3	12
54	Economic feasibility studies																2	2
55	Projects management	6	5	4	5	3				1	3	5	5		3	3	4	47
56	Information system	2	5	4	1	4	1	1		1	2	2	8			2		33
57	Writing reports in English																4	4
58	Financial analysis for financial markets																2	2
59	Portfolios and investment funds																2	2
60	Real Estate Evaluation																2	2
61	Marketing strategies																4	4
62	Marketing research																4	4
63	Conclusion of contracts	1	1									1	1				4	8
64	English language (Beginners)	45	35	20	20	20	10	10	10	10	20	25	45	15	15	15	20	335

65	English language (Elementary)	90	60	40	40	35	15	15	15	15	40	60	90	25	25	30	30	625
66	English language (Pre-intermediate)	50	40	30	30	30	10	10	10	10	30	40	50	10	10	20	10	390
67	English language (Intermediate)	15	10	5	5	5					5	10	15	5	5	5	10	95
68	English language (Uper-intermediate)	7	3	2	2	2					2	3	7				5	33
69	Microsoft word	40	15	10	10	10	5	5	5	5	10	20	40	5	5	5	20	210
70	Microsoft excel	25	5	10	10	10	5	5	5	5	10	10	25	5	5	5	20	160
71	Microsoft advanced excel	15	10	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	10	5	5	5	5	100
72	Microsoft power point	35	20	10	15	15	5	5	5	5	10	20	35	10	10	10	12	222
73	Microsoft access	6	6	2	4	6	2	2	2	2	4	6	6	2	2	4	8	64
74	Microsoft Croove	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	96
75	Outlook	2	2	2	2	2	2	1	1	1	2	2	2	1	1	2	12	37
76	Prima vera	2	1	1	1	1		1			1	1	2	1	1	1	10	24
77	Touch typing	3	2	1	2	2		1			2	2	3	1	1	2	11	33
78	MS Project																4	4
79	SPSS																2	2
80	Auto cad																8	8
81	Websites design																3	3
82	Installation and maintenance of networks	1	1			1					1	1	1			1	2	9
83	Delfi	1	1			1					1	1	1			1	3	10
84	Database SQL																3	3
85	Power shape																4	4
Total		600	419	284	310	284	98	107	89	83	240	381	538	173	176	234	435	4451

Source: Training report 2009

(1)\*Al-Kabeer Hotel/ (2)\*Bab-Al-Bahr/ (3)\* Bab Al-Jadid/ (4)\*Al-Wahat/ (5)\*Janzour Village Tour/ (6)\*Al-Jabal/ (7)\*Zliten/ (8)\*Al-Rabta/ (9)\*Zaytouna/ (10)\*Ghozettik/ (11)\*Aozo/ (12)\*Tebesty/ (13)\*Derna/ (14)\*Al-Masera/ (15)\*Qariouns Village Tour/ (16)\* SSFIC.

## 7.2.2 Analysis of training reports

The purpose of the following analysis of the training reports data is to highlight their key features with similarities and differences between them, as well as to identify the changes that have occurred over the 26 month period they cover. Internal courses refer to courses located within Libya, external courses to those conducted in other countries.

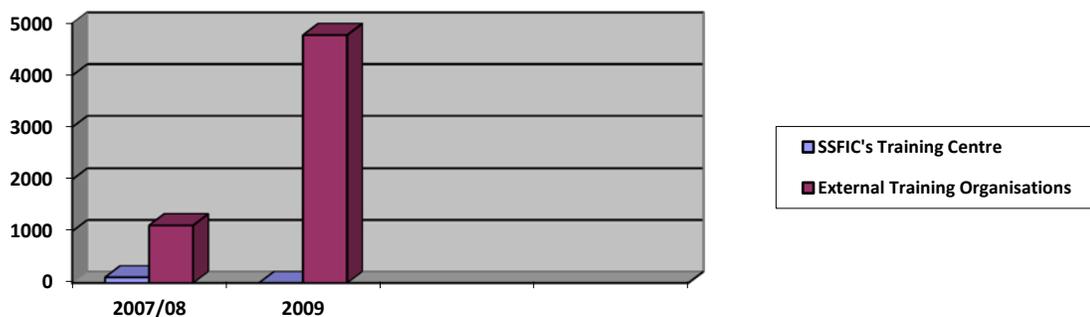
### (i) Classification of internal courses by numbers of trainees and provider

**Table 7.3: Classification of internal courses by numbers and provider**

Years	SSFIC's Training Centre		External Training Organisations		Total of trainees
	No. of courses	No. of trainees	No. of courses	No. of trainees	
2007/08	3	110	29	1470	1580
2009	-	-	85	4451	4451
Total	3	110	114	5921	6031

Source: Prepared by the researcher according the data of training reports for 2007-09

**Figure 7.1: Classification of internal courses by trainee numbers and providers**



The first observation from the tables is the large number of courses taking place and trainees attending. The second observation, depicted clearly in Table 7.3, relates to the

three-fold increase in trainee numbers in 2009 taking into account that the 2007/8 total covers a 14 month period.

Table 7.3 and Figure 7.1 also show that the majority of training courses (roughly 97%) were carried out by external training organisations. Further analysis of the reports show that most of these were based in Tripoli, conducted by providers such as Awardbrand, Alalamia, Alshati Institute, Ghot Alshaal Institute, High Studies Academy and Arab Union of Technical Education. Only three courses were conducted in the SSFIC's Training Centre in 2008, and there were no training sessions implemented in the SSFIC's Training Centre in 2009. This is largely due to one reason: During the field work, one of the interview questions addressed to the training managers in 29.04.2009 was: Why have most training programmes been implemented by external training organisations, with the apparent absence of the role of the SSFIC's Training Centre?. One of the training managers commented on this question by saying: Because the building of this Centre needed maintenance. A second likely reason could be due to insufficient trainers within the SSFIC to conduct the volume and range of courses being offered.

**(ii) Type of internal training programmes**

**Table 7.4: Division of training programmes according to their type**

Years	English language		Professional		Technical skills		Behavioural skills		Total
	No. of courses	No. of trainees	No. of courses	No. of trainees	No. of courses	No. of trainees	No. of courses	No. of trainees	
2007/08	-	725	-	434	2	163	-	258	1580
2009	5	1478	47	1486	17	989	14	498	4451
Total	5	2203	47	1920	19	1152	14	756	6031

Source: Training reports for 2007/08-2009

**Figure 7.2: Division of training programmes according to their type**

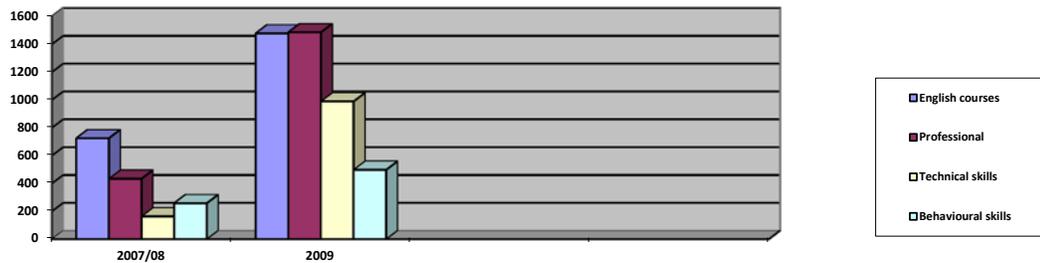


Table 7.4 shows that the internal providers conducted four types of training sessions. These four types are: 1) English courses, which include five levels: Beginners, Elementary, Pre-intermediate, Intermediate and Upper-intermediate. 2) Professional courses that include strategic planning, projects management, financial analysis and hotel accounting 3) Technical skills including computer programmes, such as The International Computer Driving Licence (ICDL), Microsoft word, Microsoft excel and Microsoft power point. 4) Behavioural skills, including communication skills, team work and negotiation skills. English language courses accounted for the highest share of trainees over the period, followed by professional courses. The only change in the overall order concerned the relative proportion of trainees taking behavioural skills' compared to technical skills courses from 2007/ 2008 to 2009.

The highest share of candidates for English courses in 2007/2008 was from Al-Mahari Hotel, which formed about 74% (Training report, 2007/2008, see Table 7.1). The specific reason is to meet the agreement with 'Suma Company', where good level of English language was one of the main conditions for the acceptance of local staff from Al-Mahari Hotel, as confirmed by one of the training managers (more details in section 'v').

**(iii) Comparison between internal and external Libyan courses**

**Table 7.5: Number of candidates to internal and external training courses conducted from November 2007 to end 2008**

Years	Internal courses (No. of trainees)	External Courses (No. of trainees)	Total
2007/2008	1580	184	1764

Source: Training report 2007/08

Because it was not possible to obtain equivalent data on courses outside Libya for 2009, Table 7.5 only covers the 14 months contained in the 2007/8 report. Table 7.9 shows that external courses did take place in 2009 but the period covered (July 2008-April 2009) was not helpful for comparative purposes. Table 7.5 shows that 11% of all trainees over the period attended training courses abroad.

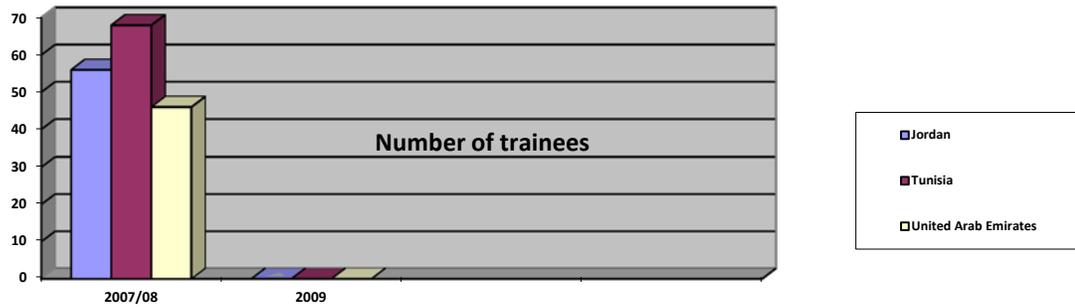
**(iv) The location of overseas training sessions**

**Table 7.6: The location of overseas training courses, and the number of candidates**

Country Years	Jordan		Tunisia		United Arab Emirates		Total for No. of Courses/Trainees
	No. of courses	No. of trainees	No. of courses	No. of trainees	No. of courses	No. of trainees	Total for No. of courses (19)
2007/2008	6	56	8	68	5	46	Total for No. of Trainees (170)

Source: Training report 2007/08

**Figure 7.3: The location of overseas training programmes**



From the data contained in Table 7.6, it can be seen that the total number of staff who attended these courses was 170. These sessions focused on developing the basic skills of workers, especially in the front line to provide service, such as receptionists, reservation staff and waiters (more details, see Appendix 10, Tables 10.10, 10.11 and 10.12) 60% were from Al-Mahari Hotel. This reinforces the point made earlier that the SSFIC sought to improve the skills of a greater number of Al-Mahari hotel’s employees in accordance with the agreement with Suma Company (more details, see the analysis of Table 7.7). It is less clear why the sessions were conducted outside of Libya. 60% of the overseas trainees were from Al-Mahari Hotel.

**(v) Comparison between the number of trainees in Al-Mahari Hotel and other hotels**

**Table 7.7: Comparison between the number of trainees in Al-Mahari Hotel and other hotels**

Years \ Hotels	Al-Mahari Hotel	Other hotels
	No. of trainees	No. of trainees
2007/2008	1238	410
2009	-	4451

Source: Training reports for 2007-09

**Figure 7.4: Comparison between the number of trainees in Al-Mahari Hotel and other hotels**

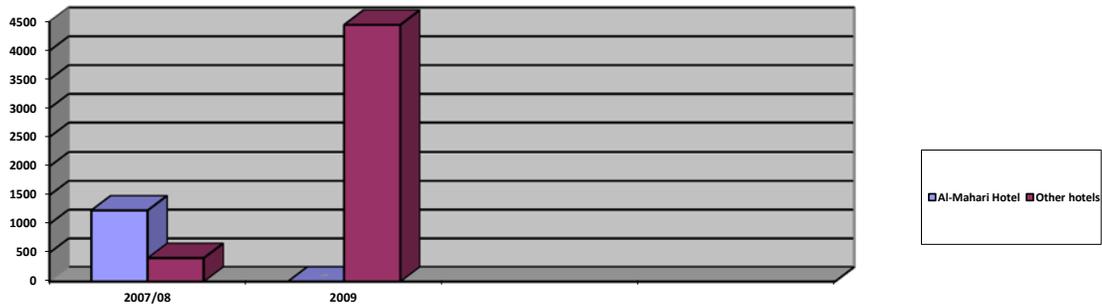


Table 7.7 shows that the largest number of trainees up to the end of 2008 came from Al-Mahari Hotel. The previous section stated that the Al-Mahari Hotel's share from training sessions outside Libya was 60%. Altogether 75% of training sessions targeted the employees of the Al-Mahari Hotel in the period of 2007 and 2008. To clarify this issue, one of the key questions addressed to the training managers at the interview was: Why are most training courses aimed at people who work in the Al-Mahari hotel? He responded to this question by saying:

*The company has made a contract with a Turkish company called Suma to maintain and develop the Al-Mahari hotel. The costs of maintenance and development will be met by Suma. The estimated cost is €22 million. Suma entered into a contract with Radisson Blu (SAS) for operation. The SSFIC will draw 25% from the total revenues, but will have no responsibility for salaries, maintenance and procurement. The main points in the contract between the SSFIC and Suma are as follows: (a) Minimum 50% Libyan employees, (b) After 5 years Libyan employees must be 90%, and (c) Training and development of local employees.*

This resulted in changes to the training plan for 2009; where training courses targeted all the SSFIC's hotels, with exception of Al-Mahari Hotel. This was largely due to the Al-Mahari Hotel being expected to be ready for opening under its new management at the beginning of 2009. Due to delays in completing necessary maintenance it only re-opened on 23.11.2009 under a new brand 'Radisson Blu SAS'.

**(vi) Training costs**

According to the SSFIC Financial Department the following expenditures were incurred on training over the period in question.

**Table 7.8: Expenditures of training in the SSFIC and its hotel chain**

Year	Actual expenditures for training (LD)*	Total expenses (LD)	The proportion of training expenses to total expenses
2008	184,650 (=£92,325)	6,059,000 (= £3,029,500)	3%
2009	273,000 (= £136,500)	5,264,000 (= £2,632,000)	5%

\*LD: Libyan Dinars (100 LD = about £50 (GBP))

Source: Financial Department of the SSFIC, 2010.

It was not possible to obtain a breakdown of the expenditure categories. Nevertheless it confirms the increase in training investment indicated by the growing numbers of courses and trainees analysed in the preceding sections. Although the researcher was unable to confirm this, it would seem that the expenditure categories exclude the costs of training courses as given below.

**Table 7.9: Cost of training courses from July 2008 to 30 April 2009**

External courses						
Title of course	Country	No. of trainees	Cost (LD)	Cost (£)	Cost of each trainee (LD)	Cost of each trainee (£)

Managing food and beverage	Jordan	56	471,750	235,875	8424	4,212
	Tunisia	68	464,202	23,101	8289	4,144.5
English language	N*	10	31,000	15,500	3100	1,550
	N	15	81,600	40,800	5440	2,720
	N	34	78,900	£39,450	2320	1,160
Hotel industry	United Arab Emirates	46	325,650	162,825	7079	3,539.5
Hotel managers	Singapore	15	66,101	33,050	4406	2,202
Total		280	1,519,203	759,601	5424	2712
Internal courses						
Title of course		No. of trainees	Cost (LD)	Cost (£)	Cost of each trainee (LD)	Cost of each trainee (£)
English language		15	17,325	8,662.5	1155	577.5
		18	29,725	14,862.5	1651	825.5
		22	28,050	14,025	1275	637.5
		20	26,070	13,035	1303	651.5
		15	29,450	14,725	1963	981.5
		18	33,825	16,912.5	1879	939.5
		15	18,360	9,180	1224	612
		15	24,000	12,000	1600	800
The International Computer Driving License (ICDL)		20	28,000	14,000	1400	700
Total		158	234,805	117,402.5	1486	743

N\* = Unknown training location

Source: Financial Department of the SSFIC, 2010.

Three points arise from table 7.9. It is not unexpected that the cost of the training programmes that are conducted locally in the SSFIC's Training Centre and by external training providers within Libya was significantly cheaper than those conducted outside the country. Table 7.9 shows that the relative cost per trainees of implementing programmes externally (outside the country) was almost four times more expensive compared with internal courses (inside the country). The SSFIC spent LD 1,519,203 (£759,601) on

external programmes (overseas) to train only 280 trainees in less than a year. In contrast, it spent only LD 234,805 (£117,403) to train 158 employees internally. Moreover, the average cost of overseas training for each employee was LD 5424, while it was only LD 1486 for those attending internal courses. The researcher in subsequent chapters pursues the question why overseas training was conducted. The second point relates to the overall amount spent, noting that the internal courses represent a small proportion of the total range and exclude all professional and behavioural skills programmes. Even without them the costs of internal and external courses listed totals LD 1,754,005, or £877,004. The third point relates to the on-going investment in English language courses, which indicates a concern for meeting the needs of an international tourist clientele.

To conclude the analysis of archival data, the following key points can be made.

1. The number of trainees in internal and outside Libyan courses increased significantly, rising threefold in 2009 from the previous year despite the fact that the Al-Mahari hotel was not involved. Table 5.1 shows that the total employees of SSFIC reached 4338 by February 2009, while the total of trainees in 2009 was 4451 as shown in table 7.2. Theoretically, this means that the majority of employees were trained, but it should be noted that some trainees could be attending more than one course. Even if we assume that some employees attend more than one course, it is a very high proportion of the total population. This increase has been paralleled by major increase in expenditure on training both at home and outside the country.
2. Part of the training investment in 2007/8 can be explained in order to ensure the staff of the Al-Mahari hotel met the skills requirements demanded by Suma before the transfer of management could be effected.

3. This could, on the surface, be explained by Government training policy. Elfazani (2011) referred to an amendment of 1990 made by the General Committee of Training and Vocational Education to the labour Law, which stated that training in Libyan organisations had to be for 100% of employees each year instead of the previous figure of 20% (Elfazani, 2011, p.87). However this is not a sufficient explanation for the recent expansion.
4. There is evidence from the GSP (2008-2012), as discussed in Chapter 5 section 5.6, that the SSFIC continues to invest heavily in training programmes to help overcome the excess of unqualified employees in many departments. This includes front-line hotel staff who lack the service skills to meet the new challenges of internationalisation.
5. Building on conclusions drawn in Chapter 5 sections 5.8, 5.8.1 and 5.8.2, it could be argued that SSFIC has spent such significant sums of money on training in order to improve its competitive situation as barriers to entry are removed from overseas hotel chains entering the market.
6. It could also be argued that SSFIC as a public-sector organisation following the completion of the Suma contract is seeking to privatise its remaining hotels, although the documentary data presented gives no support for this.

### **7.3 Analysis of the questionnaires' and training managers' interview findings**

#### **7.3.1 Findings of trainees' survey**

201 trainees working in different departments at the SSFIC and seven of its hotels participated in the survey, while the total number of trainee participants from CBAH was 25, as shown in Table 7.10. Analysis of the findings of the three categories (trainees,

training managers, and trainers) is according to the training phases, as shown in Chapter Six, Table 6.5).

**Table 7.10: Questionnaires completed and returned by trainees**

SSFIC (Local hotels)				
No:	The company and its hotels	Location	N	%
1-	The SSFIC	Tripoli	14	7
2-	Al-Kaber Hotel	Tripoli	33	16.4
3-	Bab Al-Bahur Hotel	Tripoli	29	14.4
4-	Al- Mahari Hotel	Tripoli	62	30.8
5-	Bab Al-Jadid Hotel	Tripoli	22	11
6-	Al-Wahat Hotel	Tripoli	24	12
7-	Janzour Tour village (JTV)	Tripoli	13	6.4
8-	Al-Rabta Hotel	Gharian	4	2
CBAH (Foreign hotels)				
1-	Corinthia Bab Africa Hotel		25	100

Source: The field study, April 2009.

SSFIC, n = 201 –CBAH, n = 25

### 7.3.1.1 Characteristics of respondents

- **Position**

As shown in Table 7.11 the respondents from SSFIC perform twenty five different roles, the highest rate of employment (15.9%), was from the housekeeping department, then 14.9% in reception, followed by supervisors 12.9% and those in administrative jobs 10.4%. In CBAH the trainee participants work in sixteen different functions.

**Table 7.11: The work department of trainees**

Position	SSFIC		CBAH	
	N	%	N	%
Receptionist	30	14.9	2	8
Reservations	5	2.5	2	8
Engineering	5	2.5	0	0
Housekeeping	32	15.9	2	8
Laundry	5	2.5	2	8
Chef	6	3	0	0

Banquets	2	1	0	0
Restaurant	7	3.5	0	0
Waiters	19	9.5	2	8
Computer	5	2.5	1	4
Reception	8	4	0	0
Immigration officer	2	1	0	0
Supervision	26	12.9	2	8
Pastry-cook	2	1	0	0
Relations unit	5	2.5	0	0
Finance	4	2	2	8
Administrative jobs	21	10.4	0	0
Marketing	3	1.5	0	0
Maintenance	2	1	2	8
Head waiters	2	1	1	4
Store keeper	4	2	1	4
Head of housekeeping	1	0.5	0	0
Butcher	1	0.5	0	0
Head of receptionists	2	1	0	0
Head of administrative affairs	2	1	0	0
Director of restaurant	0	0	1	4
Assistant director of restaurant	0	0	1	4
Staff affairs	0	0	2	8
Security	0	0	1	4
Director on duty	0	0	1	4

SSFIC, n = 201. CBAH, n = 25

- **Working experience and staff turnover**

The majority of respondents from SSFIC (61.2%) had worked for the employer for over 6 years and 85.1% for more than 3 years compared with 20% and 68% respectively in CBAH.

**Table 7.12: Length of service of respondents**

Experience	SSFIC		CBAH	
	F	%	F	%
Less than 1 year	10	5	1	4
1-3 years	20	10	7	28
3-6 years	48	23.9	12	48
More than 6 years	123	61.2	5	20
Total	201	100	25	100

This result reveals that there is quite a high degree of stability of staff in both organisations and especially in SSFIC. It is assumed that people participating in this study who had worked for the employer for over three years would give accurate data, so these figures gave confidence in the reliability of responses to the questionnaire.

The Head of the Training Academy (HTA) had some comments to make about staff turnover, seeing it as one of the most important problems facing the CBAH, where recently some Libyan employees have left this hotel to work with other organisations, for example the Al-Wadan hotel. The main reason given is because the salaries in this hotel are more than in the CBAH.

An opportunistic conversation conducted at the Al-Wadan Hotel with one of the staff who had moved there from the CBAH, confirmed that the rate of pay was an issue. He said:

*I worked in CBAH for several years, then I moved to this hotel due to the stress of work there, and my new job here is better, along with a high salary compared with CBAH's salaries. In other words, it could be said here that most people are looking for higher salaries and better jobs.*

- **Nationality and gender**

All respondents from SSFIC were of Libyan origin. This is representative of the organisation as a whole. The company documents showed that only two non-national employees from Arabic countries (Sudan and Palestine) work with the parent company. Moreover, the percentage of foreign workers in the whole of SSFIC and its hotels was low, representing only 7% of the workforce. The majority of participants from CBAH were

Libyan (76%),20% Moroccan and 4% from the Philippines. 85% were male and 15% were female. This was also not unrepresentative. SSFIC’s documents related to workforce showed that women constituted only 21% of the labour force. The equivalent figures for CBAH were 84% male and 16% female.

**Table 7.13: The gender of respondents**

Gender	SSFIC		CBAH	
	F*	%	F*	%
Male	170	85	21	84
Female	31	15	4	16
Total	201	100	25	100

\*F = frequency

**Table 7.14: The nationality of respondents**

Nationality	SSFIC		CBAH	
	F	%	F	%
Libyan	201	100	19	76
Moroccan	0	0	5	20
Filipino	0	0	1	4
Total	201	100	25	100

### 7.3.1.2 Training courses

Tables (7.15) and (7.16) show types of training courses that were attended by trainee respondents during the period of 2006 and 2009.

**Table 7.15: Title of courses, location and date in SSFIC**

Internal courses attended in the SSFIC training centre				
Title of course	Location	Date	N	%
Receptionists skills	JTV	2006	4	2
Laundry skills	JTV	2006	2	1
English language	JTV	2006	5	2.5
	JTV	2007	7	3.5
Italian language	JTV	2007	6	3
French language	JTV	2007	2	1

Leadership skills	JTV	2007	2	1
Procurement management	JTV	2008	1	0.5
Food and beverage	JTV	2008	8	4
HRD	JTV	2009	3	1.5
Identifying training needs	JTV	2009	3	1.5
supervision skills	JTV	N/D*	4	2
Accounting	JTV	N/D	1	0.5
Supervision skills	JTV	N/D	2	1
Housekeeping	JTV	N/D	6	3
Conditioning	JTV	N/D	7	4.04
No answer			7	3.5
<b>External local courses</b>				
<b>Title of course</b>	<b>Location</b>	<b>Date</b>	<b>N</b>	<b>%</b>
Analysis of financial statements	Tripoli (N/L)	2006	2	1
Laundry skills	Maateqa hospital	2007	4	2
Customers service	Bab Al-Bahur hotel	2007	1	0.5
Skills of department heads	Tripoli (N/L)	2007	1	0.5
English language	Bab Al-Bahur hotel	2007	1	0.5
	Tripoli (N/L)	2007	1	0.5
	Om Aljwabi	2008	5	2.5
	Gharian	2008	1	0.5
	Alalamia	2008	1	0.5
	Awardbrand	2008	8	4
	Alshati institute	2008	9	4.5
	Institute of oil	2008	3	1.5
Laundry skills	GhotAlshaal institute	2008	29	14.4
Front offices	GhotAlshaal institute	2008	1	0.5
Hotel skills	GhotAlshaal institute	2008	4	2
SPSS	Institute of oil	2008	3	1.5
Behavioural skills	GhotAlshaal institute	2008	26	12.9
English language	AenShamas centre	2009	6	3
	High studies academy	2009	3	1.5
	Alalamia	2009	1	0.5
	Bab-Al-Bahur hotel	N/D	1	0.5
Laundry skills	Institute of oil	N/D	2	1
Communication skills	Institute of oil	N/D	2	1
<b>Overseas courses</b>				
<b>Title of course</b>	<b>Location</b>	<b>Date</b>	<b>N</b>	<b>%</b>
Information Technology	Lebanon	2007	1	0.5

Marketing	Jordan	2007	4	2
Skills of receptionists heads	Jordan	2007	1	0.5
Customers service	Jordan	2007	2	1
Housekeeping	Jordan	2007	1	0.5
Heat exchangers	France	2007	1	0.5
Cooking skills	Jordan	2007	1	0.5
	Tunisia	2008	1	0.5
Hotel skills	Tunisia	2008	10	5
Front offices	Jordan	2008	10	5
Behavioural skills	GhotAlshaal institute	2008	26	12.9
English language	AenShamas centre	2009	6	3
	High studies academy	2009	3	1.5
	Alalamia	2009	1	0.5
	Bab-Al-Bahur hotel	N/D	1	0.5
Laundry skills	Institute of oil	N/D	2	1
Communication skills	Institute of oil	N/D	2	1
Total			201	100

N/D\*: No date

**Table 7.16: Title of courses attended, location and date in CBAH**

Title of course	Location	Date	N	%
Hygiene	CBAH	2008	1	4
Hygiene + Food and beverage	CBAH	2008	1	4
Security and safety	CBAH	2008	3	12
Receptionists	CBAH	2008	4	16
English language	CBAH	N/D	1	4
Answer the phone	CBAH	N/D	2	8
Hotel management	CBAH	2008	1	4
Computer	CBAH	2008	1	4
Cultural awareness	CBAH	2006	1	4
Live in experience	CBAH	2006	2	8
Sates strategies using NLP	CBAH	2007	1	4
Quality service	CBAH	N/D	1	4
No answer			6	24
Total			25	100

**Table 7.17: Training courses take place outside the hotel**

Are there training courses which take place outside the hotel?	SSFIC		CBAH	
	F	%	F	%

Yes	201	100	2	8
No	0	0	23	92
Total	201	100	25	100

In SSFIC, as can be seen in Table 7.15, there were twenty seven types of training courses in different work areas. Ten courses were externally delivered, and the rest were local courses. 23.9% of participants attended English language courses, 14.4% attended behavioural skills, and 12.9% attended communication skills courses. The SSFIC has dealt with four countries, Lebanon, Jordan, Tunisia and France in the implementation of its external courses, whilst it depended to some extent on its own training centre to implement some internal training courses.

16 courses out of 36 courses were delivered in the SSFIC's Training Centre, which is situated in JTV. In addition to in-house courses there were more than ten local training organisations (Ghot Alshaal Institute, Maateqa Hospital, Bab-Al-Bahur Hotel, Institute of Oil, AenShamas Centre, Om Aljwabi, Alalamia, Award brand, High Studies Academy, Alshati Institute), which worked with the SSFIC in the implementation of internal courses. In contrast, as reflected in Table 7.16, twelve types of training courses for different jobs were delivered by the training centre of CBAH. It should be noted that Tables 7.1, 7.2 and 7.15 are complementary to each other, where respondents provided more detailed data for some courses in Table 7.15 that do not appear in Table 7.1. For example, internal courses in the SSFIC's Training Centre in JTV: Italian language, French language and Leadership skills. Also they gave more details about courses which were provided by external training organisations, such as Laundry skills as shown in appendix 10, in table (10.14). Similarly, with overseas courses such as information technology which was conducted in Lebanon.

What is obvious from the tables above is that training inside the hotel (on-site) predominates in CBAH, which is different compared with SSFIC where all training programmes are being conducted outside the hotels either in the in-house JTV training centre or by external training organisations.

### 7.3.1.3 The degree of trainees' satisfaction of the training courses provided

**Table 7.18: Satisfaction of trainees of the training courses provided**

How satisfactory was the training provided by the hotel in preparing you for your present job?	SSFIC		CBAH	
	F	%	F	%
Totally satisfied	21	10.4	5	20
Satisfied	61	30.4	10	40
Satisfied to a certain extent	77	38.3	7	28
Dissatisfied	17	8.5	2	8
Totally dissatisfied	25	12.4	1	4
Total	201	100	25	100

Despite the fact that 79.1% of respondents in SSFIC were satisfied in general - i.e. totally satisfied + satisfied + satisfied to a certain extent - about the training programmes provided, the figures are not particularly positive. Only 40.8% were satisfied or better and 20.9% expressed dissatisfaction. This is not encouraging given the large number of courses and participants. The figures for CBAH are better although still leaving much room for improvement. Although 88% of respondents were satisfied in general about the training programmes provided, only 60% were satisfied or better. 12% expressed dissatisfaction.

### 7.3.1.4 Training Phases

As discussed in Chapter 6, the questionnaires were divided into three phases or sections: first section focused on pre-training, second section included experience during the processes the implementation of training programmes, and the third section was about post-

training as an evaluation process. This division of the stages or phases of the total training process helps assess what is currently being implemented within both case study organisations.

### 7.3.1.4.1 The first phase: Pre- training

#### 7.3.1.4.1.1 Employee nomination to training courses

Regarding the ways employees are selected for training courses, in SSFIC, as noted in Table 7.19, the highest proportion of trainee respondents, 58.7%, were selected by managers responsible for training management that is by the DTD responsible for the implementation of the training plan which was prepared by the OPS, as discussed in Chapter 5, section 5.6. In CBAH, 28% of participants were selected according to their training needs, and 24% by training management and 16% were in accordance with the desire of the employee or an instruction from manager. All were sanctioned by top management.

**Table 7.19: Nomination of the employees to training courses**

Your choice of training courses was according to:	SSFIC		CBAH	
	F	%	F	%
1/ Employee request	4	2	4	16
2/ Based on training needs	7	3.5	7	28
3/ On instruction of line manager	18	9	4	16
4/ On instruction from top management	27	13.4	4	16
5/ On instruction from training management	118	58.7	6	24
6/ Combination of 2 & 3	6	3	0	0
7/ Combination of 2 , 3 & 5	2	1	0	0
8/ Combination of 4 & 5	19	9.5	0	0
Total	201	100	25	100

The identification of the selection or nomination process of employees to training programmes became clearer through the interviews with training managers where two of them agreed that the prevailing situation was that a direct supervisor was responsible, and decided whether the employee needed training or not. It was not possible to obtain any current forms used for the identification of training needs in either company. While conducting the field work, an interview was conducted on the 16<sup>th</sup> of March 2009 with one of the training managers who works in the SSFIC. He stated that OPS recently has been designing a new form for the purpose of identifying training needs and distributing it to all hotels. It is intended to be filled in by direct supervisors as a means of nominating employees for training programmes (see appendix 2).

Negative views were expressed by some respondents about the nomination method that was adopted by the SSFIC to external training programmes (overseas training) in SSFIC. Seventeen participants deemed that some of the candidates for those courses were chosen on the basis of personal relationships resulting from strong social relationships such as loyalties to family and kin, leading to bias, favouritism or nepotism.

#### **7.3.1.4.1.2 Timing and details of courses**

It is clearly important that before starting any training programme, candidates should be familiar with the nature of training course such as the purpose and content, duration, location, and time, as an initial step to prepare them for effective participation and the achievement of the objectives of the programme. This procedure can help both parties (organisation and staff) to discuss some of the issues, so as to ensure maximum benefit from their participation. Therefore it was important to see whether the selected training organisations had any contacts with the candidates before sending them to the location of

training; this was especially relevant for SSFIC where all the training courses are managed outside the workplace (see the findings of Table 7.3) and are usually held after work hours directly (for example, see section 7.3.1.4.2.3.2).

**Table 7.20: Details before commencing courses**

Were you told in good time about the details of the course (e.g. objectives, content and location) before the session?	SSFIC		CBAH	
	F	%	F	%
Time was adequate	91	45.3	19	76
Time was short	76	37.8	4	16
Time was inadequate	34	16.9	2	8
Total	201	100	25	100

In SSFIC, 45.3% of respondents confirmed that the time was adequate to learn about the courses targeted, for example, objectives, content and location. 37.8% felt that the time was short, which may be the reason behind many of the problems that may arise during the implementation of the training programme, as shown in the next sections (for example, 7.3.1.4.1.3 and 7.3.1.4.1.4). However, 76% of the respondents in CBAH deemed that the time was adequate.

**Table 7.21: Training courses take place outside the hotel**

Are there training courses which take place outside the hotel?	SSFIC		CBAH	
	F	%	F	%
Yes	201	100	2	8
No	0	0	23	92
Total	201	100	25	100

#### **7.3.1.4.1.3 The number of participants on the training courses**

As pointed out by 39.8% of respondents in SSFIC, the number of participants on the training courses was “appropriate to some extent,” and 32.3% “very appropriate”, the

remaining 22.9% felt there were too many participants. However, nearly half of respondents 48% in CBAH confirmed that the number of participants was “very appropriate”, and 32% “appropriate to a certain extent”, but a smaller percentage of 12% said too many and 8% said too few.

**Table 7.22: The number of participants on the training courses**

Did you think that the number of participants on the course was:	SSFIC		CBAH	
	F	%	F	%
Too many	46	22.9	3	12
Very appropriate	65	32.3	12	48
Appropriate to a certain extent	80	39.8	8	32
Too few	10	5	2	8
Total	201	100	25	100

The number of participants plays an important role in achieving better benefits from the training programme, especially when using some training methods such as case study or discussion which are not appropriate for large numbers (see Chapter 3, Table 3.2). Size of groups might have influenced the restricted range of methods used by trainers. It was not possible to identify any specific courses that were over-subscribed since respondents gave no specific examples in their comments.

#### **7.3.1.4.1.4 Duration of training courses**

47.8% of the SSFIC respondents considered that the duration of training courses which they had attended was too short. 45.3% affirmed that the duration of sessions were appropriate. As for the respondents in the second case, despite the fact that 56% of them state that the duration of training courses which they had attended was appropriate duration, 40% considered that the duration of sessions was too short.

**Table 7.23: Duration of training courses**

Did you feel that the duration of the training courses was:	SSFIC		CBAH	
	F	%	F	%
Too short	96	47.8	10	40
Appropriate duration	91	45.3	14	56
Too long	14	7	1	4
Total	201	100	25	100

It was not possible to identify any specific courses that were too short since respondents gave no specific examples in their comments.

It should be noted here that duration of English courses was between two and three months, but some professional courses were much shorter. For example, the course about hotel industry which was conducted by one of the external training providers (Arab Union of Technical Education) lasted only six days (see appendix 10, Table 10.5). In such ‘short courses’, the absence of positive interaction between the trainees and trainers is inevitable and time to enquire about some important issues in the content of course are limited (see trainees’ comments, section 7.3.1.4.3.3.5). Chapter 3 alluded particularly to the lack of interaction where theoretical methods, especially in lecture formats were used.

#### **7.3.1.4.2 The second phase: During Training**

##### **7.3.1.4.2.1 The benefits achieved through the attendance of training courses**

In an effort to clarify the trainees’ perceptions on the training benefits that had been achieved from training programmes participants from each organisation were asked whether these programmes had helped them personally. Table 7.24 summarises employees’ perceived likely individual benefits of training.

**Table 7.24: The benefits achieved through the attendance of training courses**

What were the benefits that you achieved through your attendance of the training sessions?	SSFIC		CBAH	
	F	%	F	%
(a) New knowledge				
To a large extent	92	45.8	12	48
To a certain extent	96	47.8	11	44
Not at all	13	6.5	2	8.0
Total	201	100	25	100
(b) New skills	N	%	N	%
To a large extent	58	28.9	11	44
To a certain extent	126	62.7	10	40
Not at all	17	8.5	4	16
Total	201	100	25	100
(c) New behaviour and attitudes	N	%	N	%
To a large extent	62	30.8	14	56
To a certain extent	122	60.7	11	44
Not at all	17	8.5	0	0
Total	201	100	25	100

These benefits are:

- **New knowledge**

In terms of new knowledge, the result was remarkably similar in both cases. 45.8% of respondents in SSFIC and 48% in CBAH said that they had been able, to a large extent, achieve this benefit. 47.8% in SSFIC and 44% in CBAH believed that the benefit was achieved to a large extent. However, 6.5% of SSFIC and 8% of CBAH felt that they did not achieve any new knowledge at all.

- **New skills**

With regard to SSFIC, 62.7% of participants were able to achieve the new skills to a certain extent, and 28.9% obtained new skills to a large extent, while 8.5% deemed that they did not achieve any new skills at all. In CBAH, 44% of those respondents asserted that they have achieved new skills to a large extent. 40% pointed out that the new skills were

achieved to some extent, whilst a small group (16%) reported that they were unable to get any new skills.

**- New behaviour and attitudes**

In SSFIC, 60.7% of participants believed that they gained new behaviour and attitudes to a certain extent, and 30.8% obtained this benefit to “a large extent”, while 8.5% deemed that they did not benefit from any new behaviour and attitudes at all. However, 56% of those respondents in CBAH asserted that they had achieved new behaviour and attitudes to a “large extent”, whilst 44% pointed out that the new behaviour and attitudes were achieved to “some extent”.

**7.3.1.4.2.2 The relevance of the content of training courses**

In order to obtain a broader understanding of the relevance of the content of training courses that had been attended by the trainees, question fifteen in the questionnaire for trainees was designed. This question as shown in table 7.25 included five elements: Training objectives, the nature of trainee work, training needs of a trainee, specified time for the session, and finally ability.

**Table 7.25: Evaluation of the relevance of the content of training courses**

How would you rate the relevance of the content of training courses for each of the following situations:	SSFIC		CBAH	
	F	%	F	%
(a) Training objectives				
Appropriate to a large extent	66	32.8	15	60
Appropriate to a certain extent	120	59.7	9	36
Not appropriate at all	15	7.5	1	4
Total	201	100	25	100
(b) The nature of your work	N	%	N	%
Appropriate to a large extent	68	33.8	13	52
Appropriate to a certain extent	112	55.7	7	28

Not appropriate at all	21	10.4	5	20
Total	201	100	25	100
(c) Your training needs	N	%	N	%
Appropriate to a large extent	70	34.8	9	36
Appropriate to a certain extent	110	54.7	13	52
Not appropriate at all	21	10.4	3	12
Total	201	100	25	100
(d) Specified time for the session	N	%	N	%
Appropriate to a large extent	34	16.9	10	40
Appropriate to a certain extent	87	43.3	10	40
Not appropriate at all	80	39.8	5	20
Total	201	100	25	100
(e) Ability	N	%	N	%
Appropriate to a large extent	66	32.8	14	56
Appropriate to a certain extent	111	55.2	8	32
Not appropriate at all	24	11.9	3	12
Total	201	100	25	100

- **Training objectives**

The data of Table 7.25 shows that 59.7% of trainee respondents in SSFIC stated that the link between the relevance of the content of training courses and their objectives was appropriate “to a certain extent”. 60% of respondents from CBAH however, believe that the link was appropriate to a large extent, while 32.8% in SSFIC believed that the link was appropriate to a large extent. 36% of the responses in CBAH indicated that link was appropriate to a certain extent. Very few of the participants in either case (7.5% in SSFIC and 4% in CBAH) felt that the link was not appropriate at all.

- **The nature of trainee work**

With regard to SSFIC, (55.7%) of the participants believe that the link between the relevance of the content of the training courses and the nature of their work was appropriate “to a certain extent”. 52% of the participants in CBAH asserted that the link was

appropriate to a large extent. 33.8% of the responses in SSFIC felt that the link was appropriate “to a large extent”. Respondents from CBAH 28% felt that the link was appropriate to a certain extent. A small group in the two cases (10.4% in SSFIC and 20% in CBAH) felt that the link was not appropriate at all.

- **The training needs of a trainee**

With regard to training needs, the findings were largely similar in the two cases. In both case study groups, 54.7% in SSFIC and 52% in CBAH believed that the content of training courses was consistent and appropriate “to a certain extent” to their training needs.

34.8% responses from SSFIC and 36% of CBAH deemed that the content of training courses was appropriate to a large extent to their training needs. However, a small number in both cases (10.4% in SSFIC, and 12% in CBAH) felt that the training content was not appropriate at all to their training needs.

- **Specified time for the session**

With regard to the specified time for the sessions that had been attended by the trainee respondents in SSFIC and CBAH 43.3% of the participants in SSFIC and 40% in CBAH stated that the duration of the courses was appropriate to a certain extent. Only 16.9% in SSFIC believed that the duration was appropriate to a large extent, whereas, 40% in CBAH had felt that the duration was appropriate to a large extent. On the contrary, 39.8% of respondents in SSFIC deemed that the duration was not sufficient at all. 20% in CBAH also expressed that the time was insufficient.

- **Ability**

Roughly, half of the participants in the two cases had different responses about the appropriateness of the content of the training courses that they had attended. 55.2% in SSFIC believed that the content were appropriate to a certain extent to their capabilities, while 56% in CBAH felt that the content were appropriate to a large extent. It should be noted also, that 32.8% in SSFIC deemed that the content were appropriate to a large extent, whilst 32% in CBAH believed that the content were appropriate to a certain extent to their capabilities. In the two case study groups, there was a small group, 11.9% in SSFIC and 12% in CBAH who felt that the content of the training courses was not appropriate at all to their capabilities.

Concerning the evaluation of relevance of the content of the external training courses (overseas training) relating to responses from SSFIC during the interview on the 29<sup>th</sup> of March 2009 with one of the training managers said:

*...In fact, external training courses have been very successful in all aspects. For example, training courses were held in Jordan in 2008; these courses were good to a great extent in terms of accommodation, training facilities, skilled trainers, field visits, and regulation in general. On the other hand, for our part, there was only one small problem, which was supervision of the trainee team, who numbered 56. I was the only supervisor to that group, of course as you know, the task was not easy.*

### 7.3.1.4.2.3 Training methods, techniques and facilities used during training

#### 7.3.1.4.2.3.1 Training methods and their appropriateness

Regarding the choice and use of training methods, all the participants in the study were asked about the methods of training that are adopted in the implementation of the training programmes, and their appropriateness.

**Table 7.26: Methods of training courses**

What are the methods used in the training courses attended?	SSFIC		CBAH	
	F	%	F	%
1/ Lecture	130	64.7	3	12
2/ Discussion	27	13.4	4	16
3/ Case study	7	3.5	1	4
4/ Practical application	7	3.5	2	8
5/ Combination of 1 & 2	21	10.4	15	60
6/ Combination of 1, 2 & 3	9	4.5	0	0
Total	201	100	25	100

**Table 7.27: The appropriateness of training methods to training needs of trainees**

Do you think that these methods were appropriate for your training needs?	SSFIC		CBAH	
	F	%	F	%
Appropriate to a large extent	56	27.9	9	36
Appropriate to a certain extent	121	60.2	12	48
Not appropriate	24	11.9	4	16
Total	201	100	25	100

64.7% of SSFIC respondents asserted that lectures on their own are the most common method of delivering course content. Discussions were used but constituted only 13.4% of delivery strategies. There was little use of case studies and practical demonstrations, and only 10.4% referred to trainers using a mix of methods. Similarly, evidence from CBAH, shows that 60% of respondents pointed out that the prevailing methods in implementing

most training courses were lecture and discussion. Moreover, only two participants noted the use of practical application.

In SSFIC, 60.2% of respondents said that the methods used in the training were appropriate to a certain extent to meet their training needs, while 27.9% felt that this was an appropriate means to a large extent. This means that training methods were appropriate in general according to the participants' views, despite the fact that most of these traditional methods depended largely on the lecture method. The situation was not much different in CBAH. 48% of participants indicated that the methods used in the training courses were appropriate to a certain extent to meet their training needs, and 36% felt that this was an appropriate means to a large extent. Only 16% expressed their dissatisfaction towards those methods. It is noteworthy here that it is likely that the trainees did not have full information about other training methods that can be used instead of the theoretical methods.

#### 7.3.1.4.2.3.2 Facilities and location of the training courses

**Table 7.28: Facilities and location of the training courses**

How would you rate the equipment, facilities and location of the training courses?	SSFIC		CBAH	
	F	%	F	%
Excellent	10	5	8	32
Entirely appropriate	25	12.4	7	28
Appropriate to a certain extent	121	60.2	8	32
Not appropriate	45	22.4	2	8
Total	201	100	25	100

60.2% of respondents from SSFIC stated that facilities and location of the training courses were only appropriate to a certain extent. 22.4% stated that they were not appropriate. In contrast, 60% of CBAH respondents deemed that facilities and location of the training courses were excellent and entirely appropriate.

In addition, 32% said they were appropriate to a certain extent. Only 8% deemed that they were not appropriate. It is likely that a significant part of the difference between the two sets of respondents can be attributed to location, given that 92% of CBAH courses were located in the hotel. From observation and through visits to the Training Centres of both organisations under the study it is evident that facilities are appropriate to a moderate extent.

This can be corroborated by critical comments on the location and timing of most SSFIC training courses provided as reported by 20% of the trainee respondents (see Table 7.36). They stated that the start time of the current training courses was not appropriate, because their work at hotels was from 8.00am till 3.00pm, whilst the beginning of the training course was at 4.00pm, so there was too short a time for a break and having some lunch, as well as travelling to the location of the training (external training organisations), which alone takes usually not less than half an hour.

This finding was also supported by one of trainee respondents who works in the Al-Wahat Hotel, when he said particularly:

*... generally, I appreciate all the efforts being made by the SSFIC in order to organise many training courses to improve the employee skills in all the company's hotel chains. However, the timing of most courses was not appropriate at all with working conditions and with employee's circumstances. For me, for example, I'm currently attending a course, but unfortunately, I am not able to attend daily because I usually leave the hotel about 3.00pm while the start of the course is at 4.00 pm. In fact, when I had time to attend, my arrival at the place of training in*

*many cases was late. In addition, I could not concentrate well due to my participation being after the end of a tiring day at work.*

He concluded by saying:

*despite those circumstances, the management of the hotel depends largely on the final report of the training course. This report is sent by the training centre, and attendance is one of the most important elements of evaluation. Therefore, the department of training in the SSFIC should take this problem into account. To overcome this problem in my view, there is a need for selecting appropriate timing and location of courses, with the possibility of full-time sessions”.*

#### **7.3.1.4.2.4 Competence and effectiveness of trainers**

In terms of training providers, the research sought the trainees’ perspectives on the trainers who carried out the training programmes. Question 19 was designed because the hotel sector is still a new industry in Libya and it is expected that many difficulties will arise, one of these being a lack of trainers or lack of their efficiency if they are available.

**Table 7.29: Competence of trainers**

In general, do you consider that trainers were:	SSFIC		CBAH	
	F	%	F	%
Competent	101	50.2	18	72
Competent to a certain extent	69	34.3	6	24
Incompetent	31	15.4	1	4
Total	201	100	25	100
If the trainer was incompetent or competent to a certain extent, please mention the reasons:				
	SSFIC	F	%	
1/ Traditional training methods		26	12.9	
2/ Lack of local qualified trainers		20	10	
3/ Combination of 1 & 2		54	26.9	

No answer	101	50.2
Total	201	100
CBAH	F	%
Language	2	8
No answer	23	92
Total	25	100

Table 7.29 indicates that half of the SSFIC trainee respondents felt that those trainers were competent, and 34.3% indicated that trainers were competent to a certain extent, whereas, a small but significant group (15.4%) felt that trainers were incompetent. They mentioned two key negative points as follows:

- Over use of traditional methods of training.
- The lack of local qualified trainers in the hotel area.

However, nearly three-quarters of CBAH respondents, 72%, pointed out that their trainers were competent, and 24% indicated that trainers were competent to a certain extent. Only one participant felt that the trainers were incompetent. His comment in the questionnaire was as follows:

*...sometimes trainers could not speak Arabic well, so the trainees depended largely on a translator. This way often led to difficulty of concentration and misunderstandings of some contents of the training courses, and, as a result, a core subject of training might be distorted after translation. Consequently, the debate loses its importance.*

In order to obtain a better understanding regarding the competency of trainers, question number (20) was allocated for this purpose, which involved five elements: Explaining the subject matter, generating an interest in the topic of training, helping the trainee with

problems, monitoring the progress of the trainee and giving practical examples to support the topic of training. The results were remarkably consistent and taken together would indicate an area of concern for SSFIC; for none of these five elements as shown in table 7.30 below did the SSFIC trainees indicate a positive set of experiences, in marked contrast to CBAH.

**Table 7.30: The effectiveness of trainers**

How would you rate the effectiveness of trainers in the following situations:	SSFIC		CBAH	
	F	%	F	%
(a) explaining the subject matter				
Very effective	60	29.9	11	44
Effective	41	20.4	9	36
Effective to a certain extent	82	40.8	5	20
Not effective	18	9	0	0
Total	201	100	25	100
(b) generating an interest in the topic	N	%	N	%
Very effective	53	26.4	10	40
Effective	47	23.4	12	48
Effective to a certain extent	85	42.3	3	12
Not effective	16	8	0	0
Total	201	100	25	100
(c) helping you with problems	N	%	N	%
Very effective	59	29.4	9	36
Effective	33	16.4	13	52
Effective to a certain extent	86	42.8	3	12
Not effective	23	11.4	0	0
Total	201	100	25	100
(d) monitoring your progress	N	%	N	%
Very effective	65	32.3	10	40
Effective	38	18.9	10	40
Effective to a certain extent	74	36.8	5	20
Not effective	24	11.9	0	0
Total	201	100	25	100
(e) giving practical examples to support the topic	N	%	N	%
Very effective	50	24.9	10	40
Effective	47	23.4	13	52

Effective to a certain extent	85	42.3	2	8
Not effective	19	9.5	0	0
Total	201	100	25	100

Only 50.3% of SSFIC respondents considered their trainers to be effective or better regarding the explanation of the subject matter. The largest proportion of the trainee respondents from SSFIC (40.8%) felt that the trainers were only effective to some extent. The equivalent proportions from CBAH were 80% and 20% which is a significant difference. Furthermore, whereas 9% of trainee participants from SSFIC felt that the trainers were not effective at all, nobody gave this rating from CBAH. The results for the other elements broadly paralleled these.

Only 49.8% of SSFIC respondents considered their trainers to be effective or better in generating an interest in the topic of training, with the most popular rating (42.3%) being no better than effective to some extent. The equivalent proportions from CBAH were 88% and 12%. Similar to the finding of the previous element, a small number (8%) from SSFIC felt that the trainers were not effective; in contrast, nobody said this from CBAH.

Only 45.8% of SSFIC respondents considered the trainers to be effective or better in helping the trainee in solving problems that they may face, with the most popular rating (42.8%) being no better than effective to some extent. The equivalent proportions from CBAH were 88% and 12%. 11.4% from SSFIC felt that the trainers were not effective; in contrast, nobody said this from CBAH.

In terms of good guidance by the trainers on the progress of the trainees, only 51.2% of SSFIC respondents considered the trainers to be effective or better, with the most popular

rating (36.8%) being no better than effective to some extent. The equivalent proportions from CBAH were 80% and 20%. 11.9% from SSFIC felt that the trainers were not effective; in contrast, nobody said this from CBAH.

In terms of ability to enrich the theme of the training sessions with good practical examples only 48.3% of SSFIC respondents considered the trainers to be effective or better, with most popular rating (42.3%) being no better than effective to some extent. The equivalent proportions from CBAH were 92% and 8%. 19% from SSFIC felt that the trainers were not effective at all in this area; in contrast, nobody said this from CBAH.

### 7.3.1.4.3 The third phase: Post- Training

#### 7.3.1.4.3.1 Evaluation of the policy and plan of training

Trainees were asked to rate the policy and plan of training in order to obtain their perceptions.

**Table 7.31: Rating the policy and plan of training**

How would you rate the policy and plan of training?	SSFIC		CBAH	
	F	%	F	%
Entirely appropriate	39	19.4	6	24
Appropriate to a certain extent	117	58.2	13	52
Not appropriate	45	22.4	6	24
Total	201	100	25	100

58.2% of SSFIC respondents considered that the training policy and plan was appropriate to a certain extent, and 19.4% responded that the training plan was entirely appropriate. 22.4% of trainees stated that the current policy and plan of training were not appropriate and need to change. The most frequently quoted reasons were:

- The location and timing of most training programmes were not suitable.
- Lack of good planning especially for external training. For example, there were no criteria and priorities guided by the selection of candidates.
- The lack of qualified and skilled people working in training management and human resources management in general.
- Poor choice of trainers
- Training courses of English language should be continuously delivered.
- Duration of some courses was very short, nevertheless these courses were intensive.
- Lack of objectivity or fairness in the evaluation method used.
- The need for intensive courses in the hospitality area
- The absence of the required encouragement for trainees from both the hotel and company, for example, incentives and promotions.

52% of CBAH respondents considered that the training policy and plan was appropriate to a certain extent. The remaining 48% of respondents fitted into two diverging groups, where 24% considered that the policy and training plan was entirely appropriate, while 24% confirmed that the plan was not appropriate and needed to change for the following reasons:

- Lack of coordination in the implementation of training programmes.
- Absence of employees' contribution in preparing training plan, because it aims to improve their skills.
- The need to identify problems of employees and try to overcome them through structured training.

### 7.3.1.4.3.2 The ability to apply training benefits (Transfer of training)

As the literature reveals, one of the most striking features of the success of any training and development programme is the ability of a trainee to transfer the benefits (e.g. skills and knowledge) of training to his/her workplace. Question 12 relating to this was asked of the trainee respondents in both case organisations, in order to gain a better understanding about this factor in the Libyan context.

**Table 7.32: Ability to apply training benefits**

Have you been able to apply new skills, knowledge and attitudes to your job?	SSFIC		CBAH	
	F	%	F	%
To a large extent	47	23.4	15	60
To a certain extent	126	62.7	10	40
Not at all	28	13.9	0	0
Total	201	100	25	100

Table 7.32 shows that 62.7% of SSFIC respondents said that they had been able, to a certain extent, to apply training benefits (e.g. new skills, knowledge and attitudes) to their jobs. In addition, 23.4% were able to apply the new skills to a large extent for their own benefit. However, the situation was different in CBAH, where 60% of respondents said that they had been able, to a large extent, to apply training benefits (e.g. new skills, knowledge and attitudes) to their jobs. In addition, 40% were able to apply the new skills, to a certain extent, to the benefit of their jobs.

The finding from this data shows that the situation in CBAH was better than SSFIC because the majority of participants in CBAH were able to a large extent, to apply the skills acquired from the training programmes. This in turn may be due to some difficulties facing

SSFIC, for example a lack of adequate support from supervisors or colleagues. A fuller explanation of these difficulties is in the next section.

### 7.3.1.4.3.3 Difficulties in applying the knowledge and skills

Regardless of the training benefits (e.g. new skills and knowledge) that can be obtained from the training sessions the main aim must be to apply these benefits in the workplace. This remains an important issue in verifying the training outcomes. In other words, the trainee in some cases could be able to acquire new skills and knowledge, but he/she cannot transfer these skills to his/her job due to some difficulties in the work environment. Therefore, the researcher wanted to see these difficulties if they exist.

**Table 7.33: Difficulties facing trainees in applying the knowledge and skills gained from the training courses**

Have there been any difficulties that prevented you from applying the knowledge and skills gained from the training courses?	SSFIC		CBAH	
	F	%	F	%
Yes	169	84.1	5	20
No	32	15.9	20	80
Total	201	100	25	100
Type of difficulties	SSFIC		CBAH	
	N	%	N	%
1/ Discouragement from the line managers	36	17.9	1	4
2/ A lack of enthusiasm from colleagues	7	3.5	1	4
3/ An absence of appropriate incentives	73	36.3	1	4
4/ Combination of 1 & 2	4	2	2	8
5/ Combination of 1 & 3	39	19.4	0	0
6/ Combination of 1, 2 & 3	10	5	0	0
7/ No answer	32	15.9	20	80
Total	201	100	25	100

Table 7.33 shows difficulties faced by trainees after the end of courses. 84.1% of SSFIC respondents have faced some barriers. 60.7% state the absence of appropriate incentives, either singly or in combination with other factors, and 44.3%, again either singly or in

combination with other factors indicate some measure of discouragement from line managers; the rest were unsatisfied in terms of enthusiasm from colleagues.

A large majority of CBAH respondents (80%) were able to apply the knowledge and skills gained from the training courses. The remaining respondents state that they have faced some problems represented in discouragement from the line managers and a lack of enthusiasm from colleagues.

#### 7.3.1.4.3.4 Training incentives

**Table 7.34: Personal benefits as a result of attending training courses**

Have you obtained any personal benefits (e.g. incentives, promotion) as a result of attending these sessions?	SSFIC		CBAH	
	F	%	F	%
Yes	11	5.5	19	76
No	190	94.5	6	24
Total	201	100	25	100

94.5% of respondents from SSFIC pointed out that they did not obtain any personal benefits such as material or motivational incentives or promotions. A very small number (5.5%) who were nominated for external courses (Tunisia, Jordan and the United Arab Emirates) said that they obtained some benefits, such as travel grants and free accommodation in luxury hotels with leisure trips. In other words, there are no advantages or incentives for completion of local training courses. However, in CBAH, roughly three quarters of the trainee participants (76%) pointed out that they obtained some personal benefits, for example, material incentives (e.g. salary increase), promotions and certificates at the end of training courses. Nearly a quarter (24%) did not obtain any benefits.

In addition to the absence of training incentives, there was a high degree of dissatisfaction about salaries, which was reported by 11.4% of participants through their comments in question 25.

This dissatisfaction was prevalent among those participants who work in middle and executive management. The purpose of commenting upon the issue of poor salaries here is in order to explain the weakness of the current system of salaries and reward in SSFIC.

#### 7.3.1.4.3.5 General assessment of training programmes provided

Table 7.35 provides a general overview of trainee’s assessments of training provided with recommendations for improvement.

**Table 7.35: The assessment of trainees of training courses that have been targeted at the hotel**

How would you rate the training programmes that have been targeted by this hotel?	SSFIC		CBAH	
	F	%	F	%
Excellent	21	10.4	5	20
Good	102	50.7	10	40
Satisfactory	64	31.8	10	40
Not good	14	7	0	0
Total	201	100	25	100
If the programmes were satisfactory or not good, please mention your suggestions for their development.	SSFIC			
	F		%	
1/ Location & timing	10		5	
2/ Qualified people	9		4.5	
3/ Training methods	12		6	
4/ Practical courses	8		4	
5/ External courses	6		3	
6/ Combination of 1 & 2	5		2.5	
7/ Combination of 1, 2 & 3	11		5.5	
No answer	140		69.7	
Total	201		100	
If the programmes were satisfactory or not good, please	CBAH			

mention your suggestions for their development.	F	%
1/ More intensive training courses	2	8
2/ More training incentives	1	4
3/ Further interest for new staff	3	12
4/ Conviction of importance of training	4	16
No answer	15	60
Total	25	100

As reflected in Table 7.34, 61.1% of respondents in SSFIC maintain that training courses that have been aimed at different hotels were good or better, and 93% deemed them satisfactory or better. On the other hand, small groups disagree with each other, where 10.4% said that courses were excellent, while 7% state that these programmes were not good. The last group mentioned some justifications and suggestions in order to improve these programmes as summarised in the following points:

- The need for selecting appropriate timing and location of courses, with the possibility of full-time session.
- Select qualified people to work in training management.
- There is no clear training plan for every year.
- The need for developing and diversification of training methods.
- Must focus on practical training as a result of the work environment in hotels area.
- The need to conduct specialised courses in some countries that have good experiences in hotel and hospitality area.
- The need to prepare regulation of training

In contrast, only 60% of respondents in CBAH felt that training courses that had been aimed directly at the hotel were good or better, although no-one considered them to be not

good and 20% deemed that these programmes were excellent. The 40% who said that training courses were only satisfactory made the following points:

- 16% were not totally convinced of the importance of training
- 12% stated that new staff needed further interest
- 8% pointed out that most staff still needs more intensive training courses
- 4% asserted the need for more training incentives

### **7.3.1.4.3.7 Trainee comments**

#### **7.3.1.4.3.7.1 Analysis of trainees' comments in SSFIC**

Two out of every three respondents (65.7%) introduced important suggestions and notes at the end of this questionnaire.

**Table 7.36: Trainees' comments on training courses (SSFIC)**

If you have any comments or notes on the evaluation of training programmes, not included in this questionnaire, please feel free to mention them:	F	%
1- Location and timing were not suitable	14	7
2- Lack of identifying training needs	9	4.5
3- Lack of skilled and qualified staff	12	6
4- Lack of experience	16	8
5- Lack of facilities	19	9.5
6- No encouragement and incentives	13	6.5
7- Poor salaries	23	11.4
8- Combination of 1 & 3	16	8
9- Combination of 1 & 4	10	5
10- Combination of 3, 4 & 6	23	11.4
11- No answer	46	22.8
Total	201	100

Most proposals have focused on the following points:

- The location and timing of most training programmes were not suitable, for example, duration of some courses was too short, where there was no possibility for discussions.
- Lack of identifying training needs for employees.
- The questionnaire should be used by the company as a method to identify the problems and suggestions for staff.
- The lack of qualified and skilled people for working in training management and human resources management in general.
- The need for selecting appropriate timing and location of courses, with the possibility of full-time for the sessions.
- Training programmes must be targeted at all staff.
- More care should be taken when selecting training centres that have experience in hotels area.
- The need for providing some equipment and facilities in each course (e.g. sheets, books and CDs).
- The need for intensive courses in English language and computing, with the accurate identification of training needs in each hotel.
- There were no courses for security and professional safety.
- One of the respondents said that “Al-Wahat Hotel needs complete maintenance in order to gain customer satisfaction as well as keeping competitive with other hotels”.

- The need for required encouragement for trainees from both the hotel and company, for example, incentives and promotions.
- The need for intensive courses in the hospitality area.
- The need for staff responsible for training programmes to improve their skills in the hospitality field.
- poor salaries

#### **7.3.1.4.3.7.2 Analysis of participants' comments in CBAH**

In CBAH, only one out of three (32%) of the trainee respondents introduced important suggestions and notes at the end of this questionnaire. As noted in table 7.37, these suggestions were as follows:

- 16% of respondents felt that most staff still needed more intensive training courses especially for the Libyan employees.
- 12% affirmed that limited number of staff fluent in foreign languages.
- 4% indicated that some staff did not pay much attention to the training courses and others did not attend some of those sessions.

**Table 7.37: Trainees' comments on training courses (CBAH)**

If you have any comments on the evaluation of training programmes, not included in this questionnaire, please feel free to mention them:	F	%
More training courses	4	16
Foreign languages	3	12
More attention to training courses by the staff	1	4
No comments	17	68
Total	25	100

## 7.3.2 The findings of training managers' survey and interviews

### 7.3.2.1 Introduction

The second target group in this study for this study was the training managers (a total of seven), working in different departments in the SSFIC, as shown in Table 7.38.

#### - Position of participants

As shown in the table 7.38, there are three key departments for training activity in SSFIC. The top unit is the OPS, which reports directly to top management (see the organisational structure in chapter 5, section 5.2.2). This unit is responsible for preparing strategies and training plans. The second unit is called HRM, whilst the third one is the DTD, which reports directly to HRM. Both departments HRM and DTD are responsible for implementing strategies and training plans prepared by the OPS. However, in CBAH, there is a Training Academy located within the hotel, and there was only one person responsible for training activity.

**Table 7.38: The positions and departments of the manager respondents in both cases**

Department	Position	SSFIC		CBAH	
		F	%	F	%
Planning and Studies (OPS)	The Head of OPS and three employees	4	57.1	0	0
Human Resources Management (HRM)	The Head of HRM	1	14.3	0	0
Training and Development (DTD)	The Head of DTD and his assistant	2	28.6	0	0
Training Academy (TA)	The Head of TA	0	0	1	100
Total		7	100	1	100

### 7.3.2.2 Training phases

#### 7.3.2.2.1 The first phase: Pre-training

##### 7.3.2.2.1.1 The policy, plan, and objectives of training

Table 7.39 shows that all the management respondents in both cases stated that there were training plans and policies. In SSFIC, the OPS was responsible for planning and preparing the training plans and policies. However, HRM and Top Management Authority were responsible for preparing this plan in CBAH. In addition, all participants in this survey agree that there were specific objectives for the training programmes, as mentioned in Table 7.40.

**Table 7.39: Training policies and plans**

Is there a training policy in this organisation?	SSFIC		CBAH	
	F	%	F	%
Yes	7	100	1	100
No	0	0	0	0
Total	7	100	1	100
If yes, Who plans it?				
OPS	7	100	0	0
HRM & Top Management Authority	0	0	1	100
Total	7	100	1	100

**Table 7.40: Training programme objectives**

Are there specific objectives for the training programmes?	SSFIC		CBAH	
	F	%	F	%
Yes	7	100	1	100
Sometimes	0	0	0	0
No	0	0	0	0
Total	7	100	1	100

### 7.3.2.2.1.2 Duration of training plan

The SSFIC responses about the duration of the training plan were revealing because of the lack of agreement. Although five out of the seven SSFIC managers stated that the duration was yearly, one thought it was 6 monthly and one didn't know. For CBAH it was monthly and yearly.

**Table 7.41: Duration of training plan**

The training plan is:	SSFIC		CBAH	
	F	%	F	%
Monthly	0	0	0	0
3 Months	0	0	0	0
6 Months	1	14.3	0	0
Yearly	5	71.4	0	0
Don't know	1	14.3	0	0
Monthly & Yearly	0	0	1	100
Total	7	100	1	100

### 7.3.2.2.1.3 The main objectives that the two cases usually look to achieve through the training courses

All the manager participants in the two cases believed that the six objectives mentioned in Table 7.42 were equal in importance.

**Table 7.42: The main objectives that hotels are usually looking to achieve through training programmes**

What are the main objectives that you usually look to achieve through the implementation of such training programmes? (Please specify the objectives in order of importance)	SSFIC		CBAH	
	F	%	F	%
Gain a better understanding of the employee	0	0	0	0
Develop a greater ability to communicate with other	0	0	0	0
Improve the service quality	0	0	0	0
Improve the performance levels	0	0	0	0

Gain new knowledge and skills	0	0	0	0
Reduce the turnover of staff	0	0	0	0
All the points above are of the same importance	7	100	1	100
Total	7	100	1	100

#### 7.3.2.2.1.4 Training course locations

Table 7.43 confirms the information already presented from the training reports and trainees responses. In SSFIC, all respondents said that no training courses were currently conducted inside the company or its hotels. Managers spoken to in several hotels, for example, one of the managers in Bab-Bahur Hotel and in the Al-Wahat Hotel confirmed that no training courses were conducted inside the hotel. The Head of the Training Academy in CBAH pointed out that the vast majority of training courses were conducted inside the hotel. However, sometimes a small number of those courses could be implemented outside the hotel.

**Table 7.43: Training courses conducted outside the hotel**

Are there any training courses taking place outside the hotel?	SSFIC		CBAH	
	F	%	F	%
Yes	7	100	0	0
Sometimes	0	0	1	100
No	0	0	0	0
Total	7	100	1	100

#### 7.3.2.2.2 The second phase: During training

##### 7.3.2.2.2.1 Training methods

In SSFIC, training managers agreed with the trainees as previously reported in section 7.3.1.4.2.3 about the key methods used for training, where the lecture was the most

common method used, as mentioned by all manager participants. In addition, the second most common method used after lecture was discussion in combination with other methods, as noted by five out of the seven respondents. These percentages are significantly different to those given by trainees. In CBAH, the reported methods used were discussions, case studies, and on-the-job training.

**Table 7.44: Methods of training courses**

What are the methods used in the implementation of training courses?	SSFIC		CBAH	
	F	%	F	%
1- Lecture	2	28.6	0	0
2- Discussion	0	0	0	0
3- Case study	0	0	0	0
4- Practical application	0	0	0	0
5- Combination of 1& 2	1	14.3	0	0
6- Combination of 1 , 2 &3	2	28.6	0	0
7- Combination of 1,2 , 3&4	2	28.6	0	0
8- Combination of 2 , 3 & on-the-job training	0	0	1	100
Total	7	100	25	100

### 7.3.2.2.3 The third phase: post-training

#### 7.3.2.2.3.1 Evaluation of the training policies and plans

Four out of the seven SSFIC respondents (57.1%) considered the current training policy and plan to be inappropriate and in need of change. This finding was consistent with the situation in CBAH. However, two managers felt that the policy and plan were appropriate to some extent and one felt it was entirely appropriate. Workload was one of the reasons which made the training plan inappropriate and in need of change, as reported by one of the training managers. In addition, one of the training managers said that the training management in the SSFIC suffers from lack of qualified people. In contrast, the Head of

Training Academy in the CBAH stated that the training plan was in the process of being re-designed in order to comply with the current goals of the hotel.

**Table 7.45: Rating the training policy and plan**

How would you rate the training policy and plan?	SSFIC		CBAH	
	F	%	F	%
Entirely appropriate	1	14.3	-	-
Appropriate to a certain extent	2	28.6	-	-
Inappropriate and in need of change	4	57.1	1	100
Total	7	100	1	100
If the plan is appropriate to some extent or inappropriate, please mention the main reasons:				
Job circumstances	1	14.3	0	0
Re-designed	0	0	1	100

#### 7.3.2.2.3.2 Achievement of training objectives

In terms of the achievement of training objectives, Table 7.46 shows that four of the seven respondents from SSFIC believed that the rate of achievement exceeded 50%, one of whom believed that the achievement proportion of those objectives was more than 80%. On the other hand three of the seven managers felt that the achievement proportion of training objectives did not reach 50%. The CBAH respondent believed that more than 50% of the company's training objectives had been achieved. However, she said that the training plan needed to change and currently is being re-designed.

**Table 7.46: The extent of the company's achievement of its training objectives**

To what extent have the objectives of the training programmes been achieved?	SSFIC		CBAH	
	F	%	F	%
Fully achieved	0	0	0	0
More than 80% achieved	1	14.28	0	0
More than 50% achieved	3	42.85	1	100
Less than 50% achieved	3	42.85	0	0

Not achieved at all	0	0	0	0
Total	7	100	1	100
If the objectives were not fully achieved, what were the main reasons:				
Training strategies and plans were not well-planned in previous years and there were difficulties in implementing the current plan.	3	42.85	0	0
Currently being re-designed	0	0	1	100

### 7.3.2.2.3.3 The methods and objectives of training evaluation

Three tables below relate to clarify evaluation methods used by the two organisations selected. The first table (7.47) shows that the majority of respondents in SSFIC (85.7%) mentioned that evaluation of training programmes was made by trainers during and after the end of each course directly through attendance, participation and test results of each trainee.

**Table 7.47: Method of training evaluation**

Do you have a method that you adopt in the evaluation of training for trainees?	SSFIC		CBAH	
	F	%	F	%
Yes	6	85.7	1	100
No	1	14.3	0	0
Total	7	100	1	100
If so, what is the basis of this?				
Results of trainer's evaluation	6	85.7	0	0
On-the- job assessments & customer feedback	0	0	1	100

Consequently, SSFIC has adopted the evaluation of trainees and its training programmes in general only through the trainer's report. In addition, one of the training managers pointed out that: "Training evaluation is, still conducted by the trainer, but the company is now in the process of establishing mechanisms to assess trainees after their return to work".

One of the training managers in the SSFIC confirmed that there were two forms for evaluating training programmes, one for local courses and another for externally delivered training courses.

Forms for overseas training were prepared by the DTD, and distributed directly to trainees after their return to the workplace. In addition to these forms, there were many other kinds of forms for external courses delivered in non-Libyan centres. These are prepared by the external training centres in both countries, Tunisia and Jordan and assess the training courses from the perspective of the trainer and again from the perspective of the trainee. (see appendix 5).

Two of the training managers in SSFIC pointed out that a final report was usually sent directly to the SSFIC and this would provide some feedback about the performance of each trainee. Furthermore, some of those managers indicated that the evaluation process is not easy to conduct during the short-term; and one of them, for example, said “may be it often needs more than three months” therefore, the correct evaluation of trainees usually comes later, and directly from supervisors. In addition, two of the training managers stated that the final training certificate or report alone is an insufficient tool to evaluate the training courses.

Although the situation in CBAH was similar to SSFIC in terms of the methods used to evaluate the training courses, CBAH had additional evaluation methods in the form of on-the-job assessments and customer feedback, as shown in Table 7.47. In addition, all participants from SSFIC and CBAH agree that there were specific objectives for

conducting the evaluation process, as shown in Table 7.48. No-one from SSFIC responded to the question: 'If yes, please mention'.

**Table 7.48: Objectives for conducting evaluation process**

Are there specific objectives for conducting the evaluation process?	SSFIC		CBAH	
	F	%	F	%
Yes	7	100	1	100
Sometimes	0	0	0	0
No	0	0	0	0
Total	7	100	1	100
If yes, please mention:				
Variable/ Depending on modules	0	0	1	100

One of the external training providers that the SSFIC deals with was 'Awardbrand Centre'. From personal observation this centre was one of the most important training centres in which to learn the English language in the country, because the vast majority of teachers were from the UK. However, the evaluation of these courses was similar to other external training organisations that the SSFIC deals with, where during the distribution of the questionnaires the head of this centre stated that this process depends largely on the assessment by the trainer firstly, and after that award of the final certificate.

Table 7.49 shows that six out of seven of manager respondents in SSFIC stated that the certificate and report of the training centre or report of trainer were the key sources of information used to evaluate training courses attended by trainees. However, unfortunately, there was no response to this question from CBAH.

**Table 7.49: Source of information used when implementing methods of training evaluation for trainees**

What is the source of your information that you have used when implementing methods of training evaluation for trainees?	SSFIC		CBAH	
	F	%	F	%
1-Trainer’s report	1	14.3	0	0
2-Report or certificate from the training centre	1	14.3	0	0
3- Combination of 1 & 2	4	57.1	0	0
4-No answer	1	14.3	1	100
Total	7	100	1	100

**7.3.2.2.3.4 Communication and cooperation between departments on the evaluation of training**

As reflected in the table 7.50, the sending of letters was the main means of communication between different departments in SSFIC regarding the evaluation process. This was confirmed by six out of the seven of the manager respondents. In contrast, regular meetings with managers’ departments and personal communication were the main two tools of communication in CBAH.

**Table 7.50: Means of communication on the evaluation of training between departments of the company and its hotels**

What are the means of communication on the evaluation of training between you and other departments of the company and its hotels?	SSFIC		CBAH	
	F	%	F	%
1-Sending letters	6	85.7	0	0
2-Regular meetings with managers’ departments	1	14.3	0	0
3-Personal communication	0	0	0	0
4- Combination of 2 & 3	0	0	1	100
Total	7	100	1	100

The situation was similar in both cases in terms of the cooperation between training management and all departments about evaluation of training programmes.

**Table 7.51: Cooperation between different departments about evaluation process**

How much cooperation do you receive from departments about the evaluation of training courses?	SSFIC		CBAH	
	F	%	F	%
Excellent cooperation	0	0	0	0
Good cooperation	1	14.3	0	0
Cooperation to some extent	5	71.4	1	100
Lack of cooperation	1	14.3	0	0
No cooperation	0	0	0	0
Total	7	100	1	100
If the answer is not good cooperation, please specify why this might be so:				
1- unskilled staff	1	14.3	No answer	
2- a large target number of trainees	1	14.3		
3- Combination of 1 & 2	3	42.9		

Five out of the seven participants (71.4%) in SSFIC and the CBAH respondent believed that cooperation between training units and all departments about evaluation of training programmes only existed to some extent. This means that there was a deficiency in the degree of cooperation, and could be one of many obstacles facing both companies in achieving their training plan objectives. Two reasons were given for this by participants in SSFIC; firstly, the lack of skilled people, and secondly, in contrast, the large number of trainees who had been targeted for the previous sessions, current sessions, and the future sessions.

As mentioned in the literature, training evaluation is a complex task, and organisations should take such evaluation methods seriously. What can be seen from the results above when linking it with the result of the previous section is that there was a lack of cooperation between parties (training management, trainers, and trainees) relating to evaluation of trainees from SSFIC. This has resulted in a heavy dependence on sending and receiving letters that substitute for discussions and interviews with the trainees and trainers.

### 7.3.2.2.3.5 Timing of training course evaluation

It seems clear from Table 7.52 that there was a specific time for the evaluation of training courses in both cases. Five out of seven managers (71.4%) of SSFIC said that usually evaluation was conducted during the course and immediately afterwards. The situation is similar in CBAH, where evaluation was received at the end of the following month and through a general report prepared by the Training Academy.

**Table 7.52: Timing of training course evaluation**

Is there a specific time for the evaluation of training courses?	SSFIC		CBAH	
	F	%	F	%
Yes	6	85.7	1	100
No	1	14.3	0	0
Total	7	100	1	100
If yes – when is this done?				
During the course and immediately afterwards	5	71.4	0	0
End of the following month (General report)	0	0	1	100

### 7.3.2.2.3.6 Training managers view of training incentives

In an effort to clarify the training incentives that had given to the participants on training programmes, training manager participants were asked to clarify if such incentives exist or not, and if so what form did they take.

As Table 7.53 shows six out of seven respondents in SSFIC, asserted that there were no incentives granted to the trainees. However, one participant said that incentives were given to trainees to attend overseas training courses. In CBAH, there was training motivation, but the respondent did not give examples.

**Table 7.53: Training incentives**

Are there any incentives given to the trainees?	SSFIC		CBAH	
	F	%	F	%
Yes	1	14.3	1	100
Sometimes	0	0	0	0
No	6	85.7	0	0
Total	7	100	1	100
If yes, please specify:				
For external courses	1	14.3	No answer	

The responses of training managers in SSFIC were largely consistent with the trainees' responses (see section 7.3.1.4.3.6). This suggests that the SSFIC suffers from many imbalances in its training policy and plans, although it has spent significant sums of money on training programmes (see Table 4.6).

#### 7.3.2.2.3.7 Difficulties of training

**Table 7.54: Difficulties of training**

Does the company/hotel face some difficulties regarding the training and its evaluation?	SSFIC		CBAH	
	F	%	F	%
Always	0	0	0	0
Sometimes	7	100	0	0
Rarely	0	0	1	100
Never	0	0	0	0
Total	7	100	1	100
If always or sometimes, please give examples:			SSFIC	
1- Lack of skilled staff			1	14.3
2- Lack of mechanisms of evaluation			1	14.3
3- Lack of cooperation			1	14.3
4- Lack of trainees' experience			1	14.3
5- Low level of some of the training centres			1	14.3
6- Combination of 1 & 3			1	14.3

The situation seems clear from Table 7.54, that the SSFIC faces some difficulties during the evaluation of its training programmes as affirmed by all training managers. These difficulties can be summarised in the following seven points:

- 1- Lack of knowledge of some officials of the importance of evaluation
- 2- Lack of mechanisms of evaluation
- 3- Inability of some officials to measure the quality and results of training
- 4- Lack of cooperation by some officials with trainees
- 5- Need for uniform criteria of evaluation
- 6- Uncompleted evaluation forms due to trainees' lack of knowledge of dimensions of evaluation
- 7- Low level of some of the training centres

In contrast, CBAH rarely faces difficulties, as reported by the Head of Training Academy.

### **7.3.3 The finding of trainers' survey**

#### **7.3.3.1 Introduction**

The trainers were the third target sample in this survey. Thirteen trainers participated in this study, ten providing training programmes for SSFIC, and three were from CBAH, as shown in Table 7.55.

**Table 7.55: Number of the trainer participants from different training centres**

SSFIC	
Training centre	No.
1- SSFIC's Training Centre	2
2- Awardbrand	4
3- High Academy Studies	1

4- Arab Union for Technical Education	2
5- Alalamia	1
Total	10
CBAH	
Training Academy Centre	3

### 7.3.3.2 Training phases

The trainers' survey focused on the third phase of training; thus there were only two questions related to the first and second phases.

#### 7.3.3.2.1 The first phase: Pre-training

##### 7.3.3.2.1.1 Training course objectives and evaluation

As shown in Tables (7.56) and (7.57), all the trainer participants who dealt with SSFIC and only one from CBAH agreed that there were specific objectives for each course and their evaluation. However, the remaining two respondents from CBAH deemed that only occasionally were there specific goals for training programmes and their evaluation. With regard to specific objectives for conducting the evaluation process, the participants in SSFIC reported two: Identifying objectives achieved and identifying trainees' impressions.

**Table 7.56: Training programme objectives**

Are there specific objectives for the training programmes?	SSFIC		CBAH	
	F	%	F	%
Yes	10	100	1	33.3
Sometimes	0	0	2	66.7
No	0	0	0	0
Total	10	100	3	100

**Table 7.57: Specific objectives for conducting the evaluation process**

Are there specific objectives for conducting the evaluation process?	SSFIC		CBAH	
	F	%	F	%
Yes	10	100	1	33.3
Sometimes	0	0	2	66.7
No	0	0	0	0
Total	10	100	3	100
If yes, please mention objectives:				
1- Identifying objectives achieved	4	40	No answer	
2- Identifying trainees' expression	1	10		
3- Combination of 1 & 2	5	50		
Total	10	100		

**7.3.3.2.1.2 Training evaluation methods**

All the trainer respondents in both cases stated that there were certain methods used in training evaluation, and they mentioned diverse methods which were not very different between the two cases. In SSFIC, the evaluation was based on the following elements: a) attendance and discussion, and b) tests and post-course questionnaires.

The evaluation in CBAH was represented in the following methods: a) discussion and tests, and b) observation and evaluation of performance on-the-job-training.

**Table 7.58: Training evaluation methods**

Do you have a method that you adopt in the evaluation of training for trainees?	SSFIC		CBAH	
	F	%	F	%
Yes	10	100	3	100
No	0	0	0	0
Total	10	100	3	100
If so, what is the basis of this?				
1- Attendance and discussion	2		20	
2- Tests and post questionnaires	4		40	
3- Combination of 1 & 2	4		40	
Total	10		100	

If so, what is the basis of this?	CBAH	
	F	%
1- Discussion and tests	1	33.3
2- Combination of 1, observation & evaluation of performance on-the-job-training	2	66.7
Total	3	100

The range of methods listed does not coincide with those mentioned by the trainees and training managers

### 7.3.3.2.2 The second phase: During training

#### 7.3.3.2.2.1 Training course methods

The lecture, and combination of lecture and discussion were the most common methods adopted in the delivery of training course content according to SSFIC respondents. The three CBAH trainers only referred to discussion. It should be noted that practical application was apparently not used by the trainers in either company despite the fact that it is one of the key methods that should be used, as a result of the nature of work in the hotel area. The figures, as with the equivalent percentages from the training managers, are significantly different to those reported by the trainees. The sample is too small to draw strong inferences from this disparity. It should also be noted that the data does not allow connection to be made between courses that the trainers taught on and those the trainees attended.

**Table 7.59: Training course methods**

What are the methods used in the implementation of training courses?	SSFIC		CBAH	
	F	%	F	%
1- Lecture	4	40	0	0
2- Discussion	0	0	3	100

3- Case study	0	0	0	0
4- Practical application	0	0	0	0
5- Combination of 1 & 2	4	40	0	0
6- Combination of 1, 2 & 3	2	20	0	0
Total	10	100	3	100

### 7.3.3.2.2 Evaluation of the relevance of the content of training courses

Question seven of the trainers' questionnaire was designed in order to obtain more useful and accurate details, and a broader understanding of the relevance of the content of training courses. It focused on five elements: training objectives, the nature of the trainee work, training needs of the trainee, specified time for the session, and the ability of the trainee. Table 7.60 summarises the findings, the most significant being the low perception of the relevance of the course content when rated against each of these elements. For SSFIC, ratings for content being largely appropriate ranged between 20% and 40%. Only 20% of respondents applied this rating to meeting trainee needs. For CBAH the ratings were even more critical, no-one considering the content to be largely appropriate for meeting training objectives, trainee needs or trainee ability levels. In addition none of the CBAH trainers considered the time allowed for courses to be totally adequate.

**Table 7.60: Evaluation of the relevance of the content of training courses**

How would you rate the relevance of the content of training courses for each of the following situations:	SSFIC		CBAH	
	F	%	F	%
(a) Training objectives				
Appropriate to a large extent	3	30	0	0
Appropriate to a certain extent	7	70	3	100
Not appropriate at all	0	0	0	0
Total	10	100		100
(b) The nature of the trainee work				
Appropriate to a large extent	4	40	1	33.3

Appropriate to a certain extent	6	60	2	66.6
Not appropriate at all	0	0	0	0
Total	10	100	3	100
(c) Training needs of the trainee	F	%	F	%
Appropriate to a large extent	2	20	0	0
Appropriate to a certain extent	8	80	3	100
Not appropriate at all	0	0	0	0
Total	10	100	3	100
(d) Specified time for the session	F	%	F	%
Appropriate to a large extent	4	40	0	0
Appropriate to a certain extent	5	50	2	66.6
Not appropriate at all	1	10	1	33.3
Total	10	100	3	100
(e) Ability of the trainee	F	%	F	%
Appropriate to a large extent	3	30	0	0
Appropriate to a certain extent	6	60	3	100
Not appropriate at all	1	10	0	0
Total	10	100	3	100

**(a) Training objectives**

The situation was largely similar in both cases, where seven out of ten participants (70%) in SSFIC and the entire population in CBAH deemed that the link between the relevance of the content of training courses and their goals was appropriate to some extent. However, three of the ten (30%) of SSFIC were more positive and believed that the link was appropriate to a large extent.

**(b) The nature of trainee work**

With regard to the nature of work of the trainee, four trainers (40%) of SSFIC and one from CBAH believed that the link between the relevance of the content of the training courses and the nature of work of the trainee was appropriate to a large extent, whereas the

remaining six of SSFIC and two from CBAH were less positive and held that the relationship was only to some extent.

**(c) The training needs of a trainee**

With regard to training needs, the findings were largely similar in the two cases, where eight out of ten (80%) in SSFIC and all participants in CBAH believed that the content of training courses was consistent and appropriate to some extent with the training needs of the trainees. The remaining two trainers (20%) from SSFIC felt that the training content was appropriate to a large extent with the trainees' needs.

**(d) Specified time for the session**

Half of the trainer respondents in SSFIC and two out of three in CBAH deemed that the duration of the courses was appropriate to some extent. Four of the remaining five in SSFIC stated that the duration was appropriate to a large extent, and by contrast, one participant in both cases felt that the duration was not appropriate at all.

**(e) Ability**

Six out of ten of the participants in SSFIC and all participants in CBAH felt that the training courses in terms of their content were appropriate to some extent with the ability of the participants of those courses. Three of the remaining participants in SSFIC believed that the content of training courses was appropriate to a large extent. On the other hand, one trainer felt that the content was not appropriate at all, if compared with the ability of the trainee participants.

### 7.3.3.2.3 The third phase: Post-training

#### 7.3.3.2.3.1 Evaluation of the training policy and plan

As reflected in Table 7.61, the trainer respondents were much more positive about the training plan and policy than the training managers. None considered it was inappropriate and in need of change. 60% of the trainer respondents in SSFIC, and all the trainer respondents in CBAH assessed the training policy and plan as appropriate to a certain extent. In addition, 40% of SSFIC felt that the policy and plan were entirely appropriate.

**Table 7.61: Evaluation of the training policy and plan**

How would you rate the policy and plan of training?	SSFIC		CBAH	
	F	%	F	%
Entirely appropriate	4	40	0	0
Appropriate to a certain extent	6	60	3	100
Not appropriate and need to change	0	0	0	0
Total	10	100	3	100

#### 7.3.3.2.3.2 Timing of training course evaluation

All the trainer respondents in SSFIC and two out of three from CBAH stated that there was a specific time for the evaluation of their training sessions. However, one of the responses from CBAH was not consistent with other responses stating that there was not a specific time for conducting the evaluation of training courses. Nine out of ten of the participants in SSFIC (90%) stated that the time of evaluation was usually both during and after any training course. One of the CBAH trainers indicated that they too conducted evaluation during and at the end of any training course but the other two respondents also mentioned

that they added another time of evaluation which was after the return of the trainees to their workplace.

**Table 7.62: Timing of training course evaluation**

Is there a specific time for the evaluation of training courses?	SSFIC		CBAH	
	F	%	F	%
Yes	10	100	2	66.7
No	0	0	1	33.3
Total	10	100	3	100
If yes – when is this done?				
1-During and after course	9	90	1	33.3
2-Mostly at the end of course	1	10	0	0
3-Combination of 1 & After return to the workplace	0	0	2	66.7
Total	10	100	3	100

### 7.3.3.2.3.3 Difficulties of training and its evaluation

There was a total agreement among the respondents in the two cases which indicates that both cases sometimes face some difficulties in the training area in general, and particularly with respect to the evaluation process. These difficulties were as follows:

- Lack of link between content and objectives of training (Reported by 80% of SSFIC)
- Lack of cooperation by trainees (Reported by three out of ten respondents of SSFIC)
- Lack of understanding of trainees (Reported by one respondent out of three of CBAH)

**Table 7.63: Difficulties of training and its evaluation**

Do you face some difficulties regarding the training and its evaluation?	SSFIC		CBAH	
	F	%	F	%
Always	0	0	0	0

Sometimes	10	100	3	100
Rarely	0	0	0	0
Never	0	0	0	0
Total	10	100	3	100
If always or sometimes, please give examples:				
1- Lack of link between content and objectives of training	6	60	0	0
2- Lack of cooperation by trainees	1	10	0	0
3- Combination of 1 & 2	2	20	0	0
4- Lack of understanding of trainees	1	10	1	33.3
5- No answer	1	10	2	66.7
Total	10	100	3	100

#### 7.3.3.2.3.4 The trainers' comments

All the trainer participants in CBAH made some comments about training courses in general. Their comments were focused on three points:

- Inadequate time of training courses
- Training methods should be simple and easy
- There was a need for conducting more training courses in different areas, particularly in learning important foreign languages.

None of the participants in SSFIC made any comments.

**Table 7.64: Analysis the trainers' comments**

If you have any comments on the training and evaluation of training courses not included in this questionnaire, please feel free to mention them here:	SSFIC	CBAH	
		F	%
Time of training should be adequate, and training methods should be simple and easy.	No comments	2	66.7
The staff were in need of intensive training courses in different areas, especially in learning important foreign languages.		1	33.3

#### **7.4 Chapter summary**

This chapter has displayed the results from analysing the training reports from November 2007 to the end of 2009 for SSFIC and the three types of questionnaires that were distributed to three target groups: Trainees, training managers, and trainers in both SSFIC and CBAH. Some comparison between the two organisations and the responses of the different populations has been undertaken. The findings also included the perspectives of training managers and some hotel managers through conducting semi-structured interviews that were carried out in both case study organisations. The findings of Chapter Seven will be discussed in more detail in the following chapter.

## **CHAPTER EIGHT: ANALYSIS OF THE FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION**

### **8.1 Introduction**

This chapter presents a comparative discussion of the findings introduced in the previous chapter, with a particular focus on training within SSFIC. This discussion is intended to add an in-depth understanding of the research objectives through the literature review, previous studies and the data collected from both cases. Following an introductory demographic analysis it follows the operational framework outlined in Figure 3.6 to draw conclusions about key issues arising before, during and post-training.

### **8.2 Characteristics of respondents**

#### **8.2.1 Nationality and gender**

In Libya foreign workers in hotels in 2005 represented around 47% of the staff (GBTTI 2008). This is much lower than other Arab nations where for example, Saudi Arabia recruits 84% of its hotel workers from outside the country (Sadi & Henderson 2005). The figure reduced in 2006 to 32% (GBTTI 2009) but was still not sufficient to account for the fact that all respondents in the local hotels managed by the SSFIC were Libyan, and company documents revealed that foreign workers represented only 7% of the workforce.

The CBAH sample also had a high proportion (76%) of Libyan employees. One reason for the disparity could be that the high rate of foreign workers in Libya represents the entire hotel sector (public + private). Another reason could be due to new measures were taken by the Libyan government, which related to regulating the entry and exit and residence of foreigners in Libya and controls on non-national employment (Alzouber, 2008). In the case of SSFIC (before its establishment in 2007), the SSCCH frequently employed foreign

workers and in 2006, workers were recruited from Tunisia and Morocco. However all of these workers needed training to meet the new standards arising out of the rapid development of this industry (Kassem, 2008). One of the objectives of SSFIC was to reduce the need to bring in foreign workers to bridge the skills gap and to be able to respond quickly to changes in the external environment (GSP, 2008-2012).

Libyan employees in the hotel industry, like those in other developing countries, are influenced by their national environment and culture. There are some interesting aspects of national and Arab characteristics that are completely different from employees working in a western culture, particularly in the area of gender. The majority of staff in both cases are male: women constituted only 21% of the SSFIC labour force, not significantly more than the 15% in the survey sample. The figures for CBAH were remarkably similar, although it is worth pointing out that the only female from the managerial sample was the Head of the Training Academy. The situation in other countries is different, as pointed out by several studies. In the West women constitute a large proportion of the labour force in the hospitality and hotel sector (ILO, 2001), in many cases more than men. In the UK for example, of the two million people working in the hospitality, leisure, travel and tourism sector, 56%, i.e. (1,064,700) were women (People 1st, 2010). The situation was similar to that nearly fifteen years before, where 60% of workers in the UK hotel industry and other tourist accommodation were female (Purcell, 1996). Moreover, Doherty (2004) contends that female managers in the hospitality area are well represented in this industry. However, Naama (2007) notes that the number of female employees in the Libyan hotel sector as well as students in the hospitality education institutions are too low. This is a result of the dominance of Arabic traditions and Islamic principles (Naama et al. 2008). It is not just the

hospitality sector that is affected. SSFIC depended mostly on male employees because of the limited participation of women in work generally.

Although Libyan law and the philosophy of Gaddafi which was published in his 'Green Book' in 1973 give equality to women in the workplace, the fact that Libya is a traditional Islamic society means that implementation is problematic. This is made clear by Al-Hwaat (1999) when he says:

*“Theoretically, there are no obstacles facing women if they wish to go out and work. Libyan legislation gives women the right to hold public posts in the state and perform all economic and social activities, but, practically, there are some hardships represented in certain deeply-rooted customs and traditions.”*

Ibrahim (2004, p.9) explained the role of religion and Arabic culture in this issue by saying:

*“Islamic societies are of a patriarchal nature with dominance for men who are responsible for the maintenance of the family and providing its economic needs. Religion-wise, wives ought to obey their husbands even if the husbands' orders are against the desires and will of the wives. Women's domestic functions as wives and mothers are regarded as their sacred role in the society. These functions take precedence to any other interests”.*

Moreover, the absence of an effective role of women in the Libyan hotel sector was an interesting issue that could be considered unique compared with what is common in the hospitality literature.

### **8.2.2 Length of service, staff turnover and pay levels**

The majority of trainee participants from SSFIC (85%) had been employed for over 3 years. This is an indicator that SSFIC does not experience high staff turnover, although it is one of the most important problems facing the hotel sector globally, as confirmed by many writers (e.g. Faulkner & Patiar, 1997; Walmsley, 2004; Baum & Devine, 2007; Poulston, 2008; Yang and Fu, 2009; Kalargyrou and Woods, 2011). Furthermore this study revealed that there was a high degree of dissatisfaction about salaries, which was reported by 11.4% of participants from SSFIC and this dissatisfaction was prevalent among those participants who work in middle and executive management.

However, for CBAH, although 68% of employees in the survey had been employed for over 3 years, staff turnover is one of the most important problems it faces. The explanation afforded by two respondents was because CBAH salaries were not competitive compared to equivalent hotels.

A good system of salaries, reward and motivation is an important factor for retaining employees or to attract new ones. Analoui (1999) deemed that poor salaries and economic incentives are certainly one of the main reasons for ineffectiveness at work. Poor salaries are often the main reason why staff, especially if they are well-qualified and skilled, move to other organisations where higher salaries are paid. Indeed, this was what happened with some Libyan employees who decided to leave CBAH merely finding better offers from other hotels. This finding was confirmed by the HTA of CBAH, and by one of the employees who had moved to Al-Waddan Hotel. This is in line with Naama (2007) who states that the low wages offered by the hotel sector was a major reason for forcing some of the hotel staff to look for better job opportunities in other sectors.

As discussed in Chapter Four, section 4.6, Law No. 15 (1981) is one of the main causes of low salaries in the public organisation, including hotels because it was controlling the course of economic activity in the country for a long time with the absence of substantive adjustment to public sector salaries. According to this Law, average salaries of government employees are between 150 and LD 500 per month, depending on grade (U.S. Department of State, 2011). Hotels were one of the sectors characterised by low wages compared with other sectors. For example, Naama (2007) states that the lowest salary in the hotel sector was LD 120 per month, while the lowest monthly salary in the oil sector was LD 450. Moreover, the oil sector provides additional benefits to its employees such as insurance, medical coverage and training, which helps to attract and retain highly qualified staff. However, these services are not available within the hotel industry. In this respect, Porter and Yergin (2006) commented that the serious problem arising from Law No. 15 (1981) lies in ignored motivation among public sector employees.

Given low pay compared to other sectors, pay dissatisfaction and other motivational issues, the question remains: why is there so little staff turnover at SSFIC? The likely answer is the level of unemployment in Libya over the period of the study. Official figures in 2005 put unemployment at 13%. "Unemployment is one of our highest priorities," Prime Minister Shukri Ghanem told the BBC in May 2005 (Jawad, (2005)). *By March 2009 official statistics reported it as having risen to 20.7% (Reuters Africa (2009)).*

### **8.3 Discussion of the findings of training reports analysis**

#### **8.3.1 General discussion of the training courses**

The SSFIC depends heavily on external training providers whether within or outside the country in designing, implementing and evaluating training programmes: its role was to study the offers it received from these external providers and to determine who would attend these programmes. Archival data (training reports from Nov 2007 to the end of 2009) reveals that the SSFIC met most of its training needs internally within Libya through programmes implemented by many external training organisations, among them Ghot Alshaal Institute, Institute of Oil, Aen Shamas Centre, Om Aljwabi, Alalamia, Award-brand, High Studies Academy, and Alshati Institute. For example between November 2007 and the end of 2008, 1580 out of 1764 trainees (89%) were trained by external training organisations inside Libya. Generally, training inside the country whether by the SSFIC'S Training Centre or external training organisations has been given priority over training outside the country (overseas training). Archival data (training reports from Nov 2007 to the end of 2009) showed that the SSFIC trained the vast majority of its employees in this period inside the country, and only 184 out of 6215 trainees were trained by external training providers (overseas training).

However, many questions remain to be answered. The first question is regarding the appropriateness of these programmes to the SSFIC's vision, mission, values, and goals, which was discussed in Chapter 5, especially given that 66.7% of the trainer participants (external training providers) from SSFIC deemed that the training programmes and the evaluation process only sometimes had specific goals. The second question raises doubts about whether these external programmes are appropriate as a main training and

development approach. The third question also raises doubts about whether those external training programmes are always successful in meeting the real needs of SSFIC, or are just being implemented routinely as a budget item. Finally, an important question is to what extent the results or benefits of these training programmes, including overseas provision, that are fully managed by external training providers, can be transferred to the workplace.

### **8.3.2 English courses**

One of the most interesting issues in this research is the heavy focus on improving the level of foreign languages, English in particular, for the majority of staff of the SSFIC and its hotels. For example, English language courses accounted for the highest share of other courses over 26 months. 2203 out of 6031 trainees were targeted for different levels of these courses in this period, 725 trainees in 2007/08 and 1478 in 2009. In addition, it is noteworthy that the highest share of candidates for these courses in 2007/08 was from Al-Mahari Hotel, which formed about 74% (Training report, 2007/08, Table 7.1). The reason is to meet the agreement with 'Suma Company' (Table 7.7), where a good level of English language is one of the main conditions for the acceptance of local staff from Al-Mahari Hotel. This focus on English is to be expected given the aspirations of Libya to develop its tourist potential as discussed in Chapter 2.

### **8.3.3 Overseas training**

Another important issue is regarding the overseas provision in the training plans for 2007-09, in an effort to improve the skills of the SSFIC's staff in specific subjects in the hospitality industry. Only 184 out of 6215 trainees were targeted for these courses, which were implemented in three Arab countries, Tunisia, Jordan and United Arab Emirates.

This raises the question of why these programmes were conducted abroad, specifically in Arabic speaking countries as opposed to Western locations, and whether this was a temporary strategy adopted by the SSFIC for the implementation of such programmes because they were not present in the training plan for 2009, or just for the implementation of an item in its budget, as mentioned earlier.

By reviewing the findings of the study in the previous chapter, there are some conclusions that the researcher believes may explain the implementation of these programmes abroad; first, the lack of qualified trainers inside the country, second, such courses had to meet the agreement with the ‘Suma Company’ (see Chapter 7, data analysis of Table 7.7), and finally, the selection of Arab countries was probably due to the low level of English or other non-Arabic languages among the majority of employees in the SSFIC.

#### **8.3.4 Reasons for the existence of multiple training programmes and issues arising**

Reasons for the existence of multiple training courses were fully discussed in the analysis of archival data in Chapter Seven, section 7.2.2. Explanations offered in Section 7.2.2 included:

- (a) SSFIC has sought to improve the skills of its staff to cope with rapid changes and economic openness in the Libyan market recently, particularly in the hotel industry, and at the same time to overcome the new challenges of internationalisation they face.
- (b) As a general strategic goal of the SSFIC, one can expect that targeting the majority of its staff for training is a great opportunity because this would enable them in the near future to be part of a development, and to bridge the skills gap in the area of the hotel industry in Libya, which is still in its early stages.

Generally, without a significant recruitment and training investment, there is not likely to be sufficient qualified competent hotel staff available in Libya to meet the changing requirements in the labour market due to the growing demand for hotel services to fit with the growing tourism market. The LTMP (1999-2018) has estimated that there will be roughly an 80% increase in the demand for people to work in the tourism sector to meet the needs of future development by the year 2018. Some countries have similar problems; in China, for example, hotels have been forced to recruit staff with a low educational level in order to address the shortage of labour (Zhang & Wu, 2004).

However, a number of issues and problems arose because of the large course numbers. For example:

- (1) Most of the provided courses were managed by external training organisations (outside the SSFIC). These might not be designed particularly to meet the actual requirements and needs of the SSFIC. This is supported by Porter and Yergin (2006) who stated that Libyan organisations still rely heavily on foreign training providers to train their staff, which can be problematic because these training providers do not always have adequate experience regarding the Libyan environment, and therefore the outcomes of these programmes may not meet the actual SSFIC's goals of training in the long-term.
- (2) Large course numbers entails a high degree of co-ordination if they are going to be successful. Lack of coordination and cooperation occurred between the SSFIC and its candidates in the implementation of training programmes, which in turn, led to a degree of dissatisfaction among some employees with the location and

timing of most training programmes as mentioned in the previous chapter(see sections 7.3.1.4.2.2, 7.3.1.4.3.1 and 7.3.1.4.3.5).

- (3) The absence of the required encouragement for trainees from both the hotel and company, for example, one of the study's findings revealed that there was no incentives system for trainees, which could have motivated them to apply the skills and knowledge acquired from training to their workplace successfully. This is confirmed by the majority of training managers and trainees who participated in this study.

#### **8.4 Discussion of the study's findings in accordance with the three phases of training:**

##### **Pre-training, during training, and post-training.**

##### **8.4.1 Discussion of the first phase: Pre-training**

##### **8.4.1.1 Identification of training needs and employee nomination to training courses**

Most authors writing on the subject (Torrington & Hall, 1991; Tanke, 2001; Goldstein, 2001; Cole, 2002; Arthur et al. 2003; Buckley & Caple, 2004, 2009) agree that the identification and analysis of training needs is an important requirement for success in any training programme. It was observed that no such identification and analysis took place in either SSFIC or CBAH. Indeed one of the trainees was strongly critical of the process of training needs identification within SSFIC. He wrote his observations into the questionnaire as follows:

*"... the company should reconsider the process of identifying training needs, because in the absence of identifying the training needs of each employee or in other words, if the trainee is selected randomly, without doubt, the training will not*

*achieve its objectives effectively due to the lack of morale and real motivation of the trainee attending that session. The result in this case is that all the efforts made by the SSFIC to provide training will be useless.”*

Nevertheless, the selection process in CBAH was better than in SSFIC. This might be due to the nature of ownership of CBAH, as a branch of an international hotel chain with experienced and longer-established hotels; the associated Academy Training Centre was equipped with well-qualified staff and full awareness of the need for training.

The findings in both cases show that the trainee participants did not have a clear idea about the process of their selection for training. With regard to SSFIC, the identification of the selection process became clearer through the interviews with training managers. Managers agreed that the prevailing situation was that a direct supervisor was responsible, and decided whether the employee needed training or not. There was no evidence that they engaged in a systematic job and person analysis recommended by Noe (1999, 2008), and Goldstein (2001) as among the most significant steps in the process of training needs identification. There was some parallel, however, with the earlier Libyan study of Agnaia (1996) who found that the two most commonly-used tools to identify training needs were managers' opinions and job performance reviews.

Furthermore, some of the study's findings as discussed in the previous chapter, show that the lack of qualified people in the field of HR, especially in training activity was one of the difficulties that face the SSFIC. This is confirmed by one of the training managers who said that “the training management in the SSFIC suffers from lack of qualified people”, i.e. this lack includes all phases of training, from the phase of training needs identification to the

phase of evaluation. In an effort to bridge this gap, the SSFIC's archival data (training reports for 2007-2009) revealed that 37 managers attended a training programme regarding training needs identification (see Appendix 10, Table 9). The researcher was able to observe this fact during the field work and to confirm the lack of qualifications amongst such managers. The SSFIC's documents of 2009 reveal that the number of specialists in the hotels' area was only (13) based on their qualifications, and only one officer was carrying a bachelor degree in hospitality among the seven training managers who participated in this study.

Besides the inadequacies in identifying the company's training needs, another negative aspect was raised by some SSFIC trainee respondents, who felt that the criteria for the selection of employees for the external sessions (outside the country) were unfair because the selection process was affected by personal relationships and *wasta*, i.e. bias, favouritism or nepotism due to strong social relationships such as loyalties to family and kin. This finding has been reported by other researchers who have conducted their studies in a Libyan context (e.g. Agnaia, 1996; Attir& Al-Azzabi, 2002; El-Arbi, 2007).

A sub-group of training managers, and other managers in different hotels employed by the company in SSFIC were dissatisfied with two stages of training; the identification of the training needs, and the evaluation process. They believe that the poor quality of these processes was the most important challenge and difficulty that had faced the training department in SSFIC and in achieving its training objectives, and would continue to be problematic if employers in hotels in SSFIC did not take this issue into account.

#### **8.4.1.2 Types of training**

Whereas both SSFIC and CBAH have their own training centre, the study showed that they differ in terms of the benefits derived. The SSFIC did not benefit greatly from “hotel specific” training as all in-house training was delivered in a satellite training centre, and this was not tailored to the needs of the commissioning hotel. In any case for most of the time covered by this study the training centre was closed for refurbishment. The entire management and the trainee respondents confirmed that the SSFIC relies on local external training centres in implementing most training programmes, and there are no ‘on-site’ training courses. Corroboration that no training courses were conducted inside hotels was provided by two hotel managers. In CBAH there were no training courses conducted outside the hotel.

Generally speaking, in hospitality organisations a key tool is the development of skills and learning through occupational work experience, and, therefore, “on-the-job training” is widely practised rather than “off-the-job training” (Nickson et al. 2002 cited in Wang, 2008). In SSFIC, the situation is different; “off-the-job training” is the prevailing type of T&D programmes, as confirmed by the majority of participants (see Chapter 7, for example Tables 7.17 and 7.43). Moreover, despite the disadvantages of this type of training, such as high cost, difficulty of simulating job problems, as well as being more time consuming, it was used widely by most Libyan sectors, such as the oil sector (Aгнаia, 1996; El-Arbi, 2007).

## **8.4.2 Discussion of the second phase: During training**

### **8.4.2.1 The location and timing**

Taking into account the need for SSFIC to provide alternative sources of training while the Training Centre in JTV was out of commission, the location and timing of most training courses in Libya were not appropriate. In this regard, a large number of trainee respondents stated that the start time of training courses was not appropriate at all, because their work at hotels was from 8.00am till 3.00pm, whilst the beginning of the training course was at 4.00pm, so there was too short a time for a break and having some lunch, as well as travelling to the location of the training, which alone takes usually not less than half an hour.

This finding was also supported by one of trainee respondents who works in the Al-Wahat Hotel, when he said particularly:

*“... generally, I appreciate all the efforts being made by the SSFIC in order to organise many training courses to improve the employee skills in all the company’s hotel chains. However, the timing of most courses was not appropriate at all with working conditions and with employee’s circumstances. For me, for example, I’m currently attending a course, but unfortunately, I am not able to attend daily because I usually leave the hotel about 3.00pm while the start of the course is at 4.00pm. In fact, when I had time to attend, my arrival at the place of training in many cases was late. In addition, I could not concentrate well due to my participation being after the end of a tiring day at work.”*

He concluded by saying:

*“despite those circumstances, the management of the hotel depends largely on the final report of the training course. This report is sent by the training centre, and attendance is one of the most important elements of evaluation. Therefore, the department of training in the SSFIC should take this problem into account. To overcome this problem in my view, there is a need for selecting appropriate timing and location of courses, with the possibility of full-time sessions”.*

The study found that in SSFIC 47.8% of trainee respondents considered that the duration of training programmes was too short. For example, a course about hotel industry which was conducted by one of the external training providers (Arab Union of Technical Education), lasted only six days (see appendix 10, Table 5). This could be one of the problems that face the trainees in acquiring new skills and knowledge through their participation in such courses, especially in a country like Libya which is a newcomer to tourism and the hotel industry. Short course duration is a not uncommon issue across sectors and countries. According to Clarke’s study (2002), 11 out of 40 trainees who attended a two-day in-service training programme within a UK social service department felt that the short duration of the course was an obstacle to gain the necessary skills.

#### **8.4.2.2 Training methods**

Although there are many modern techniques and methods of training (Table 3.2) which aim to provide the trainees with new skills and knowledge, these methods should be selected carefully to avoid time wasting, money and effort, because (Acton and Golden, 2003) what may be appropriate for one organisation, employee, or training programme may not be for another. However, only limited methods were used by the organisations under the study where lecture was the most commonly used training method. This was confirmed by the

majority of the three samples selected (training managers, trainees, and trainers). This finding is consistent with that of Reid and Barrington (1997), who stated that theoretical classes are the major educational approach for training courses, and with that of El-Arbi (2007), who found that the most commonly used training methods across Libyan companies, were theoretical classes. However, it is inconsistent with other findings, for example, in the UK, Buick and Muthu (1997) found that 'demonstration' and 'role playing' were the most commonly used training methods in 113 hotels in Scotland. There was an interesting point of difference on the reporting of training methods between the three categories of respondents. Five out of seven of the training managers at SSFIC contended that mixed methods were used by the trainers, six out of ten of the trainers agreed with them; however only 15% of trainee respondents considered that they had experienced a variety of methods on the programmes they had attended.

Having discussed the training methods, when looking into the Libyan context more closely, it is important to mention the following facts: (a) it was not surprising that theoretical classes 'lecture' was the most commonly used training method by the SSFIC, where Twati and Gammack (2006) stated that Libya has one of the lowest percentages of internet users. (b) Maihub (2007, cited in Elfazani, 2011) criticised 'classroom training' by saying "It was difficult to find benefit standards can be used to compare the training activities in Libyan organisations, because most of them use the same approach (classroom training) in training their employees". (c) through the researcher's personal experience during his cooperation with some Libyan organisations in the period of 2002 to 2005 (for example, at the National Institute of Management in Gharian) in delivering some training programmes in the field of HRM, he found that there was not much difference between the training approaches that

were used in these organisations, where (off-the-job training) and (lectures) were the most frequently used approach.

In summary the evidence is that the training providers still rely on traditional theoretical-oriented methods of training. This is despite the fact that many roles in the hotel sector have a practical focus that entail direct contact with customers (Nickson et al. 2002 cited in Wang, 2008) and working with hands. Becton and Graetz (2001) suggest that there needs to be a balance: training in the hospitality industry needs to develop programmes with practical components built on a theoretical base. The message for SSFIC is that the appropriate method of training should be selected carefully by training providers based on the content of a training programme and its objective. At the same time, the training needs and abilities of the trainees should be taken into consideration before identifying the training method. Rather than focusing solely on the theoretical aspects, training programmes should be designed to develop practical food and beverage, kitchen and housekeeping, and customer relationship skills.

#### **8.4.2.3 Evaluation of the relevance of the content of training courses, and knowledge, skills and new behaviour acquired**

Question number (14) in the questionnaire of trainees and question number (7) in the questionnaire of trainers were designed in order to obtain a broader understanding of the relationship between the relevance of the content of training courses that had been attended by the trainees and their capabilities and job needs. These questions included five elements: training objectives, the nature of the trainee's work, the training needs of the trainee, the specified time for the session, and finally the ability of the trainee. It would be a matter of serious concern if there was not a match between the content of training and the trainee's

job needs as recommended in the literature (e.g. Elangovan & Karakowsky (1999) Varmeulen et al. (2002) and Holton and Baldwin (2003). In the case of SSFIC only one third of respondents considered that the objectives, job relevance, fit with training needs and capabilities were largely appropriate. In terms of time allocated to sessions this percentage fell to one sixth. This gives little confidence that the resources spent in training SSFIC staff were well invested if the perceptions of trainees are justified.

#### **8.4.2.4 Trainers**

A significant area of concern emerging in the present study was that only half of SSFIC trainee respondents felt that their trainers were competent. The selection of qualified trainers who are fully experienced in the subject of the training is one of the most important conditions for successful training, and ensuring the transfer of training benefits by trainees to their workplace effectively (Analoui, 1999). In addition to highlighting the over-use of traditional methods of training in both case study organisations, trainee respondents commented on poor choice of local trainers and the lack of local qualified trainers in the hotel area. The researcher was unable to obtain any evidence showing the criteria used to choose trainers.

A large deficit in qualified Libyan trainers, especially those who are interested in the areas of hotel and hospitality, is one of the key difficulties faced by the sector in general. This is reported by many researchers (e.g. Jwaili et al. 2005; Salih, 2005; Danis, 2006; Naama, 2007; Naama et al. 2008). It was one of the key reasons why some training for SSFIC was conducted in other countries, such as Tunisia and Jordan. A small number of participants believed that there were significant advantages to overseas training in the hotel area, when compared with local courses. The main reason for this belief lies in the lack of local

qualified trainers in the hotel area, as reported by some trainees and one of the training managers in Chapter 7, sections (7.3.1.4.4) and (7.3.1.3.2.2). In the same context, one of training managers in the department of training and development in SSFIC said:

*In fact, external training courses have been very successful in all aspects. For example, training courses were held in Jordan in 2008; these courses were good to a great extent in terms of accommodation, training facilities, skilled trainers, field visits, and regulation in general.*

It also was probably why CBAH drew upon overseas trainers for their programmes including some who didn't speak Arabic. It is revealing that the one CBAH participant who felt trainers were incompetent commented in his questionnaire as follows:

*“Sometimes trainers could not speak Arabic well, so the trainees depended largely on a translator. This way often led to difficulty of concentration and misunderstandings of some contents of the training courses, and, as a result, a core subject of training might be distorted after translation. Consequently, the debate loses its importance.”*

#### **8.4.2.5 The benefits achieved through the attendance of training courses**

As discussed in the training literature, T&D has many benefits that can help hospitality organisations in achieving their goals effectively, and reducing costs resulting from the problems of the workplace, while inadequate training often leads to many problems within the workplace, such as high staff turnover (Poulston, 2008). It is therefore important to clarify what benefits might be expected as a result of attending a course and the extent to which they are met. Bartlett and Kang (2004) and Cole (2002) state that among the benefits

of training are improving personal development and personal skills; Buckley and Caple, (2009)add that the trainee may gain greater job satisfaction.

The study's findings in the previous chapter, section (7.3.1.3.2.1), revealed that there was a general agreement among the majority of the SSFIC trainee respondents in both cases about the benefits they obtained through their attendance of training courses. These benefits were represented in the acquisition of new personal skills, knowledge and attitudes. This finding is similar to many studies conducted by, for example, Tanke (2001), Armstrong (2003), Stavrou-Costa (2005), Noe (1999), and Holton and Naquin (2003). In CBAH, there are other benefits mentioned by many trainee respondents, such as increased opportunity for promotion to higher positions within the CBAH, a benefit listed by, for example, Sloman (1999), Bartlett and Kang (2004), and Buckley and Caple,(2009). The question now becomes: to what extent were the benefits mentioned, obtained?

### **8.4.3 Discussion of the third phase: Post-training**

#### **8.4.3.1 Training policies and plans**

According to the SSFIC General Strategic Plan (GSP) for 2008-2012 referred to in Chapter 5, sections 5.5.1 and 5.6, a key HR objective is to produce an integrated plan for the development and improvement of the skills and efficiency of the staff. The absence of an effective training policy and plan is listed as a barrier to achieving broader objectives such as employing qualified and trained people able to provide outstanding hotel service. Given this it was of particular interest to establish how the three categories of respondents, especially the training managers, viewed the current situation. For CBAH the training

manager said that not only did the training plan need to change, it was currently being re-designed.

No-one made specific reference to the GSP. None of the trainers pointed to the inappropriateness of the SSFIC training policy and plan although 60% of them considered that the training policy and plan was only “appropriate to a certain extent”.22.4% of the trainee respondents considered it to be inappropriate and in need of change. The reasons listed (see Chapter 7 section 7.3.1.4.3.1.) were of an operational nature as might be expected.

Turning to the managers, four out of seven considered the policy and plan to be inappropriate and in need of change. Only one gave a reason - working conditions in general - reinforcing the strategic HR plan objective (Chapter 5, 5.5.1)of the need to create “a work environment supportive of motivation and performance.”The one manager who considered that the policy and plan was fully appropriate stated that: *The current situation of the SSFIC is very good, particularly in the policy of training and its programmes provided.*

He went on to identify obstacles in the way of achieving the policy objectives that have serious implications for their future success:

*“But, during the past years, I can say that the Libyan hotel sector in general, including the hotels of the SSFIC have faced many obstacles, such as the limited number of educational programmes and training institutions. This is owing to the fact that the hotel sector has not received sufficient support from government*

*compared to other sectors. In addition, there is no full co-operation between hospitality education institutions and the hotel sector.”*

This problem is not unique to Libya. The government tourism organisations in Mexico recommend increasing the number of external tourism training and educational institutions, particularly in regions where such institutions are presently non-existent (Pizam & Tesone, 2005). Similarly, Manyara and Jones (2005), who focus on the case of Kenya, state that there is a need for co-operation between the Kenyan tourism sector and educational institutions, especially higher education. They discuss how this would help the sector in the optimal use of knowledge and technology transfer.

#### **8.4.3.2 Achievement of training objectives**

In general, the result for both cases is largely unsatisfactory, especially for SSFIC. If the three SSFIC training managers who stated that the achievement of training objectives did not exceed 50% were correct, this is a very poor outcome given the significant effort made over the period of the investigation to increase the number of courses and trainees. At the same time, the SSFIC has spent significant sums of money on training activity in improving the skills and knowledge of its staff; for example, in 2008, the actual expenditure for training was LD184, 650, while it increased to LD273, 000 in 2009 (Table 7.8). This raises the question of whether any concern is being expressed within SSFIC about the costs being incurred in running training programmes that are not fully achieving training objectives.

Two of the manager respondents indicated that the difficulties in achieving company training objectives were due to the following reasons:

- Lack of previous training plans
- Lack of identifying training needs for staff
- Short duration to implement training plan
- Lack of commitment by some trainees to attend courses due to the asymmetry between timing of sessions and working conditions

“Lack of commitment” was also raised by one of the trainees, who explained in detail the main constraint behind the absence of some candidates to attend training programmes. For a fuller explanation of this problem see section 8.4.1.1.

#### **8.4.3.3 Evaluation of training and its methods**

The importance of the evaluation process as an integral part of any systematic training process is emphasised by most authors and researchers (e.g. Kirkpatrick, 1998; Reid Barrington, 1997; Buckley & Caple, 2009; Goran et al. 2008, Putra, 2003, 2004). Chapter 7 (sections 7.3.2.2.3.3 - 7.3.2.2.3.5) outlined the evaluation process in operation in both SSFIC and CBAH and its deficiencies, as well as shortcomings in the communication processes between the various parties. Key points arising are:

1. There are many methods that could be used in evaluating training (e.g. Al-Athari & Zairi, 2002; Beardwell & Holden, 1997; Hackett, 2003). Those used by SSFIC were primarily trainee course evaluations (happy sheets) and trainer reports supported by certificates giving trainee grades. The majority of the three group respondents in this survey stated that the time for their completion was during the course and

immediately afterwards. There was no indication that these were subsequently used in any systematic way.

2. Although the CBAH response was consistent with SSFIC, CBAH had additional methods for evaluating the trainees after their return to the workplace in the form of on-the- job assessments and customer feedback, as shown in Table 7.43. The researcher was unable to access any data about these.
3. The questionnaires (happy sheets) prepared by the SSFIC were given to all trainees to complete on the end day of the training session; one for local programmes (inside Libya), and another for overseas training (see Appendixes 3 and 4). This method of evaluation aims to ask trainees to indicate their level of satisfaction with such issues as the programme content, training methods and the performance of trainers. Although this is evidence of application of level one (reaction) evaluation, the happy sheets lack criticality of internal and external courses and remain a routine procedure. In fact no evidence was provided that these sheets were processed. One of the training managers indicated that they were returned to the OPS in order to take appropriate action with providers, but no indication was given of how or whether this was done. This is mostly attributable to the lack of understanding in supposedly skilled and qualified personnel. There was also evidence of the failure of trainees to express their opinions sincerely in their assessment of the training courses they attended through the “happy sheet” questionnaires in case they were penalised in the written reports.
4. Emphasis was given to certificates, supported by a written report prepared by the training providers (trainers). This is evidence that level two (learning) evaluation as described by Kirkpatrick’s model is undertaken, but this evaluation remains only from

the perspective of training providers and is very limited. For example the grades recorded usually represent only the theoretical side, and do not take into account the capacities and skills of the trainee, i.e. simply ignore the practical side. Evaluation at this level should not be based merely on the acquisition of a certificate, but should also measure the skills and knowledge that have been learned (for example, trainee's ability to transfer training benefits to his/her workplace).

5. In relying on the report or certificate prepared by the external training providers SSFIC considers that the success of the training programme is measured through the grades obtained by the trainee. The SSFIC did not conduct any assessment of trainees after their return to work, so Level 3 (behaviour change) and Level 4 (results) were absent in the evaluation process which meant that the SSFIC had no way of establishing whether any benefits from the training investment had been achieved. This could be due to a lack of qualified staff who are responsible for training activity within the SSFIC as well as some other difficulties.
6. To support this, some respondents from training managers and trainers agreed that there were various barriers and difficulties facing a process of evaluation. The strongest barriers lay in an unawareness of the importance of this role in this process by the SSFIC, and thus the absence of the required support to prioritise this process. The difficulties in the evaluation process for the SSFIC can be divided into two types:

- **Difficulties regarding the training managers**

The major issue here is the uncertainty of what to evaluate and what its importance is. As mentioned by the three groups who participated in this survey, the problem of evaluation

lies in the presence of several shortcomings, such as lack of staff available to assess the training and the difficulty in measuring and evaluating training.

- **Difficulties regarding the trainees**

Trainees were not fully aware of the importance of evaluation as a result of the prevailing belief among them which is that the results of the evaluation of training are of little value, thus their views and comments about this process might not be objective.

7. These findings are in line with Atiyyah (1993), who indicated that the evaluation methods in Arab organisations are highly subjective and that their outcomes have limited impact on improving the on-going programmes.

What can be deduced from the above summary is that the methods of evaluation used by the SSFIC were not sufficient to enable it to define the knowledge, skills, and attitudes of its employees before, during and after they attended the training programme. This is because these methods did not establish any direct contact between the training management (e.g. OPS, DHRM or DTD) and the trainees. Thus, this suggests that the information which was used for the evaluation was inadequate.

#### **8.4.3.3.1 Other studies in this area**

The situation was not much different with other Arab and western studies relating to aspects of assessment, judgment and feedback; where a post-training questionnaire was the main tool for evaluating training courses, for example, Al-Ali (1999) observed that the post-training questionnaire was the most common techniques used to evaluate training in Kuwaiti organisations. Al-Athari (2000) found that the questionnaire and observation were the most common evaluation methods used by the same country. Another study in the

Kuwaiti context was conducted by Al-Athari and Zairi (2002), who pointed out that one of the most important difficulties faced by the training efforts in Kuwait lies in the absence of a body responsible for the evaluation of training programmes. This finding was similar to Abdalla and Al-Homoud's (1995) finding, who also observed that there was no clear evaluation process for training within Kuwaiti organisations.

With regard to the state in Libya, Agnaia (1997) found that there were deficiencies in the evaluation process in Libyan industrial companies due to the absence of a discrete training department and a lack of qualified and skilled staff. However, El-Arbi (2007) observes that there were two different approaches to evaluation in the two main oil companies in Libya (Repsol Oil Operations and the Oasis Oil Company); the former company relied on the final certificate obtained by the trainee as the first appraisal tool, and then supported this by the observations of the direct supervisors. In contrast, the latter company used a post-training questionnaire as a tool for evaluation.

#### **8.4.3.4 Ability to apply training benefits**

The majority of trainee participants from SSFIC stated that they had been able only to some extent to apply their new knowledge, new-acquired skills and behaviour to their jobs. Some participants who had undergone training in local centres added that there were difficulties put in their way in applying the acquired skills and knowledge obtained from those courses into their jobs. Another group pointed to their inability to apply the skills and knowledge gained to their work because what was taught was not relevant to their work requirements. This problem is recognized by Elangovan and Karakowsky (1999), who observed that the difference between what was delivered in the training framework, and what was expected

in the execution context, could negatively or positively affect the psychological state of the trainee, and therefore the benefits of training could become unworkable or inappropriate. This suggests that both organisations and employees can only achieve their objectives if learning skills are transferred effectively to the workplace (Bhatti & Kaur, 2010).

To ensure the transfer and application of skills and knowledge gained from training to the workplace of the trainee, Holton and Baldwin (2003), and Vermeulen (2002) stated that the training context should match the job context. With regard to respondents from SSFIC, the majority expected “to a large extent” that their performance would be improved after training, especially those who had attended overseas training.

#### **8.4.3.4.1 Difficulties in applying the knowledge and skills**

The opportunity for the trainee to apply the acquired skills and knowledge gained from a training course in his/her workplace is one of the most important contributors to the success and effectiveness of a training programme. Overall poor relationships with management can also negatively affect T&D programmes (Santos & Stuart, 2003). This study has revealed that there was general agreement among trainees in SSFIC (84.1%) that the work environment did not encourage them to develop and improve their skills within their jobs, mainly due the lack of appropriate incentives, and lack of sufficient support and encouragement from their line managers and colleagues. The finding is the opposite to Putra’s (2004) study about evaluating training programmes at two hotels in Sydney where the majority of the trainee participants received great support from their managers in the application of newly acquired skills and knowledge after the return to their jobs. This was

similar to CBAH where the vast majority of trainee participants (80%) felt that they were able to apply the knowledge and skills gained from the training courses.

A review of the literature on the work environment and performance demonstrates the importance of training transfer. For example, Hawley and Barnard (2005) state that T&D programmes are often designed and delivered without connecting training back to the work environment. Therefore, most practitioners and researchers in the HR area have recognised that the transfer of training occurs only when trainees have a positive attitude to their work environment (Elangovan & Karakowsky, 1999), as well as if the trainees were selected carefully, i.e. according to their actual training needs (Stolovitch, 2007).

As noted, there is a vast difference between the two cases regarding the important role of the environment on work. In order to have a better understanding of this difference and put this situation in its real picture, there is a need to concentrate the Libyan environment and its effect on work within the hotel sector. According to the evidence of some trainee respondents from SSFIC, and some researchers as well, this study has revealed that low salaries and a lack of encouragement and appropriate incentives were one of the key reasons that many of the staff were unable or unwilling to perform their functions better. This could be largely due to their inability to apply the benefits of training after returning to the workplace. In this issue, Pfeffer et al. (1995) believed that higher salaries may reflect to a large extent that an organisation fully appreciates the importance of its human resources.

Without any doubt, skills and practical experience are a prerequisite for achieving the objectives of organisations effectively, especially in the hotel area. Some of the respondents in the local hotels have pointed out that the lack of skills and practical experience was the

result of the Libyan government not paying attention to the hotel sector over the past several years. This point has been confirmed in other studies. For example, Salih (2005) and Danis (2006) say that Libya is a newcomer to tourism, therefore training programmes in this sector, and particularly in the hotel sector, are very limited and still remain insufficient and tardy due to the fact that the Libyan government has only recently begun to focus on this area. It could be said here, that this is the second reason for the absence of a perception of an encouraging work environment.

In addition, Naama (2007) through his interviews with some of the Libyan hotel managers states that one of the main reasons for the lack of practical experience and therefore lack of qualified and skilled people in the hospitality sector was the result of the decline in the efficiency of the hospitality education institutions. He states that one of those managers said “There is a total lack of practical experience... it appears that practical training offered in the hospitality education institutions is not sufficient to enable graduates to take up jobs in the hotel sector”.

Naama et al.(2008) add that the Libyan graduates from the hospitality education institutions suffer from a lack of the required skills due to the weakness of the curriculum provided and lack of practical training in these institutions. In this respect, Naama et al.(2008) points out that most of the academic staff in the hospitality area believed that Libyan graduates have enough theoretical knowledge but lacked practical experience, and a member of senior staff in one of the hospitality institutions stated that there is a lack of appropriate training plans for staff and college members. Furthermore, there is a lack of facilities and resources to provide students with the required theoretical and practical knowledge. To compare this result with other countries, in Ireland, for example, Connolly and McGing (2006) studied

the attitudes of managers towards higher education for hospitality management; they note that 90% of them preferred graduates with good practical skills. In Mexico, a study conducted by Pizam and Tesone (2005) recommends that the Mexican tourism industry should provide its tourism training and educational institutions with more opportunities for internships and practical training.

#### **8.4.3.5 The assessment process of training courses**

Two of the training managers from SSFIC pointed out that a final report was usually sent directly to the SSFIC and this would provide some feedback about the performance of each trainee. Furthermore, some of those managers indicated that the evaluation process is not easy to conduct during the short-term; and one of them, for example, said “maybe it often needs more than three months” therefore the correct evaluation of trainees usually comes later, and by their direct supervisors. In addition, two of the training managers stated that the final training certificate or report alone is an insufficient tool to evaluate the training courses.

The study has revealed that some systematic training phases such as identification and analysis of training needs, designing and development are absent in the SSFIC, while some procedures were adopted in the evaluation phase, but not at the required level. In this regard, two of the training managers reported that the most important thing done by the SSFIC in the training activity is contacting some local training organisations to benefit from their training approach, facilities and trainers. In addition, the same action was taken in implementing external training courses (outside the country), to support that finding, the researcher was able to obtain a report about a training programme conducted in Jordan, which summarised the training approach in implementing this course (see Appendix 7).

However, in this regard, the researcher did not obtain any other corroborating evidence from the rest of the respondents with regard to the formal communications between the SSFIC and training organisations internally or externally.

#### **8.4.3.6 Training incentives**

There was agreement between the majority of respondents from trainees and training managers in SSFIC about the absence of appropriate incentives (see Tables 7.35 and 7.53). In SSFIC, the vast majority of trainee respondents (94.5%) pointed out that they did not obtain any personal benefits such as material or moral incentives or promotions. This finding was also confirmed by four out of the five training managers, who said that there were no incentives granted to the participants in training courses.

A very small number of the trainee respondents (5.5%) who were nominated for external courses (Tunisia, Jordan and the United Arab Emirates) said that they obtained some benefits, such as travel grants and free accommodation in luxury hotels with leisure trips. One of the managers confirmed that such incentives were given to trainees to attend overseas training courses. This finding is consistent with the view of Analoui (1999), who observed that overseas training was seen by a group of managers as a possibility to become more effective at work, thus serving as a motivator. Some respondents also felt that because of the incentives offered there was an element of favouritism/wasta involved when determining who was selected.

However, in CBAH, roughly three quarters of the trainee participants (76%) pointed out that they obtained some personal benefits, for example, material incentives (e.g. salary increase), promotions and certificates at the end of training courses. A small group (24%)

did not obtain any benefits. The CBAH manager also referred to the existence of 'motivation' to attend training courses.

The results related to SSFIC, are different to those of Putra's study (2004), where the trainees were motivated by their direct manager to transfer their new knowledge and skills, and more importantly, her findings revealed that the managers recognised the trainees' performances and rewarded them. At the time the research was conducted there was no similar performance management system in force in SSFIC, but the introduction of one was an objective of the Strategic Human Resource Plan (Chapter 5, Section 5.5.1)

#### **8.4.3.7 General assessment of training courses by trainees**

The vast majority of participants in both cases (93% from SSFIC and 100% from CBAH) felt that overall the training programmes that had been aimed at the SSFIC hotel chains and CBAH were satisfactory or better. This indicates an awareness of the importance of training and the need for skills and knowledge to be improved. In SSFIC the following suggestions for improvement were made: (a) selecting appropriate timing and location of courses, with the possibility of full-time sessions. (b) the need for selecting qualified people to work in training management. (c) the need for to develop and diversify training methods. (d) must focus on practical training as a result of the work environment in hotels area. Most significantly, despite an appreciation of the importance of the programmes, only 40.8% of SSFIC respondents were satisfied or better with the courses they had attended and 20.9% expressed dissatisfaction as shown in Table 7.18. This is not encouraging given the large number of courses and participants. The equivalent figures for CBAH are better although only 60% were satisfied or better with 12% expressing dissatisfaction.

These criticisms reinforce the issues about the quality of training discussed in this chapter, for example, lack of adoption of systematic training phases (e.g. section 8.4.1.1) difficulty in applying the acquired skills and knowledge obtained from training programmes into the workplace (section 8.4.3.3.2), lack of the use modern training methods (section 8.4.2.2) and the absence of training incentives (section 8.4.3.5).

## **8.5 Chapter summary**

This chapter has introduced a discussion of the findings of Chapter Seven and their implications. It has emerged that some key challenges face the hotel sector in Libya, and the SSFIC and its training function in particular. Firstly, discussion of the findings of training reports shows that the SSFIC trained the vast majority of its employees in the period of 2007/09 inside the country, and only 184 out of 6215 trainees were trained by external training providers (overseas training). The SSFIC depends heavily on external training providers whether within or outside the country in designing, implementing and evaluating training programmes, while the role of the SSFIC was to study the offers it received from these external providers and to determine who would attend these programmes. Secondly, although women constitute a large proportion of the labour force in the hospitality and hotel sector (ILO, 2001), the situation in Libya is different because the proportion of females employed in the Libyan hotel sector is very low. This is due to the dominance of Arabic traditions and Islamic principles, as reported by Ibrahim (2004) and Naama et al. (2008). Thirdly, the Libyan hotel sector suffers from a lack of skilled and qualified people. Fourthly, salaries in this sector are low compared with other sectors, especially the oil sector.

Fifthly, the SSFIC suffers from a lack of 'on-the-job training' and practical courses, theoretical classes being the most common technique used, such as lectures and discussion. In this regard, one of the most important challenges of the Libyan hotel sector in general and the hotels of the SSFIC lies in a lack of local qualified trainers. This chapter revealed that a lack of encouragement and appropriate incentives were one of the key reasons that many of the staff were unable to perform their functions better. This could be largely due to their inability to apply the benefits of training after returning to the workplace.

A key issue arising is whether the training provided will help the SSFIC to compete with Western hospitality organisations which are beginning to establish a presence in the country. CBAH has existed in Tripoli since 2003. Other hotels under foreign management include Al-Waddan Hotel operated by the Continental Company, Radisson Blu SAS Hotel, which is managed by a Turkish Company and has been opened recently on 23/11/2009, and the opening of the Marriott Hotel and several others which are expected to enter the Libyan market over the next few years.

The documentary data of the SSFIC (Report 2008) revealed that the SSFIC has recognised this challenge. Thus, some policies were adopted to meet the current and expected future situation. For example, it has decided to maintain and develop most of its hotels across the country, whilst at the same time it has sought to move out from the public sector's cycle through its first attempt to conclude a contract with 'Suma Company' to maintain and develop the Al-Mahari hotel, which was one of the largest of its hotels in Tripoli (more details for example in Chapter 7, Table 7.7). However, the researcher did not find any procedures used by the SSFIC to analyse or compare its current training practices with the current practices in the Western hotel industry.

The following chapter will present an overall conclusion, and the key contributions and recommendations for improvements to the training practices and programmes in the Libyan hotel sector and specifically in the SSFIC.

## **CHAPTER NINE: CONCLUSIONS, RESEARCH CONTRIBUTIONS, RECOMMENDATIONS, AND FURTHER RESEARCH**

### **9.1 Introduction**

This study has considered the current state of T&D practices and programmes undertaken in Libyan hotels, with special focus on the (SSFIC), a Libyan owned hotel company and (CBAH) owners of Corinthia Hotels International (CHI), a company based in Europe and operating within a Western European context. The study provides an insight into the relative value of training in the hotel sector in emergent Arab countries, using Libya as an example. This is in order to fill the existing gap in the literature and the knowledge base recognising that the whole field of training for the tourism industry in developing countries is a relatively unexplored area.

This chapter summarises and draws conclusions about the main empirical findings of the study from both theoretical and practical perspectives. It makes a number of recommendations including how some applications and practices of training may be transferred from the Western context to the Libyan context. It also suggests some avenues for future research.

Given the general aim of the study which is to investigate the training and development practices in the Libyan public hotel sector, with special focus on evaluating the training programmes currently being implemented within the SSFIC, five objectives in the form of research questions were produced in Chapter One as a basis for further understanding the status, nature and appropriateness of hospitality training in Libya. These are reproduced below. The first two related to the conduct of the empirical investigation, the remaining

four were concerned with evaluating the findings in terms of good practice guidelines from the literature and contextual constraints within the Libyan environment.

Research objectives are:

- To provide a deeper and wider understanding of training programmes implemented by the state run SSFIC hotel organisation.
- To identify the key difficulties and barriers to training practices faced by the SSFIC.
- To compare these with those faced by the CBAH.
- To highlight the key differences between training in Libya, Western countries and elsewhere.
- To contribute to, and fill a gap in, the hospitality literature on training in the Libyan context in particular.
- To identify improvements and recommendations as to the effectiveness of training and development practices in the SSFIC hotel organisation.

These research objectives lead to the development of a number of research questions:

- What training is carried out within the public hotel sector in Libya and why?
  - How is it currently organised and conducted?
  - How does this differ from the private sector?
  - What has changed over the course of the study?
  - What explanations can be provided?
- What are the methods currently used to evaluate existing training programme effectiveness in the same sector, and why are they adopted?

Each of these questions is discussed below in turn. Similarities and differences with the private sector in Libya as represented by CBAH are drawn upon, as appropriate, throughout.

## **9.2 Specific conclusions**

### **9.2.1 The First Research Question and sub-questions: What training is carried out within the public hotel sector in Libya and why?**

#### **9.2.1.1 Growth in investment and numbers of trainees**

From November 2007 to the end of 2009 there were significantly increased numbers of trainees, from SSFIC, on both internal and external courses. Reported numbers rose from 1764 in 2007/2008 to 4451 in 2009, about a 300% increase. As pointed out in Chapter 7, Section 7.2 this theoretically means that the majority of staff attended at least one training course over the period of the investigation. Moreover, the expenditures on training increased from LD184, 650 (£92,325) in 2008 to LD273, 000 (£136,500) in 2009. This indicates that the SSFIC continues to invest significantly in training programmes to improve the skills and knowledge of its staff to achieve its goals (see Chapter 7, Tables, 7.1 and 7.2).

This can be explained by changes in the service sector where over the past few years, Libya has seen an increasing growth in terms of the number and size of the companies concerned, especially in tourism and the hospitality industries. In recent years, the tourism industry has been suggested as the best option for economic diversification with significant opportunities for growth. Of crucial significance was the creation of the LTMP (2009-2025), backed by funding provided by the LIPB, in order to work towards the quadrupling

of overseas visitor numbers and increase tourism revenues from LD 488.7 to LD 6371.5 by 2025.

The rate of change in the hospitality and tourism sectors has led to an improvement in the quality of facilities and the range of hotel bedrooms.

Investment in buildings and infrastructure has occurred across the country with development in new hotels and holiday parks. Building projects in Tripoli, Benghazi, Fezzan and the Gulf region form part of Libya's vision to provide 100,000 new hotel beds and 225,000 new jobs by 2025 (see Chapter 2, section 2.5.4.2).

However, the tourism and hotel sector in Libya still suffers from a lack of trained personnel. In order to bridge this gap the Ministry of Education is sending people abroad for short and long-term training in different areas, including tourism. In Britain, for example, in 2008, there were around 3,500 Libyan students in UK higher education (British Council, 2008)

The SSFIC has realised the importance of training not only as a key tool to improve the performance of its staff but also as a national need. Therefore, in 2008, it signed a contract with Marina First Company to establish a centre for advanced training in the field of tourism and the hotel industry in the JTV. This is expected to be ready by 2012. The SSFIC seeks to make this centre a major investment project which will meet the training needs of hotels and tourist projects and provide about 32,000 new jobs for the Libyan economy.

### **9.2.1.2 SSFIC**

The SSFIC organisation is complex and centralised. The top unit is the OPS, which is responsible for the preparation of strategies, policies and plans of training. Their implementation is the responsibility of the DHRM and the DTD. They are responsible for the identification of training needs and employee nomination to training courses after contact with all departments of administrative affairs of the SSFIC's hotels. Moreover, they are responsible for the selection of appropriate training centres, whether internal or external, to conduct training courses. There is no representative of the DTD in the individual hotels, the consequences of which are developed later.

There has been some significant outsourcing. For example SSFIC no longer have responsibility for salaries, maintenance, procurement and training at the Al-Mahari hotel as mentioned in Chapter Seven, section 7.2.2 [v].

The SSFIC has experienced growth and changes in the hotel sector, particularly after the entry of foreign companies. As a result, and most significantly, many changes have occurred in the ownership, control and management of a number of SSFIC hotels during the writing of this thesis, for example:

- The SSFIC has made a contract with a Turkish Company called Suma to manage, maintain and develop Al-Mahari hotel, which now opened under the management of Radisson Blu SAS in 23/11/2009.
- Bab Al-Bahur Hotel entered a management and maintenance contract with the Suma Company under English supervision in February 2010 and it returned to work at the beginning of December 2010.

- Al-Kabeer Hotel will be under the management and development by Suma Company from the beginning of 2011.
- Al-Wahat Hotel will start in the management and development process in the middle of February 2011 (Sudani, 2010).

These movements away from full public ownership are only beginning to have an effect on SSFIC but in parallel with greater tourist numbers and with Western customer expectations. This will put greater pressure on trainers to deliver higher quality programmes in accordance with demonstrable needs. These new expectations are apparent in the 2008-2012 Strategic Human Resource Plan outlined in Chapter Five (section 5.5.1).

### **9.2.1.3 Location and type of training**

All SSFIC training is conducted away from the immediate workplace environment, primarily in various external training centres and occasionally out of the country. Where deemed beneficial centres in Jordan, United Arab Emirates and Tunisia have all been commissioned to provide high level training. The majority of courses delivered within Libya were undertaken by local training agencies, other government training facilities and education departments of the national oil industry.

SSFIC established a Training Centre at JTV in 2006 and a number of in-house courses were run there in the following years. Initially courses were run there by SSFIC staff with good qualifications or experience for conducting training courses, but after 2007 by external trainers. By 2009 it was closed as part of a refurbishment process and is scheduled to be replaced by a centre for advanced training (see Chapter 5, section 5.5.2). The plan for an advanced training centre shows how seriously making improvements in the area is taken

by senior management. Currently all of the training courses in Libya are carried out at local training centres that deal with the SSFIC. Over the course of the study SSFIC has also been responsible for implementing overseas training courses, for example in Tunisia and Jordan.

The literature sources from the West consistently emphasise that learning through occupational work experience is a key training tool in hospitality organisations in the development of skill and, therefore, “on-the-job training” is heavily practised as well as “off-the-job training” (e.g. Nickson et al. 2002). In addition, 17.4% of respondents stressed their need for training in the workplace. However, all SSFIC management respondents and trainees surveyed, confirmed that “off-the-job training” (in-house and off-site training courses, i.e. at company and external training centres) and external overseas courses (mostly in Arabic speaking countries) is the prevailing type of training in the Libyan public hotel sector due to serious shortages of qualified local instructors within the hotels (Chapter Eight, section 8.3.3). The prevailing mode of delivery is formal lecturing supported by discussion.

#### **9.2.1.4 Language skills**

Although most Libyan organisations complain that graduates in all fields lack English language capability, and require extensive retraining before they can become productive (Porter & Yergin, 2006), one of the most interesting issues in this research is that SSFIC focused largely on English courses in order to improve the general level of this language of the majority of its employees. These courses accounted for the highest share of other courses over 26 months. 2203 out of 6031 trainees were targeted for different levels of these courses in this period. In 2008, 725 trainees attended English language courses at a

variety of locations including some prestigious training centres, such as the British consulate and Awardbrand, while the number of trainees reached 1478 in 2009.

In addition, it is noteworthy that the highest share of candidates for these courses in 2007/2008 was from Al-Mahari Hotel, which formed about 74% (Training report, 2007/2008, Table 7.1). The reason is to meet the agreement with ‘Suma Company’ (see Chapter 7, section 7.2.2[v]), and the introduction of new Radisson – Blu management, where a good level of English language is one of the main conditions for the acceptance of local staff from Al-Mahari Hotel, as confirmed by one of the participants from the OPS. In general, improving the foreign languages of the national labour, whether in SSFIC or in other hotels, is a significant step to achieve the first objective of the LTMP (2009-2025), which showed that Libya is looking to accommodate about 4.6 million tourists by 2025 (see Chapter 2, section 2.5.4.2). In other words, as Leslie and Russell(2006, p.1397) stated: “There is little doubt that skills in the language of another country are invaluable when communicating with people from that country”. This however should not be to the exclusion of technical and professional competences. According to Naama’s study (2007, Chapter 6, p.12), one of the hotel managers in Libya stated that “it is important for us to employ new workers who have received good training and experience in addition to the English language”.

#### **9.2.1.5 Comparison with CBAH**

CBAH on the other hand is an International group with standardised training policies. In Libya it represents a far simpler situation than SSFIC with only one hotel and with all training carried out on-site by the Training Academy in accordance with established

guidelines. For example, CBAH (CHI) employees were trained by trainers familiar with CHI systems; standards and equipment (Table 7.16).

The difference between the two approaches to training is shown in Table 9.1 below, which highlights a greater involvement of line managers in CBAH.

**Table 9.1: Approaches to training in both organisations**

Name of organisation	Location of training				Conducted by		
	On the job training		External courses		Line managers/ supervisors	In-house Trainers	External trainers
On-site training courses	In-house off-site training courses	In Arabic speaking countries	In non- Arabic speaking countries				
SSFIC	<input type="checkbox"/> x	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> x	<input type="checkbox"/> x	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
CBAH	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> x	<input type="checkbox"/> x	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> x

### 9.2.1.6 Training methods

Despite the fact that many types of courses were delivered in both cases (Chapter 7, Tables 7.15 and 7.16), there is little variety in the use of training methods appropriate to work in the hotel area. The majority of the trainee, trainer, and training manager respondents in both cases stated that theoretical classes were the most common technique used, i.e. lectures followed by discussion. At the same time, many of the courses need practical applications, for example, cooking, and others skills require the organisation of field visits. One of the main reasons behind this issue in SSFIC is the lack of qualified trainers in practical skills. The situation in CBAH is apparently different because of the use of on-the-job training as indicated in section 5.11.1 and mentioned by the HTA although no examples of this were

provided. In consequence one might expect employees within the CBAH (CHI) training system to receive more practical skills training and feel they had achieved a much greater ability to apply skills and knowledge to their work practices. Given the experience of the Corinthia hotel chain around the world, especially in the area of training one might also expect the training programmes to be planned and well-organised.

However this was not borne out by the figures. 60% of CBAH respondents indicated that lecture and discussion were the prevailing training method, with only 8% referring to practical activities.

### **9.2.2 The Second Research Question: What are the methods currently used to evaluate existing training programme effectiveness in the same sector and why are they adopted?**

The training literature reveals that there is a general agreement about the key aim of conducting a training evaluation process which lies in identifying the value of training through achieved results from any training programme (e.g. Williams, 1976; Brinkerhoff, 1981; Carnevale & Schutz, 1990; Goldstein, 2001; Kirkpatrick & Kirkpatrick, 2005; Buckley & Caple, 2009). Evaluation still occupies a major place of interest of senior consultants in the field of training if only as a means to justify the investment in training (Hashim, 2001; Sarah, 1994). This would incorporate evidence of transfer of learning to the workplace as well as assessment of trainee's learning and trainers' performance. In SSFIC course evaluation is not primarily based on student achievement or newly learnt skills but on the success of the training agency in delivering valuable course content. There is an

element of assessment but whether or not a trainee “passes” the course appears to be largely based upon attendance and only to a limited extent on new skills and knowledge acquired.

Despite this importance, the evaluation process adopted by SSFIC is constructed principally from the trainer’s report written within the external training centre, which depends on attendance and discussion, tests and post-questionnaires. In other words, there is no Level 3 and 4 (according to Kirkpatrick’s model) evaluation of trainees after returning to their workplace or mechanism for determining transfer as presented in the ADITE model. SSFIC considers that the success of the training programme is measured through the grades obtained by the trainee, even so, this grade assessment usually represents only the theoretical side of work practices, and does not take into account the capacities and skills of the trainee. There has been some change during the course of the study. Only latterly is the SSFIC in the process of establishing mechanisms to assess trainees after their return to work as mentioned by one of the training managers in interview.

In addition to the reports of trainers, end of course questionnaires are delivered to trainees; the so called “happy sheets” (see Appendixes 3 and 4). The “happy sheet” questionnaire is given to all trainees at the end day of the training session. It invites trainees’ comments and attitudes towards the training session that they had attended in general including: the content, the duration of the session, the training methods, the evaluation methods, and the performance of trainers. However a group of training managers and trainers commented that there were various difficulties facing this process of evaluation. The strongest barriers lay in an unawareness of the importance of the assessment process by the SSFIC and other parties, and thus the absence of the required support to prioritise this process. There was a

failure of trainees to express their opinions sincerely in their assessment of the training courses they attended, when they completed the “happy sheet” questionnaire that undermined the validity of the process. Therefore, the happy sheets lack criticality of internal and external courses and remain a routine procedure. In fact no evidence was provided that these sheets were processed. One of the training managers indicated that they were returned to the OPS in order to take appropriate action, but there is no clear picture about any action subsequently being taken. This is mostly attributable to the lack of understanding in supposedly skilled and qualified personnel.

However, a variety of evaluation methods were used by CBAH (CHI) in the form of on-the-job assessments and customer feedback and general observation.

It is clear from the previous discussion regarding the process of evaluation that there was a group of difficulties in this process at SSFIC and these are many more than the difficulties observed by trainees from CBAH.

A summary of the key difficulties reflected in the responses of training managers in SSFIC are:

- Lack of knowledge by some officials of the importance of evaluation
- Lack of understanding of the mechanisms of evaluation.
- Inability of some officials to measure the quality and results of training.
- Focus on trainers reports as opposed to relevance of course content
- Lack of cooperation of some officials with trainees.
- Need for uniform criteria for evaluating.

- Uncompleted evaluation forms due to trainees' lack of knowledge of dimensions of the importance of evaluation.
- The general low level of trainer competence at some of local training centres

The explanation for these difficulties falls into four categories.

**(a) Difficulties regarding the training managers**

The major issue here is the absence of an overall evaluation framework leading to uncertainty of what to evaluate, what its importance is, and why it is important.

**(b) Difficulties regarding the trainees**

Trainees were not fully aware of the importance of evaluation as a result of the prevailing belief among them that the results of the evaluation of training are of little value. There was also a perception that their views and comments about this process might be discounted.

**(c) Difficulties regarding the trainers**

The trainers had no responsibility for evaluating whether the course objectives met the needs of individuals who were attending. The Libyan trainers conducted no level 1 (reaction) evaluation to identify what prior knowledge or skills trainees possessed. There was a possibility of lack of objectivity and fairness in grades awarded and this was aggravated by a significant percentage of respondents feeling that the trainers were not competent.

**(d) Difficulties regarding line management.**

Managers saw little value in the evaluation process and at times created barriers to its effective operation (for example, see Chapter 8, section 8.4.3.3). Moreover, although two of

the training managers stated that the final training certificate or report alone is an insufficient tool to evaluate the training programmes, others stated that the evaluation process is not easy to conduct during the short-term; and may be it often needs more than three months. This study also revealed a difference in the process of evaluation between local training centres and external centres (see appendixes 3, 4 and 5). SSFIC could benefit from the adoption of the methods of evaluation pursued by the overseas training centres, such as those in Jordan and Tunisia.

### **9.2.3 The Third Research Question: What training-related problems are faced by the public hotel sector in Libya and how significant are they?**

As discussed in Chapter One, the Libyan context is unique because the Libyan government has only recently begun to focus on the area of tourism and hospitality (Salih, 2005; Danis, 2006; Abuharris, 2007; Naama et al. 2008). The hotel sector was neglected and as a result of the neglect the study revealed that there are many serious issues faced by the Libyan hotel sector and the SSFIC in particular. These can be classified as:-

#### **(i) Instability in managerial structures**

One of the problems faced by the public tourism sector in Libya is that it has not witnessed stable administration. For example, since 1999, the names and terms of reference and headquarters changed five times, while the controlling ministries have changed three times (LTMP, 2009-2025).

#### **(ii) Transferability and mobility of trained human resources**

Many Libyan employees who had previously worked in the area of hotels and tourism have attended training courses for short and long terms abroad but on return to Libya have used

their newly acquired transferable skills to move to work within other sectors (LTMP, 1999-2018) and (LTMP, 2009-2025) where wages are higher. This is one continuing reason that leads to an increase in the number of foreign workers in the hotel sector and a severe shortage of trained and qualified local employment.

**(iii) Poor working conditions, pay structure and reward system including lack of training incentives**

As discussed in the literature(Chapter 4, section 4.5)and in the findings of this study (Chapter 7, sections 7.3.1.4.3.3 and7.3.1.4.3.4 – Chapter 8, sections 8.4.3.4.1 and 8.4.3.6),the international tourism industry suffers from poor work conditions, low pay and long working hours. The situation is similar in the Libyan hotel sector where workers experience low salaries compared with other sectors, especially the oil sector. For example and according to Naama (2007), the lowest salary in the Libyan hotel sector was LD 120 per month, while the lowest monthly salary in the Libyan oil sector was LD 450.

The background of low salaries helps explain the instrumental orientation that some trainees have to attending courses. 94.5% of trainee respondents from the SSFIC cohort pointed out that they did not obtain any personal benefits such as material or moral incentives or promotions resulting from training. This absence of incentives together with a general lack of encouragement has influenced negative attitudes to both internal and external courses as well as providing little motivation to improve work performance. This has often been reinforced by the trainee's lack of opportunity to apply the benefits of training after returning to the workplace. Consequently, in order to motivate the managers and employees to learn and train, the current system of salaries, rewards and promotions should be positively changed to enhance the outcomes of training.

In contrast, 76% of the trainee participants from CBAH stated that they obtained personal benefits such as material incentives (salary increase and promotions) and morale-based incentives (certificates at the end of training courses). There was no comment or reaction from the participants in CBAH about low salaries.

#### **(iv) Poor workforce planning**

Although T&D is a vital issue to improve the image and efficiency of the emerging tourism and hotel industry, the organisations responsible for tourist activity, the GPC and GBTTI, have no clear plans for developing human resources in the tourism and hotel industry (Khalifa, 2010). The hotel sector in Libya suffers not only from a lack of skilled and qualified staff due to the need for training but also from an urgent need to develop a workforce plan for the Libyan tourism and hospitality sector; most of the stakeholders in the hotel sector have insufficient knowledge about workforce planning (Naama, 2007). Moreover, training programmes offered by the SSFIC lack the good design that is in accordance with the identification of needs for those workers who have been nominated for training, and then the needs of the organisation in general.

The issue of workforce planning and training needs has additional implications given the drive to reduce foreign labour. Libya still relies on foreign labour to perform several key jobs. This trend prevails in the hospitality organisations, due to a lack of an indigenously qualified and skilled national workforce. In 2005, foreign workers in hotels represented around 47% of the staff, but the rate dropped to 32% in 2006, while, in the same period foreign workers in cafes and restaurants, increased to 70% (GBTTI, 2008, 2009).

In the case of the SSFIC (before its establishment in 2007), the SSCCH frequently employed foreign workers and in 2006, workers were recruited from Tunisia and Morocco. By 2009, however, foreign workers in SSFIC constituted only 7% of all employees (see Chapter 5, section 5.3). Reasons for this were identified in Chapter 8.2.1. One reason for this was the introduction of new measures by the Libyan government to reduce unemployment by regulating the employment of non-nationals. Equally significant was one of the most important strategic goals of SSFIC since its establishment in 2007 has been to reduce the need to bring in foreign workers to bridge the skills gap identified in a new competitive environment by recruiting, training and developing the local human resources (GSP, 2008-2012).

**(v) Skills gap of managers in training needs analysis**

The study's findings showed that the lack of qualified people in the field of HR, especially in training activity was one of the difficulties facing the SSFIC. The researcher was able to observe this fact during the field work, and to confirm the lack of qualifications amongst such managers. The SSFIC's documents of 2009 reveal that the number of specialists in the hotels area was only (13) based on their qualifications, and only one officer was carrying a bachelor degree in hospitality among the seven training managers who participated in this study.

This is confirmed by one of the training managers (see Chapter 7, section 7.3.2.2.3.1 and other sections for example, 7.3.1.4.1.1 and 7.3.1.4.3.1). This lack includes all phases of training, from the phase of training needs identification to the phase of evaluation. In an effort to bridge this gap, the SSFIC's archival data (training reports from November 2007

to the end of 2009 revealed that 37 managers attended a training programme regarding the training needs identification (see Appendix 9, Table 9.9).

**(vi) Lack of clear and appropriate training objectives**

In terms of the relevance of course training objectives there was remarkable consistency in the responses. Approximately two thirds of trainees from SSFIC considered that course training objectives were only partially appropriate or not appropriate at all to their requirements. A similar percentage deemed that the training courses were only partially or not at all relevant to the nature of their work; their training needs; and their ability. 39.8% stated that specified time for the training sessions was not appropriate at all (Chapter 7, Table 7.25).

The study reveals that there was no department of training or training specialist in any of the hotels of the SSFIC. This is one of the key reasons behind the ineffectiveness of many training programmes in terms of the methods of selection of staff, identifying training needs and the evaluation process. The absence of departments for training was used as justification for the fact that there was no list of staff who attended training courses. This is one of the difficulties which emerged during the field study (see chapter 6, section 6.6.3.2).

On first impressions, the training programmes in the majority of the surveyed hotels of the SSFIC seem to reflect the operational management needs such as training new workers and updating skills of the current employees in order to improve the standard of their performance. This was not reflected in how the training was delivered or how transfer of learning to the workplace was carried out. It could be argued that the training plan in the SSFIC has focused on quantity rather than quality. In other words, many training courses

were provided using unskilled and unqualified local trainers and with locations and timing that were not suitable (e.g. see Chapter 7, sections 7.3.1.4.3.5, 7.3.1.4.3.7.1 and 7.3.2.2.3.7)

**(vii) Poor policies and procedures**

Significant percentages of respondents expressed dissatisfaction over key issues. Four out of seven (57.1%) of the training managers considered the current training policy and plan to be inappropriate (Table 7.45), with three of these stating it was because of poor planning and implementation difficulties. Even 22.4% of trainee respondents, who would be less knowledgeable on this matter, felt that the policy and planning of training of the SSFIC was inappropriate. The most frequently mentioned reasons were due to:-

- a lack of good planning especially for overseas training courses. For example, there were no explicit criteria or priorities that guided the selection of candidates.
- a lack of qualified and skilled people working in training management and HRM in general.
- shortcomings in the evaluation methods used
- a lack of identifying specific training needs
- a lack of encouragement for trainees from their managers and the absence of the incentives and promotions system.
- poor timing and location of most training programmes.
- poor choice of trainers.

24% of trainee respondents in CBAH – a similar proportion to SSFIC - considered that the policy and training plan was not appropriate and needed to change for the following reasons:

- Lack of coordination in the implementation of training programmes.
- Absence of employees' contribution in preparing a training plan.

### **(viii) Poor facilities, training equipment and methods**

The findings of the study reveal that 82.6% of trainee respondents in SSFIC voiced criticisms of the training facilities and 22.4% stated that facilities and equipment of the training courses were not appropriate. However, in CBAH, only 8% deemed that these facilities were inappropriate. This issue will hopefully be remedied when the new training centre at JTV is completed.

Theoretical training is used widely within the SSFIC courses but was shown to be only partially suitable while practical based courses were neglected due to lack of skilled and qualified local staff, either training managers or trainers.

### **(ix) Lack of trained trainers**

Literature sources suggest that shortcomings in locally delivered training courses are largely due to the Libyan government not paying sufficient attention to the hotel sector over the past several years, which in turn has resulted in a lack of qualified and skilled local staff and trainers. This was confirmed in the study. Respondents from SSFIC indicated strongly that one of the key difficulties faced by the hotel sector lies in a large deficit in qualified Libyan trainers: for example approximately 50% of them considered trainers to be either not effective, or only effective to a certain extent, on issues such as explaining the subject matter, generating an interest in the topic, and monitoring progress (Chapter 7, section 7.3.1.4.2.4).

Trainers whose interest is founded in the areas of hotel and hospitality are particularly in short supply. This was one of the key reasons why overseas training was conducted in other countries, such as Tunisia and Jordan. The problem of a shortage of qualified trainers not only faces the SSFIC and its hotels, but the Libyan tourism and hospitality sector in general. This is reported by many researchers (e.g. Jwaili et al. 2005; Salih, 2005; Danis, 2006; Naama, 2007; Naama et al. 2008; Khalifa, 2010) although no participants from CBAH indicated a shortage of qualified trainers.

The shortage of competent trainers was also not so evident from the responses given by trainees employed by CBAH, 72% of whom reported that their trainers were qualified and competent. The most prominent difference between the trainers in SSFIC and CBAH is shown in Table 9.2 that records measures of ineffectiveness.

**Table 9.2: The effectiveness of trainers – taken from Table 7.30, Chapter 7**

Lack of competency of trainers (Not effective) in:	SSFIC	CBAH
(A) explaining the subject matter	9%	0%
(B) generating an interest in the topic	8%	
(C) helping you with problems	11.4%	
(D) monitoring your progress	11.9%	
(E) giving practical examples to support the topic	9.5%	

**(x) Lack of cooperation between hotel operational departments and management**

In SSFIC, one of the training managers stated that SSFIC and the hotel sector have not received sufficient support from government compared to other sectors. In addition, there is no full co-operation between hospitality education institutions and the hotel sector. This finding is consistent with the findings of some researchers (Naama et al. 2008;Kassem,

2008). Khalifa (2010) found that the relationship between the GPC, the GBTTI and tourism organisations (which include the SSFIC) is very weak, with a lack of cooperation and coordination. The relationship between the two organisations only consists of requesting statistics from the GBTTI. The consequence of this is that the data needed for strategic direction and workforce planning in the sector is limited.

**(xi) Training benefits and transfer of learning**

There was evidence that trainees did benefit from the courses provided. In terms of new knowledge, skills and behaviours only 6.5%, 8.5% and 8.5% respectively reported none had been acquired (Table 7.24). The situation was different in terms of opportunity to apply them back at the workplace. As many as 13.9% of respondents confirmed that they had not been able to apply new skills and knowledge to their jobs and less than a quarter of trainees (23.4%) reported that they were able to apply new skills and knowledge to their jobs to a large extent. A remarkable 84.1% commented that they faced difficulties in applying skills and knowledge acquired (Table 7.33). All of the CBAH respondents felt there was opportunity to apply new skills back at the workplace and only 20% referred to difficulties faced; a significantly more positive situation than that of SSFIC.

**9.2.4 The Fourth Research Question: What are the core differences between the training and development practices and programmes currently being implemented within Libya, Western countries and elsewhere?**

The general picture of the tourism and hotels industry, including training for employees in the hotel sector in Libya is different from the experience in western countries. Examples of these differences lie in the following points:

**Table 9.3: Differences between the Libyan context and Western countries when conducting training programmes**

<b>Libya (including SSFIC)</b>	<b>Western countries</b>
Libya is a relative newcomer to tourism and the hotel industry	Western countries have a long experience in this industry.
The public owned hotel sector is the prevailing standard	The private hotel sector is the prevailing standard
Most training conducted locally, but reliance on overseas trainers and training for key skills	Most training conducted locally and in house
Heavy reliance on ‘off-the-job training’	Significant use of on ‘on-the-job training’
A significant lack of local trainers	Trainers are available
Absence of training incentives and rewards	Incentives for successfully completing training usually exist, for example through the performance management system
Majority of workers are male	Majority of workers are female

Mendonca (2000) confirmed the need to recognise that management practices and techniques that are consistent with the Western context and its cultural values cannot be automatically applied in developing countries. Mendonca and Kanungo (1996) stated that “these techniques and practices which have evolved in the context of western cultural values cannot be expected to take root in the fundamentally different socio-cultural environment of the developing countries”. This means that western practices could be transferable in developing countries but need to be adapted. Hence, some of the above training practices and resources of Western countries could be applicable in the Libyan context. However some amendments should be made when exercising them in the hotel sector in Libya due to the difference in several factors, such as the structure of the Libyan society (more details in Chapter 4, section 4.3), and the impact of national and organisational culture on the present study which is shown in the following section.

#### 9.2.4.1 The influence of national and organisational culture

Based on the review of structure and characteristics of Libyan society, national and organisational culture, in Chapter Four, a number of issues emerged during the field work and from the study's findings that are different to what would be expected in the West. These issues are summarised in the following points:

- (a) **Wasta** played a negative role in relation to the selection of employees for training within the SSFIC. It plays a major role in several other hotel functions. For example, Naama (2007) pointed out that one of the key sources of recruitment and selection of new employees in Libyan hotels is based on the recommendations of people (friends or relatives) who have a good relationship with the hotel manager. The issue becomes worse when choosing new administrative leaders, because according to Baera (2007), poor selection of administrative leaders, is one of the key challenges faced by most sectors in Libya, including the hotel sector and SSFIC, where political and social considerations are taken into account before the considerations of capability and efficiency. These considerations are currently weighted as: 55% political loyalty, 53% tribal affiliation, and 12% qualifications. Naama (2007, chapter 6, p.17) states:

*“...Paradoxically, the results revealed that the managerial posts in the Libyan hotels are dependent on local people who are generally less well-qualified. This has far reaching consequences on the Libyan hotel sector's performance particularly, on aspects of general management of the hotels, which in the long-run would impact negatively on the performance of staff at lower levels”.*

**(b) Masculinity vs. Femininity:** According to Hofstede's model (1983), Libya was medium masculinity, but Abubaker (2007) argues that the male domination is the main feature for Libyan society culture. This might be one of the reasons behind the absence of an effective role of women in some sectors such as the hospitality sector. However, this issue was inconsistent with the hospitality literature that suggests hotels have been female-dominated (ILO, 2001; Purcell, 1996; Lucas, 1995; Doherty, 2004; Naama, 2007; People 1st, 2010). The absent role of Libyan women working in hotels is due to the influence of several factors, such as the Islamic religion, traditions and the prevailing culture (Naama, 2007; Naama et al. 2008). Through their study on the Turkish hospitality industry, Pinara et al. (2011) believe that "part of the reason for this absence may be that female employees may interrupt their working lives due to preferences for marriage and caring for children (p.73)". In the same context, some difficulties face Libyan women that were derived from Al-Sabbagh (1991 cited in Alabani, 2009), who stated that Libyan women have many obligations towards their family and home, which forms an impediment for them to perform several jobs in the labour market. Accordingly, the national culture's impact on organisational culture led to the creation of some functions only for men and where women were not accepted to access it. For instance, most of Libyan women work in schools as teachers, because this function has limited work hours, but it is difficult for them to work in companies or hotels because it requires longer hours.

**(c) Individualism vs. Collectivism:** 'Creating a culture of teamwork' is one of the objectives of human resources plan of the SSFIC (GSP, 2008-2012). Theoretically, the objective is in line with Hofstede (1983) who described Libya as low individualism.

However, from a practical side, in Chapter 7, Table 7.33 showed that a number of trainee participants in this study complained about insufficient support and encouragement from both superiors and colleagues regarding applying training benefits after returning to their workplace. This could be largely due to a lack of training culture within SSFIC, particularly among superiors (see Chapter 8, section 8.4.3.3.2). This could be largely due to a lack of a teamwork culture within SSFIC, particularly among superiors (see Chapter 8, section 8.4.3.4.1).

**(d) Social reputation:** Twati and Gammack (2006) state that employees within Libyan organisations care about the reputation of their names, families and tribes. This might be one of the negative features within Libyan society, where most people do not recognise the value of work in hotels, cafes and restaurants because some jobs are still seen as unacceptable, such as waiters, chefs and cleaning services, i.e. incompatible with their social reputation. In the SSFIC, most of its Libyan staff prefer administrative work rather than practical jobs, which is one of the key challenges faced by the SSFIC in the area of HR (GSP, 2008-2012). This negative character was prevailing in other sector, for example, industrial sector (Aгнаia, 1996).

In addition to the discussion above, there are other issues related to the training practices in the hotel industry that reflect some core characteristics of the Libyan context.

**(i) Poor industry image**

The study revealed that the Libyans are not inclined to study in the hospitality and tourism institutions. This is due to two main reasons. Firstly, the education system does not pay enough attention to this industry. Secondly, the study of tourism and hospitality has a low

priority among Libyan students, because of the dominant perception in society which still sees it as a functional role that has unacceptably low salaries. Although tourism is considered to be a promising industry for revenue generation as an alternative source for the oil industry, the Libyan government still does not take people management in this industry seriously. Also, although the unemployment rate in Libya is high, most people do not recognise the value of work in hotels, cafes and restaurants because some jobs are still seen as unacceptable such as waiters, chefs and cleaning services.

To improve this image, three major recommendations will be stated in section 9.3.1.

**(ii) Poor Quality Customer Service and Service Standard Recognition**

The level of services and performance in the private hotel sector is often better than the government-owned hotels, such as hotels of the SSFIC. Nevertheless, Libyan hotels lack international standardisation; for example, a four-star hotel in Libya, either owned by the state or the private sector will not be similar in the quality of service if compared with four-star hotels in the UK or elsewhere (Khalifa, 2010). It is worth noting that a number of foreign hotels with big brand names, such as, Marriott, Sheraton, Four Seasons and Radisson Blu SAS have been established recently in Libya, following the CBAH, which opened in 2003. This may change service expectations across a sector where most Libyan hotels suffer from poor quality customer service, particularly those based outside the capital. The CBAH is probably the only hotel in Libya which is characterised by providing good services.

As discussed in the literature about the current status of Libyan hotels, especially the hotels of the SSFIC under the study, one can say that the key to the success of the Libyan hotel sector is to focus on the quality of the service to develop the skills and knowledge of human

resources. There are two options, either to focus on external training courses which are viewed as more effective than local ones, as stated, for example, in Chapter Seven, (section 7.3.1.4.2.2), or to bring qualified trainers from outside the country to conduct training courses for managers and workers. The former option is in line with one of the study's findings of Khalifa (2010, Chapter 7, p.69), where one of the hotel managers in Libya confirmed that: "our training programmes are not acceptable to five-star hotels. In 2009 was the first time, the company sent a number of employees abroad to attend training programmes and although they were short, they were successful".

### **(iii) Systematic training philosophy**

Western training practice emphasises the importance of systematic training of which the ADDIE model is one example. The purpose of frameworks such as ADDIE is to increase the effectiveness and efficiency of education and training by fitting instruction to jobs that help prepare individuals to meet their work-performance requirements. However there is a lack of awareness in Libya of systematic training principles and a gap across the country in the skills and competences to apply them. The researcher considers this not to be an insurmountable problem. The ADDIE model could be quite quickly applied in the CBAH because of the existence of an appropriate environment (e.g. qualified staff and adequate experience). Moreover, most of the stages of the ADDIE model were already being applied there to some extent.

According to the revised model of Allen (2006), the researcher found that an important phase was missing in his model which may help us to evaluate and improve training and make it more effective. This phase is 'transfer of training' to the workplace. It is one of the most important phases in evaluation elements (Pineda, 2010), which was discussed in

Chapter 3, section 3.7. The model (ADITE) was created by the researcher, commensurate with the current situation in the SSFIC as well as it could be applied to other organisations that have similar characteristics both inside and outside Libya (see the contributions of the research, section 9.4).

**9.2.5 The Fifth Research Question: In the light of recommended good practice from the literature and the particular contingencies revealed through the empirical study, how appropriate are the approaches adopted? What might be done differently?**

SSFIC clearly recognises the need for more and better trained employees particularly given the opening up of the sector to foreign competition, the major policy shift towards shared ownership with the private sector and subcontracting day-to-day operational management of individual hotels, and the reduction in foreign staff given the need to reduce unemployment within Libya; and has sufficient funds to train a significant proportion of them. The numbers of trainees has increased substantially over the period of the study. More money is devoted to training and new training centres are being built. The range of skills trained is impressive with both practical and management subjects being fully covered and with good numbers of trainees on each course. Nevertheless, there are challenges regarding the quality and relevance of programmes provided and their impact on employees in the hotels.

[a] Courses are provided covering an impressively wide range of subject disciplines particularly in areas where practical application to the workplace could be considered vital. However, in such subjects as housekeeping, reception and food and beverage operations nothing was linked to the locally used equipment or working environment and there was an

absence of on the job training and coaching. Overall training methods have not substantially changed to meet changed requirements.

**[b]**The SSFIC programme of education and training is not of sufficient quality or quantity for the customer focussed jobs in order to meet the growing demand for hotel services or to satisfy the growing demands in the tourism market. A significant number of trainees are dissatisfied with their training

**[c]**The training programmes provided by the SSFIC do not meet the requirements of systematic training as outlined in the ADDIE/ADITE models. For example the process lacks an initial identification of training needs at organisational, job or individual level. There was no prior discussion on the requirements and objectives of training with the trainees who attended those programmes.

**[d]**Evaluation was also very limited in its scope and did not extend beyond happiness sheets and certificating individual delegates. Evaluation methods have not changed because the SSFIC still suffers from a lack of staff available to assess the training. There is no attempt made to consider how training undertaken is transferred back to the workplace. Berge (2008) states that organisations should seek to look more closely at the relationship between training investment and business results. However, this relationship is non-existent in SSFIC due to the absence of evaluation of training effectiveness as discussed in the second question. These gaps have a detrimental effect on the setting of training objectives and the relevance of courses offered.

**[e]**The 2008-2012 Strategic Human Resources Plan, which was discussed in Chapter Five has a very positive feel to it in terms of introducing progressive practices. However at the

time of the study it was largely aspirational. There was no evidence, for example, of developing and applying an effective system of performance management that is an essential lever to identifying training needs and evaluating outcomes of training. Without it, the production of an *effective* integrated plan for the development and improvement of the skills and efficiency of the staff remains problematic.

In the Libyan hotels owned by the SSFIC there was no clear definition of HRM/HRD procedures, due to a lack of qualified people at management level, especially in training and development practice. There was no-one at hotel level with a specific responsibility for overseeing training needs. These shortcomings have a major significance in terms of implementation of any recommendations that might be made to improve training effectiveness.

[f]SSFIC has not utilised the methods of evaluation pursued by the overseas training centres, such as those in Jordan and Tunisia which are more in keeping with evaluation methods that recognise and measure trainee skill acquisition.

It can be concluded that the public hotel sector in Libya, and SSFIC hotels should focus on two major strategies for developing human resources, firstly, by recruiting skilled and qualified labour, and secondly, by adopting an effective approach to improving the existing labour skills through training and development programmes. Additionally those responsible for these strategies, especially training activities, should monitor and evaluate the performance of employees before and after training to identify skills, knowledge and application gaps and future needs.

These conclusions lead to the following recommendations

### **9.2.5.1 General recommendations for the Libyan Government**

- The Libyan government should encourage researchers and people interested in tourism and hotel industry by holding local conferences, seminars and workshops regularly, and also participate in the Arab and international events.
- The Libyan government should add the specialisation of tourism and hotel into the national education system at least from secondary school level in order to increase the new generations' awareness and to change the poor image of this industry by public people.
- The Libyan government can bring skilled and qualified foreign workers to fill the gap in some required jobs in the hotel sector, and to help form a nationally qualified and skilled workforce.
- The Libyan government which regulates the public and private hotel sector, including the SSFIC should seek to improve the image of the hospitality industry, and work in the hotel sector in particular, in the eyes of the Libyan people. The government needs to adopt several procedures, such as improving salaries, and establishing a system of awards and training incentives to both internal and external courses.

### **9.2.5.2 General recommendations for the Libyan hotel sector**

To improve the performance of the current Libyan hotels, it is necessary to:

- establish new centres and training institutes under the supervision of the tourism sector. With the promotion of the private sector it must open training institutions in this area to cover the needs of the existing and expected tourism enterprises for qualified and trained workers.

- raise awareness of tourists for Libyan people to improve the image of tourism and work in hotels through using several methods, such as teaching methodologies, culture and media.
- conduct intensive courses in foreign languages, because the level of the majority of employees in this area is very weak, whilst foreign language skills are essential in the nature of work within the hotel sector.
- establish a general system of assessment of performance in order to identify key problems faced by this sector and try to solve them quickly.

#### **9.2.5.3 The key recommendations for the SSFIC**

According to the aforesaid conclusions, the following recommendations are proposed as a guide to reform training in the public hotel sector in Libya, and the SSFIC in particular:

- Training programmes offered by the SSFIC should be well designed and in accordance firstly with the needs of the organisation in general, then with the identification of training needs for specific posts and finally in terms of the skills and knowledge gaps of those workers who have been nominated for training.
- The study reveals that there was no training function in any of the hotels within the SSFIC chain. This is one of the key reasons contributing to the ineffectiveness of many training programmes offered in terms of: identifying training needs, the methods of selection of staff, the evaluation process, and the absence of record keeping of all training undertaken. Thus training units should be established in each hotel.

- The findings of the study reveal that theoretical training is used predominantly within the SSFIC, and there is little focus on the acquisition of practical skills. To ensure achieving the objectives of training, the appropriate training methods should be selected strictly in accordance with the training needs of trainees, the nature and purpose of the training course, and requirements of each job.
- SSFIC should adopt a clear mechanism with standardised and transparent criteria for its hotels management in terms of the nomination of workers who need training for improving their skills and knowledge. This would make the trainees more homogeneous in their job backgrounds and training needs in the classroom.
- The results of evaluation should be discussed by the three parties concerned: trainees, line managers or supervisors, and the SSFIC in general to determine the benefit of training in order to improve the performance of trainees and the hotels chain of the SSFIC. This would ensure enhancing training outcome, and reduce the uncertainty of decision-making about the effectiveness of the offered training programmes. Moreover, the discussion would make those parties, especially the trainees more aware of the importance of the process of evaluation, and thus could be useful in overcoming the trainees' bias in relation to their feeling toward the evaluation of training programmes. This is one way to inform the participants clearly of the purpose of evaluation and their effective role in its success.
- This study revealed a weakness in the evaluation of training programmes, and there is a difference in the process of evaluation between local training centres and external centres (see appendixes 3, 4 and 6), and therefore at the present time, the

SSFIC can adopt the method of valuation pursued by the overseas training centres, such as those in Jordan and Tunisia.

- The SSFIC should adopt 'on-the-job training' especially for those jobs where it is considered to be the best type of training to overcome performance gaps. It should be undertaken by the supervisors or line managers to overcome the obvious skills shortages of personnel. Where appropriate training and guidance will be given to help them acquire the requisite coaching skills.
- The SSFIC should attempt to apply the phases of a systematic training framework which would be the first step on the right way to change and develop its training policy and plans. It should consider the implications of incorporating the important phases that have been ignored to date, for instance, analysis, development and evaluation. This will necessitate a strategy for overcoming the lack of skilled and qualified staff, including the acute shortage of trainers who will be responsible for implementation and follow-up.
- Training skills of managerial staff should be improved. Many consider that the role of managerial staff within the hotel sector is more intensive than that in most other businesses (Hales & Nightingale, 1986), because the managers in hotels should have a good level of social and technical skills and managerial knowledge (Watson & Brotherton, 1996). On this basis, managers in all departments in the SSFIC and its hotels are in need of training to be able to play their roles effectively, especially in respect of training activities. In other words, training managers and supervisors should be involved in training programmes to enhance their skills and knowledge,

and thus ensure that these programmes are well-planned in different phases. This can be achieved through conducting a Training Trainers programme with constant evaluation of the capability of those trainers. This is also consistent with Taylor and Berger (2000) and Agut et al. (2003), who state that the hospitality industry requires greater skills from all levels of employees.

- More effective communication and cooperation should be established between the hospitality organisations in the public and private sector to promote the processes of training, i.e. stakeholders must be involved in the planning and implementation of these programmes to benefit from their experience.
- The Libyan hospitality organisations, including the SSFIC should emphasise, in their published documentation, the importance of the training process as a way to bridge the gap in the skills shortage of the workers in this industry. This would support the SSFIC's attitude and its credibility in performing a training task.
- With regard to the difficulties facing the trainees, as reported in Chapter Seven (section 7.3.1.4.3.7.1) and Chapter Eight (sections 8.4.3.4.1), more efforts should be made to minimise them. Regarding the trainers, the officials in the Libyan hotel sector, particular in the SSFIC must review the shortage of local trainers, and therefore this important issue deserves particular consideration.
- Generally, service quality is a key to gaining a competitive advantage in the tourism and hotel industry. This study revealed that most Libyan hotels, including the SSFIC's hotels suffer from a lack of quality service and national standards for training, thus the purposive training courses are an appropriate method to bridge this

gap. In the same vein, the GBTTI and the SSFIC must establish a section for quality assurance to improve quality service in the entire industry.

Based on these recommendations, there seems that there is a clear need to create effective communication and team-work between the hospitality organisations and training institutions in both sectors, public and private to improve the state of training in this industry. In addition, it is a quite clear that additional studies would be required to clarify several issues related to policy of training. The following section presents suggestions for further research.

### **9.3. Recommendations for Further Research**

- The findings of this research revealed several new issues, which could reflect the need for doing further studies. Therefore, the key topics that are suggested by the researcher are as follows:
- Due to the limited time of study, the researcher was not able to investigate and make a comparison between the trainees' perspectives who attended local courses and overseas training, thus, this is an interesting issue which should be studied in future research.
- This study could be replicated in other public or private hotels in the Libyan context. It might be useful to discover new factors which allow for making a comparison between the public and private sectors. Moreover, the subject of this study can be applied to similar organisations in various developing countries, particularly in Arab countries due to the great similarity in many factors, such as social, cultural, political and economic.

- Research should be conducted to investigate training methods which should be in accordance with the identification of training needs in relation to both the employees and the hotel organisations, and to justify the reasons behind the preference of those methods.
- Research should be conducted on explaining and justifying the real reasons behind the preference for ‘off-the-job training’ as opposed to ‘on-the-job training’, which so far has been ignored in the Libyan context and in the SSFIC in particular. There is a need to understand this phenomenon, given that the selection of the appropriate type of training is one of the key factors for the success of any training programme. This issue is worth studying in order to answer the following question: *Why do most Libyan sectors, including hotels, depend heavily on ‘off-the-job training’ even though many staff who are in need of training could receive it in their workplace?*
- Research should be undertaken to investigate the strategies of the Libyan government related to training practices, and their impact on the training policy of the public and private hotel sector.
- Research should be undertaken to investigate the evaluation methods and ways of measurement to improve the effectiveness of the training and the tasks performed by the trainees, because the current training programmes and methods of evaluation did not help the trainees in the transferring of skills and knowledge to their jobs.
- Due to the scarcity of studies on the tourism and hospitality sector in Libya in particular, a small number of researchers (Naama et al. 2008; Jawili, 2003; Dains, 2006) have indicated the absence of cooperation between several Libyan institutions

of tourism and hospitality. There is no full cooperation between the public and private hotel sector, and on the other hand, between the hospitality education institutions and the hotel sector. This suggests the need for further research to investigate this issue in order to enhance this industry that has witnessed a rapid growth during recent years.

- There is a need to study the issues of training from the training managers' perspective, i.e. through the answer to this question: *How far is the preparation and design of the training programmes in accordance with the current plan and policy of the organisation and its strategy in the future?* Moreover, there is a need for conducting new studies to focus on training programmes that target the training managers and supervisors.

Finally, there is a need for studies to highlight the key factors related to the nature of work within the Libyan hotel sector. For example, culture, customs and traditions, to answer the question: *Why Libyan people, especially women do not prefer work in this sector?* This will help in identifying the real reasons behind this issue and to find an early resolution to them.

#### **9.4 Contributions of the research**

This study has made a number of important academic contributions to knowledge. It contributes towards a better understanding of the training issue within the hotel industry, with special reference to the hotel sector in Libya. It responds to the recommendations of a group of researchers, and to answer the fourth objective of this study: "to contribute to, and fill a gap in, the hospitality literature on training in developing and Arab countries in general, and in the Libyan context in particular". To reach this objective, through reviewing

the literature and discussion of the research findings, three gaps were identified, and the findings of this research have contributed to fill some of these gaps.

**The first gap:** lack of previous studies in the field of T&D practices and programmes in the Libyan organisations (e.g. Agnaia, 1996; Danis, 2006; Abukhabta & Alzawie, 2006), in the tourism and hotel industry in particular (Salih, 2005; Danis, 2006; Abuharris, 2007; Naama et al. 2008). Moreover, indeed other studies confirm this lack in the Arab world (Atiyyah, 1993; Abdalla & Al-Homoud, 1995; Al-Khayyat & Elgamal, 1997; Al-Ali, 1999; Weir et al., 2006), and other authors and researchers indicated this lack of studies in the hospitality industry world-wide (e.g. Tanke, 1990; Furunes; 2005; Lucas & Deery, 2004; Baum, 2002; Yang & Cherry, 2008; Lashley & Watson, 1999). Some of the previous studies were selected to show a number of elements associated with this gap:

**In Arab and Western countries:**

- Tanke (1990) described T&D as a neglected function in the hospitality sector as a whole, because many of the hospitality organisations have not paid adequate attention to well-planned, orientation and training programmes.
- The hospitality industry has one of the lowest training rates of any industry (Jameson, 2000), and thus (Maxwell et al., 2004) has a poor reputation for training.
- Furunes (2005) stated that the majority of HRM/HRD research undertaken does not include the hospitality sector;
- Lucas and Deery (2004) stated that the number of academics interested in the hospitality industry is relatively small compared with other industries;

- Baum (2002) pointed out that many issues need further attention to cope with on-going changes and developments in the business environment today, (training and education) is one of those issues, in both developing and developed countries.
- Yang and Cherry (2008), contemporary literature gives a considerable attention to three HRM issues (T&D, staff recruitment and selection, and service quality) as being critical in the hospitality industry world-wide, whether currently or in the future.
- Lashley & Watson (1999) argue that hospitality researchers should pay more attention to wider management debates based on hospitality industry needs in order to shape the generic literature in the longer term.
- HRM in hotels is still generally underdeveloped and lacking in sophistication and the empirical data related to this industry seem inadequate (Wood, 1992; Lucas, 2002).
- The hospitality industry has long been identified as lacking culture and sophistication in terms of employee T&D (Boella, 2000; Poulston, 2008).

### **In Libya:**

- Libya has sought to diversify its national economy, but the focus on the human element has largely been absent in the development equation (Agniai, 1997).
- Although most Libyans are very well educated, they are not always sufficiently well trained (Nageh, 2002).
- Due to the poor standards of education and training, a significant skill gap has occurred across almost all sectors and organisations of the Libyan economy, including the hotel sector (Porter & Yergin, 2006).

- T&D programmes in the tourism sector and particularly in the hotel sector are very limited and still remain insufficient and overdue because the Libyan government has only recently begun to focus on this area (Salih, 2005 ;Danis, 2006).

From the previously mentioned studies, it should be noted that the present study responds to the recommendations of some researchers (e.g. Boints, 2004; Agnaia, 1996), who have emphasised the need for more studies in the field of training in developing and Arab countries, while other researchers stated that there is a need to identify and emphasise the kind of HR policies and practices that are relevant for oil producing countries (Budhwar & Debrah, 2001). This research has made a contribution in this respect since T&D is one of the functions of HRM.

**The second gap:** the literature revealed another limitation of previous studies, which is considered as a methodological gap. Although these studies relied on the use of a quantitative or both quantitative and qualitative approach (Table 9.4), there is a lack of empirical evidence presented in these studies, which may justify the need for a deeper understanding of T&D practices and programmes, especially in the hospitality industry. This research has been conducted by using a mixed approach (quantitative and qualitative), and a case study strategy which has enabled an in-depth understanding of T&D practices and programmes through the participation of three different samples (training managers, trainees, and trainers) supported by documentary evidence. Each method was important in contributing additional insights. Therefore, this research is considered as the first to use this approach and provide a richer appreciation of T&D within an Arabic context.

**Table 9.4: List of previous studies related to T&D in the hospitality industry**

Title of Article or Thesis	Author & Date	Methodology	Location
Human Resource Development Issues for the Hotel Sector in Libya: A Government Perspective	Naama, et al. (2008)	Single case study - Qualitative approach (semi-structured interviews with hotel managers and academic staff)	Libya
Hospitality workplace problems and poor training: a close relationship	Poulston (2008)	Quantitative Survey (Self-completed questionnaires)	New Zealand
Skills and training in the hotel sector: The case of front office employment in Northern Ireland	Baum & Devine (2007)	A case study approach: A questionnaire survey to front office employees (four & five star hotels)	Northern Ireland
Training Paradox in the hotel industry	Furunes (2005)	A quantitative approach: Questionnaire survey (Hotel Managers)	Norway
Evaluating training programs: an exploratory study of transfer of learning onto the job at Hotel A and Hotel B	Putra (2004)	A case study approach	Australia
Human resource issues facing the hotel and travel industry in China	Zhang & Wu (2004)	Theoretical approach	China
Auditing managerial training needs of Turkish small and medium-sized hotel enterprises	Avcikurt (2003)	A quantitative approach: A self-administered questionnaire for hotel managers/owners	Turkey
Skills and training for the hospitality sector: a review of issues	Baum (2002)	A theoretical descriptive study	UK
Small business-Small minded? Training attitudes and needs of the tourism and hospitality industry	Becton & Graetz (2001)	A questionnaire survey send to 2690 small hospitality industry operators	Australia
The need for employee training in hotels in Thailand	Saibang & Schwindt (1998)	A questionnaire survey	Thailand

**The third gap: NHRD models fit Libya**

A significant contribution was added to the knowledge of NHRD in developing countries by conducting the study in the Libyan context. According to the recent study on the Libyan context conducted by Elfazani (2011), there are ten core characteristics in a ‘centralised transitional’ model that fit Libya, derived from the five models presented by Cho and

McLean (2004). These characteristics were shown in Chapter 4 Table 4.3, reproduced below as Table 9.5.

**Table 9.5: The emerging Libyan model of NHRD**

<b>NHRD Models</b>	<b>Core Characteristics</b>
Centralised transitional	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Top-down, state-driven approach to education</li> <li>- Major role of HRD is to coordinate HRD goals and initiatives to meet national political, social, and economic skill needs</li> <li>- HRD needs are part of the central planning of government</li> <li>- HRD policies typically linked to a multiyear, national development plan</li> <li>- Planning, implementation, and evaluation of HRD policy and strategy is the responsibility of multiple government departments</li> <li>- Loosening trade barriers to encourage international competition</li> <li>- HRD has significant role in developing internationally competitive workforce</li> <li>- Encouraging overseas experience of a selected group of individuals regarding international operations</li> <li>- Greater focus on language training especially English</li> <li>- Evaluation of HRD still done in terms of course approval and attendance as opposed to learning outcomes – i.e. meeting quotas as opposed to meeting identified needs</li> </ul>

Source: Elfazani (2011)

The present study found a number of new characteristics because the data of Table (9.5) came from a study conducted on the Banking sector, but this study was conducted on the hotel sector. However, the researcher found that most characteristics are in line with the current study. No evidence was found regarding: Encouraging overseas experience of a selected group of individuals regarding international operations. In respect of: Evaluation of HRD still done in terms of course approval and attendance as opposed to learning outcomes – i.e. meeting quotas as opposed to meeting identified needs, this research would substitute: loosening trade barriers to encourage international competition, HRD has significant role in

developing internationally competitive workforce and Evaluation of HRD done in terms of trainer reports as opposed to measuring relevance of content and meeting identified needs.

**Table 9.6: The proposed Libyan model of National HRD**

<b>NHRD Model</b>	<b>Core Characteristics</b>
Centralised transitional	- Top-down, state-driven approach to education
	- Major role of HRD is to coordinate HRD goals and initiatives to meet national political, social, and economic skill needs
	- HRD needs are part of the central planning of government
	- HRD policies typically linked to a multiyear, national development plan (e.g. LTMPs (1999-2018) and (2009-2025)).
	- Planning, implementation, and evaluation of HRD policy and strategy is the responsibility of multiple government departments
	- Greater focus on language training especially English
	- The country's economy depends heavily on foreign labour to perform several jobs in both public and private organisations.
	- Economic openness and encouragement of local and foreign investors to contribute in growing the national economy.
	- There is no clear mechanism for evaluating HRD programmes and determining transfer of training as presented in the ADITE model.
	- A large deficit in qualified local trainers, especially in training and development practices.
	- Organisations owned by the government (public sector) are the prevailing standard, but now a major policy shift towards shared ownership with the private sector.
	- Poor infrastructure and the absence of clear leadership from the public sector.
	- T&D programmes still remain insufficient and overdue because the Libyan government has only recently begun to focus on this area.
	- Instability in managerial structures of most organisations.
	- The training programmes provided do not meet the requirements of systematic training as outlined in the ADDIE/ADITE models.
- Evaluation of training programmes is very limited in its scope and does not extend beyond happiness sheets and certificating individual delegates.	
- No clear definition of HRM/HRD procedures, due to a lack of qualified people at management level, especially in training and development practice.	

Source: Prepared by the researcher

It is worth mentioning that the future of NHRD in Libya may be obscure to some extent during the next few years due to the recent political events that started in the middle of February 2011, but one looks forward to seeing how to apply the proposed model in the near future after the completion of these events, with the new construction phase of the country.

In addition to the three gaps above, there are a number of other academic contributions.

The study contributes to knowledge as being the first descriptive empirical study conducted into T&D in the Libyan hotel sector. Thus, it raises and improves the understanding of T&D current practices and programmes in the Libyan hotel sector and enriches and fills the gaps in the literature about T&D in Arab countries.

Because most previous studies are related to the research topic undertaken in different cultural contexts from the Libyan context (Chapter 1 and Table 9.4), this issue itself has represented another contribution to the literature. The findings have added to the existing training literature by extending a large amount of knowledge about training practices within the hospitality industry in a new culture, in one of developing Arab countries.

This study is a contribution to supporting continuing efforts to bridge the gap between academic knowledge and poor practices in training processes in the hotel industry globally, in the Arab world and in developing countries, and specifically in a country like Libya which has been described as a newcomer to tourism and hotel industry.

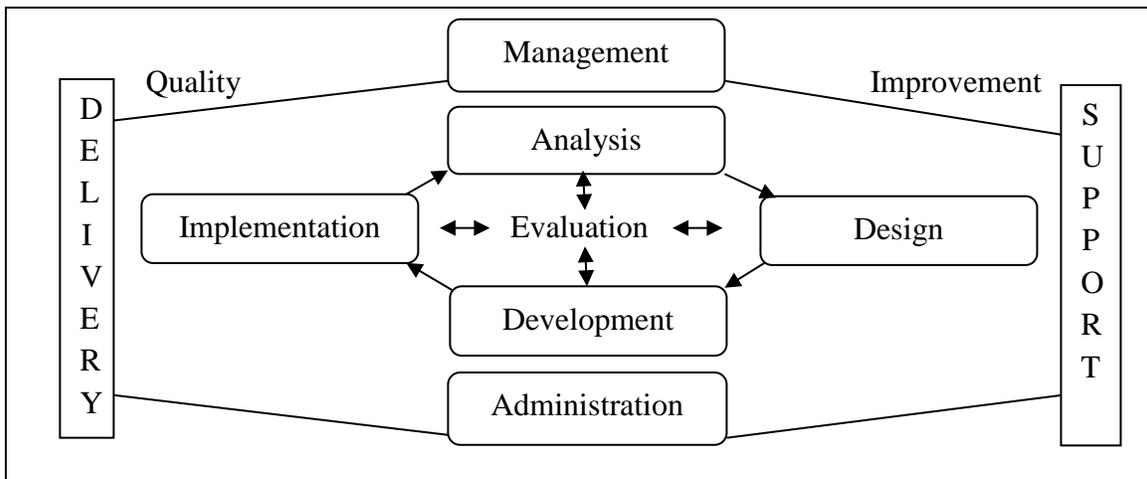
This study has made a contribution to knowledge by highlighting paradoxes that should be taken into account when studying the training issue in Arabic countries like Libya and then comparing them with the situation in developing and developed countries.

This study is considered to be one of the few empirical studies conducted in Libya, which makes it a key base for further research about training practices in order to develop the Libyan hotel industry, particularly in light of the economic openness that is witnessed in the country today.

The study contributes to the systematic training approach which has been discussed in Chapter Three (section 3.8). The revised ADDIE model presented by Allen (2006) was developed to ADITE model (see Chapter Three, Figure 3.5) as a good practice model for developing the training and evaluation in the Libyan hotel sector. It incorporated the phase of *training transfer to the workplace* which is one of the most important phases in evaluation elements (Pineda, 2010), as was discussed in section 3.7. The model (ADITE) was created by the researcher, to have general applicability. Not only does it help diagnose the current situation in the SSFIC; it could also be applied to other organisations that have similar characteristics both inside and outside Libya.

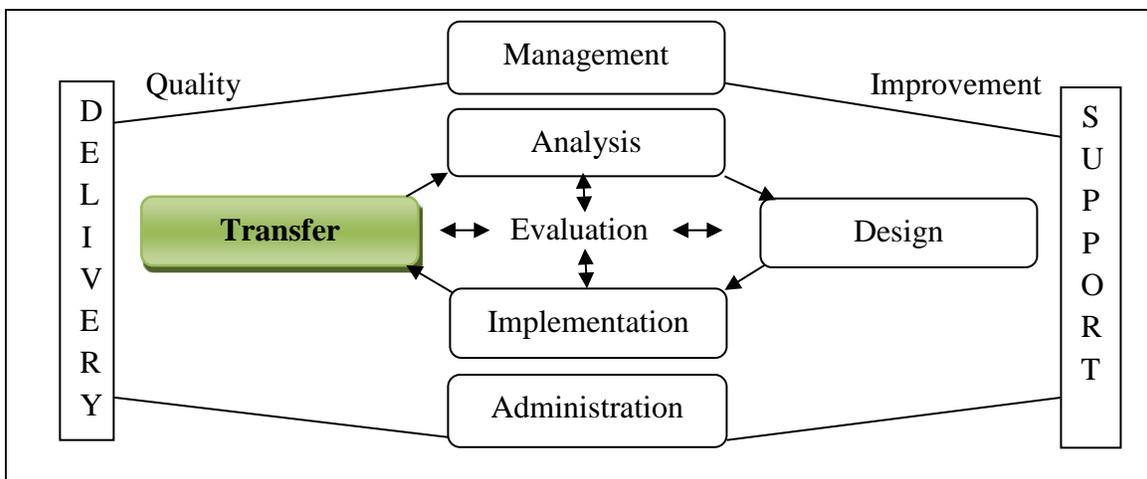
To illustrate the change made to the revised ADDIE model, derived from the study of Allen (2006), it is useful to re-display the model again here, which has been presented in figure (9.1) to clarify the new phase, which was added by the researcher to the systematic training cycle (see green box, figure 9.2)

**Figure 9.1: Revised ADDIE model – (Allen’s model, 2006)**



Source: Department of the US Air Force (2001, p.15), cited in Allen, 2006, p.438.

**Figure 9.2: Revised ADDIE model in the current study (ADITE model)**



Source: Prepared by the researcher

The revised model (ADITE) benefitted from the advantages of the original model (ADDIE) and largely avoided any potential over-complexity. In addition, the proposed framework for the study of training within the Libyan hotel sector explains the main phases of the training process, and is shown in Chapter Three, Figure (3.6). According to the existing literature regarding training in the public hotel sector in Arabic countries, no previous studies in this area have been conducted that include all the mentioned factors in one framework.

- This study is also positioned to be different to the previous studies (see Table 9.4) in terms of its selected sample in particular, where it targets three groups, trainees, trainers and training managers. In the Libyan context for example, it is different to the methodology study of Naama et al. (2008), who used a single case study and only a qualitative approach (semi-structured interviews with hotel managers and academic staff) – (see Table 9.4).

Moreover, the study has provided several major managerial contributions. The hospitality industry has one of the lowest training rates of any industry (Jameson, 2000), and thus (Maxwell et al., 2004) has a poor reputation for training, hence, it could, therefore, be argued that the current study has provided some contributions to management, especially for Arab and developing countries that have achieved only low levels of success from their training activities, especially in the hotel industry. Therefore, this study is considered a valuable contribution for those countries that are in need of more knowledge and useful guidelines that could enhance the success of training in general, and within the hotel sector in particular. Some other managerial contributions are summarised in the following points.

- Specifically, this study is an effort to highlight the problems and obstacles facing the SSFIC and its hotels in terms of training sessions provided. Moreover, development of employees' skills, knowledge and behaviour through training programmes was one of the major issues raised throughout this study.
- This study provides useful information concerning the Libyan hotel sector to many local and foreign parties (e.g. researchers, organisations, companies, and investors) who are interested in the tourism and hospitality industry. In addition, the study

reveals that the Libyan hotel sector needs to conduct more training sessions. These sessions could be designed and implemented by local training centres, or by foreign investors, due to a severe shortage of local trainers.

- The totality of these issues discussed in this research might be very useful to current and potential foreign investors who are interested in hotel industry activities in Libya or in other Arab countries, especially in the hotel sector in Libya, which is growing rapidly in recent years.

Finally, this study in terms of both method and content, hopes to be a stimulant for further studies examining the issues of training, functions and practices across the hotel sector, and more generally in hospitality and tourism. In addition, it could be an important contribution in other industries, regardless of the hotel industry in Libya.

### **9.5 Limitations of the study**

Every research study is limited by the constraints placed upon the researcher (Yin, 2003), and this research is no exception. Researchers are often unable to control all the influences that were likely to affect the quality of the research. The limitations of this study are summarised in the following points:

- 1- Lack of publications and studies on training practices in the public hotel sector in general, and in the Libyan context in particular.
- 2- The findings of this study cannot be generalised entirely to other public hotels, particularly the private sector, i.e. the generalisation of these findings is limited to the chosen cases (Yin, 2003).

- 3- Due to lack of time granted by the Department of Higher Education in Libya to accomplish this research, there was not a possibility to investigate all Libyan hotels and the private sector in particular.
- 4- The CBAH was selected as a small case to compare the training practices with the SSFIC's hotels, because when the research commenced in 2007 it was the only private sector hotel owned by a foreign investor in existence in the country. More recently, there are many foreign hotels under construction and they will be opened in the next few years.
- 5- It was not possible to obtain relevant documents from the case study organisation (CBAH) due to several reasons, for example, instability in the managerial structure of training department because during the field study in April/May 2009, the new Head of the Training Academy who was only commissioned to manage this section a few days previous was unable to provide complete information. Moreover, this function has become vacant since the end of 2010. This situation caused difficulty in obtaining full data about training, such as reports and statistics etc to compare it with SSFIC, in addition to other unknown reasons.
- 6- It proved quite difficult to arrange interviews with training managers in the SSFIC, and there were restrictions regarding the possibility to record these interviews due to cultural restrictions. This led to a major effort to listen, write notes and ask some questions at the same time. The notes then had to be summed up at home, which took a long time.
- 7- The pressures of work in the SSFIC's management and in most of its hotels have had a negative impact on the collection process of questionnaires in the expected time. Such

circumstances forced the researcher to visit most hotels (the Heads of Administrative Affairs) many times in order to collect the maximum number of questionnaires, while the distance between the residence of the researcher and these hotels is not close.

8- In broader methodological terms a significant array of limitations were encountered in the conduct of the study in terms of data collection – lack of openness of the company to allow full access to management, defensiveness of the senior management to criticism, general reluctance of trainees to openly criticise even though their anonymity was promised. This can be explained by the political climate in Libya. Additionally there was a war being conducted at the end of the study. This resulted in an inability to check data with respondents to confirm findings. It is worth emphasising here the importance in such circumstances of obtaining as much data as possible from as many sources as possible. A reliance on questionnaires would have resulted in a partial and distorted picture, with no possibility of checking or corroborating the validity of conclusions.

## **9.6 Conclusion**

This research project has highlighted the issue of training in the public hotel sector in the Libyan context, which has been taken as an example among developing countries in general, and Arab countries in particular. This thesis is an important contribution to the literature about training, specifically in the hotel industry, due to the scarcity of previous studies and to the fact that this industry needs further research on training at the global level. The current study has introduced a number of contributions to knowledge, and made several important findings that can be useful to the organisation selected in this study and to

other similar organisations, in order to enhance the effectiveness of their training programmes.

### **9.7 Personal reflection**

From a personal perspective this research is the fruit of four years of research into training and development practices in the Libyan hotel sector. This was a new field for me as my previous qualifications were in business administration. Not only has this study therefore expanded my knowledge in the training field in general; it has provided me with a tremendous opportunity to gain insights into training issues within Libyan hotels, and identify some core difficulties that face the hotel sector in Libya. I have also been able to develop new and unexplored areas that I find interesting, for example, development of the ADDIE model, and how NHRD models fit Libya. I have benefited from gathering information from several sources that were useful in developing and supporting the findings of the study, and consider it a major achievement to obtain so much data in difficult circumstances. Conducting a multi-method process has greatly contributed to my research knowledge and ability. I have also learned about the problems and limitations of undertaking field research – and in exceptional circumstances – and resultant issues of reliability and validity. What might I have done differently looking back given these problems? In retrospect I would do the same research but ideally add additional foreign hotels to the sample to provide a more realistic comparison. At the time, time constraints and problems of access led to this being discarded as an option.

Overall the study has also allowed the researcher to better understand the academic research process itself and the system of conducting and supervising research; experiences,

which I am eager to share with my Libyan colleagues and students when I return to my role as a faculty member of my university.

Finally, gaining a PhD in this field will undoubtedly open new doors for the researcher to help the new Libya's government; this means the researcher has the chance to discuss the development of the tourism and hotel industry in the light of his findings and recommendations and help make appropriate decisions.

## REFERENCES

Abdalla, I. A. & Al-Homoud, M. (1995). A survey of management training and development practices in the state of Kuwait. *Journal of management development*, 14(3), 14-25.

Abdul-Khalik, N. (1984). The bureaucracy in Kuwait. *Journal of the Gulf and Arabian Peninsula Studies*, 5(38), 13-63.

Abernathy, D. J. (1999). Thinking outside the evaluation box. *Training and Development*, 53, February, 18-23.

Abozed, M., Melaine, Y. & Saci., K. (2010). Motivation to Transfer Training in the Libyan Oil Industry: *Role of Work Environmental Factors and Organizational Culture*, 5th Annual Conference Liverpool "BEAN" 18th-19th May 2010. Liverpool John Moores University, School of the Built Environment.

Abubaker, A. (2007). Influence of core cultural values on the communication behaviour of staff in Libyan organisation, *ARECLS*, Volume 4. Available online at:  
<http://research.ncl.ac.uk/ARECLS/volume4.html>

Abuharris, A. T. (2007). An approach to a strategy for improving Libya's tourism industry. *International Tourism Biennial, Canakkale Onsekiz Mart University, School of Tourism & Hotel Management*.

Abukhabta. T. & Alzawie, H. (2006). Significance of tourist investment and impact of economical development. National conference about foreign investment in Libya, 29th April, 2-9.

Abusa, M., Argüello, M. & Ruddock, L. (2008). Benefits to Developing Countries of the Presence of Multinational Hotel Companies: A Case Study about Libya, *8th International Postgraduate Research Conference*: June 26th-27th 2008, University of Salford.

Abuzed, Z. (2002). Report on tourism problems presented to the Secretary of General Board for Tourism and Antiquities. Tripoli: Libya.

Acton, T. & Golden, W. (2003). Training the knowledge worker: a descriptive study of training practices in Irish software companies. *Journal of European Industrial Training*, 27(2/3/4), 137-146.

Agnaia, A, A. (1996). Assessment of management training needs and selection for training: the case of Libyan companies. *International Journal of Manpower*, 17(3), 31-51.

Agnaia, A, A. (1996a). Management training and development within its environment: the case of Libyan industrial companies. PhD thesis, University of Manchester.

Agnaia, A. (1997). Management training and development within its environment: the case of Libyan industrial companies. *Journal of European Industrial Training*, 21(3), 117-123.

Aguinas H and Kraiger K (2009), Benefits of training and development for individuals and teams, organisations and society, *Annual Review of Psychology* 60: 451-74

Agut, S., Grau, R. & Peiró, J.M. (2003). Individual and contextual influences on managerial competency needs. *Journal of Management Development*, 22(10), 906-918.

Alabani, H. (2009). A narrative approach to study the perspective of Libyan women leaders in senior positions on leadership crisis, *8<sup>th</sup> International Conference on Studying Leadership*, 7-8 December: University of Birmingham.

Al-Ali, A. (1999). Human resource development: training and development practices and related organisational factors in Kuwaiti organisations, PhD thesis, Bradford University.

Al-Ali, S. (1997). An assessment of on-job training programmes in Kuwait. *International Journal of Educational and Development*, 17(1), 83-90.

Al-Athari, A. (2000). The impact of multimedia based training on employee training effectiveness and organisational performance, PhD thesis, Bradford University.

Al-Athari, A. & Zairi, M. (2002). Training evaluation: An empirical study in Kuwait. *Journal of European Industrial Training*, 26(5), 241-251.

Albahussain, S. (2000). Human resource development: An investigation into the nature and extent of training and development in the Saudi private sector, PhD thesis, Bradford University.

Al-Faleh, M. (1987). Cultural Influences on Arab Management Development: A case study of Jordan. *Journal of Management Development*, 6(3), 19-33.

Al-Hamadi, A., Budhwar, S. & Shipton, H. (2007). Management of Human Resources, in Oman. *International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 18(1), 100-113.

Alhmali, R. J. (2007). Student attitudes in the context of the curriculum in Libyan education in middle and high schools, Unpublished PhD, Glasgow.

Al-Hawaat, A. (1999). The family and the work of woman; a study in the Libyan society, Tripoli: Libya.

Al-Khayyat, R. (1998). Training and development needs assessment: a practical model for partner institutes. *Journal of European Industrial Training*, 22(1), 18-27.

Allen, W. C. (2006). Overview and evolution of the ADDIE training system. *Advances in Developing Human Resources*, 8(4), 430-441.

Alliger, G. M. & Janak, E. A. (1989). Kirkpatrick's levels of training criteria: Thirty years later. *Personnel Psychology*, (42), 331-342.

Almhdie, A. & Nyambegera, M., S. (2004), HRM in Libya. In Kamoche, K, Debrah, Y, Horwitz, F. & Muuka, G, N. (Eds.), *Managing human resources in Africa*. Routledge: London. (169-182).

Alsouri, M. (2010). Developments of the investment situation in Libya. *Libyan newspaper (OEA)*. 03 January 2010.

Altarawneh, I. (2005). Training and development effectiveness: Practices, roles and impacts on performance in Jordanian banking organisations. Unpublished PhD thesis, Huddersfield University.

Alzouber, A. (2008). New procedures related to regulating the entry and exit and residence of foreigners in Libya and controls on non-national employment, *Alrased*, Jan 2008.

Amara, S. (2011). Performance auditing in the Libyan public sector, PhD thesis, University of Gloucestershire.

AME Info (2008), Nine Five-star Hotels Join Tourism Industry Emiratisation, available at: [www.ameinfo.com/152061.html](http://www.ameinfo.com/152061.html) (accessed July, 2011).

Analoui, F. (1999). Eight parameters of managerial effectiveness: A study of senior managers in Ghana. *Journal of Management Development*, 18(4), 362-389.

Angelo, R., M. & Vladimir, A., N. (1996). *Hospitality Today: An Introduction*, 2nd ed. Educational Institute of the American hotel and lodging association.

Armstrong, M. (2000). *Strategic Human Resource Management: A Guide to Action*, 2nd ed. Kogan Page: London.

Armstrong, M. (2003). *A handbook of human resource management practice*, 9th ed. Kogan Page: London.

Armstrong, M. (2001). *A handbook of human resource management practice*, 8th ed. Kogan Page: London.

Arthur Jr., W, Bennett Jr, W, Edens, P., S. & Bell, S, T. (2003). Effectiveness of training in organisations: A meta-analysis of design and evaluation features, *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 88(2), 234-245.

ASTD (1997). National HRD executive survey: measurement and evaluation. *American Society for Training and Development*, Alexandria, VA.

Aswathappa, K. (2007), Human resource and personnel management, 4<sup>th</sup> ed. 6<sup>th</sup> reprint, Delhi: Tata McGraw Hill

Atiyyah, H. (1993). Management development in Arab countries: The challenges of the 1990s, *Journal of management development*, 12(1), 3-12.

Au, A, K, Altman, Y. & Roussel, J. (2008). Employee training needs and perceived value of training in the Pearl River Delta of China: A human capital development approach. *Journal of European Industrial Training*, 32(1), 19-31.

Avcikurt, C. (2003). Auditing managerial training needs of Turkish small and medium-sized hotel enterprises. *Managerial Auditing Journal*, 18(5), 399-404.

Axtell, M., C, Maitlis, S. & Yearta, K., S. (1997). Predicting immediate and longer-term transfer of training. *Personnel Review*, 26(3), 201-213.

Baera, A., M. & Baera, A., A. (2007). No sustainable development without good governance, The conference for sustainable development in Libya, In Arabic.

Baldwin, T. T. & Ford, J. K. (1988). Transfer of training: A review and directions for future research. *Personnel Psychology*, 41(1), 63-105.

Banutu-Gomez, M. (2002). Leading and managing in developing countries: Challenge, growth and opportunities for twenty-first century organizations. *Cross Cultural Management*, 9(4), 29-41.

Barlow, L. (2006). Talent development: the new imperative?. *Development and Learning in Organizations*, 20(3), 6-9.

- Barrows, C, W. (2000). An exploratory study of food and beverage training in private clubs. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 12(3), 190-197.
- Bartlett, K.R. & Kang, D, S. (2004). Training in organisational commitment in response to industry and organisational change in New Zealand and the United States. *Human Resource Development International*, 7(4), 423-440.
- Baum, T. (2002). Skills and training for the hospitality sector: a review of issues. *Journal of Vocational Education and Training*, 54(3), 343-364.
- Baum, T, Amoah, V. & Spivack, S. (1997). Policy dimensions of human resource management in the tourism and hospitality industries. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 9(5/6), 221-229.
- Baum, T. & Devine, F. (2007). Skills and training in the hotel sector: The case of front office employment in Northern Ireland. *Tourism and Hospitality Research*, 7(3/4), 269-280.
- Baum, T. & Szivas, E. (2008). HRD in tourism: A role for government?. *Tourism Management*, 29(4), 783-794.
- Bayoud, M. R. (2000). Determination of the training needs and its role in improving training efficiency, Unpublished MSc thesis, University of Al-Jabal Al-Gharbi, Gharian: Libya.
- Beardwell, I. & Holden, L. (1997). *Human resource management: A contemporary perspective*, 2nd ed. Pitman Publish.
- Becton, S. & Graetz, B. (2001). Small business-Small minded? Training attitudes and needs of the tourism and hospitality industry. *International Journal of Tourism Research*, 3(2), 105-113.
- Bell, J. (1993). *Doing your research: A guide for first time researchers in education*, 2nd ed. Buckingham: Open University Press.

Berg, B. (2001). *Qualitative research methods for the social sciences*, 4th ed. Allyn& Bacon: London.

Berge, Z, L. (2008). Why it is so hard to evaluate training in the workplace. *Industrial and Commercial Training*, 40(7), 390-395.

Bernthal, P., R. (1995). Evaluation that goes the distance. *Training and Development Journal*, 49 (9), 41-45.

Bezweek, S. & Egbu, C. (2010). Impact of Information Technology in Facilitating Communication and Collaboration in Libyan Public Sector Organisations, Papers and postgraduate papers from the special track Held at the cib world building congress 2010, 10-13 May 2010. The Lowry, Salford Quays, UK.

Bhatti, M. & Kaur, S. (2010). The role of individual and training design factors on training transfer. *Journal of European Industrial Training*, 34(7), 656-672.

Birdi, K., S. (2005). No idea? Evaluating the effectiveness of creativity training. *Journal of European Industrial Training*, 29(2), 102-111.

Blaxter, L, Hughes, C. & Tight, M. (2006), *How to research*. 3rd ed. Maidenhead: Open University Press.

Boella, M. J. (2000). *Human resource management in the hospitality industry*, 7th ed. Stanley Thornes: Cheltenham.

Boella, M. J. (1992). *Human resource management in the hospitality industry*, 5th ed. Stanley Thornes, Avon.

Boints, N. (2004). National intellectual capital index: A United Nations Initiative for the Arab region. *Journal of Intellectual Capital*, 5(1), 13-39.

Bramley, P. (2003). *Evaluating training*, 2nd ed. Chartered Institute of Personnel and Development: London.

Bright, S. & Johnson, K. (1985). Training for Hospitality. *Journal of European Industrial Training*, 9(7), 27-31.

Brinkerhoff, R. (1981). Making evaluation more useful. *Training and Development Journal*, 35(12), 66-70.

British Council: Education (2008). Education Market intelligence: *Libyan Market Introduction*. Available at: <http://www.britishcouncil.org/eumd-information-background-libya.htm>

British Hospitality Association (2010). New hotel construction will continue into next decade.

British Hospitality Association (2011). Hospitality industry can create 475,000 jobs by 2020, but barriers to growth need to be removed.

Brotherton, B. (2008). *Researching hospitality and tourism: a student guide*, Sage: London.

Brownell, P. (1995). *Research methods in management accounting*, Coopers and Lybrand: Australia.

Bruce, B. (2006). Experts identify top 10 issues facing hospitality industry. *Public Record*, the, Dec 05-2006.

Bryman A and Bell E (2003), *Business research methods*, OUP: Oxford

Buckley, R. & Caple, J. (2004). *The Theory and Practice of Training*, 5th ed. Kogan Page: London.

Buckley, R. & Caple, J. (2009). *The Theory & Practice of Training*, 6th ed. Kogan Page: London.

Budhwar, P. & Debrah, Y.A. (2001). *Human resource management in developing countries*. Routledge: London.

Buick, I. & Muthu, G. (1997). An Investigation of the Current Practices of In-House Employee Training and Development within Hotels in Scotland. *The Service Industries Journal*, 17(4), 652-668.

Bunch, K.M. (2007), Training failure as a consequence of organisational culture, *Human Resource Development Review*, 6(2), 142-163

Burawoy 2003. Revisits: An outline of a theory of reflexive ethnography, *American Sociological Review*, 68(5), 645-679)

Burkat, A.J & Medlik, S. (1981). *Tourism, Past, Present, and Future*. Heinemann: London.

Business Monitor International (BMI, 2008). *The Libya Infrastructure Report 2008*. Available on: <http://www.businessmonitor.com/infra/libya.html>

Byrne, M. S. (1999). *The value of human resource development to an organisation; providing technical assistance to small manufacturing*, PhD thesis, Virginia University.

Cameron, K. S. & Quinn, R. E. (1999). *Diagnosing and changing organizational culture: Based on the competing values framework*. Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley.

Campbell, J. P. (1971). Personnel training and development. *Annual Review of Psychology*, 22(1), 265-602.

Carnevale, A. P. & Schutz, E. R. (1990). Evaluation practices. *Training and Development Journal*, 44(7), 23-29.

Carrell, M., Elbert, N. & Hatfield, R. (2000). *Human resource management: strategies for managing a diverse and global workforce*, 6th ed. Fort Worth, Tex. Dryden: London.

Central International Agency (CIA, 2008). *Libya* [online], Available at: <https://www.cia.gov/library/publications/the-world-factbook/geos/ly.html>. (accessed on 20th November 2008).

Chapados, T. J., Rentfrow, D. & Hochheiser, I. L. (1987). Four principles of training. *Training and Development Journal*, 41(12), 63-66.

Chell, E., Carmouche, R., & Pittaway, L. (1998). The way forward: Leadership research in the hospitality industry. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 17(4), 407-426.

Cheng, E. W., L. & Ho, D. C., K. (2001). The influence of job and career attitudes on learning motivation and transfer. *Career Development International*, 6(1), 20-28.

Cherrington, D. J. (1995). *The Management of Human Resources*, 4th ed. Prentice-Hall. Englewood Cliff: New Jersey.

Cho, E. & McLean, G. N. (2004). What We Discovered about NHRD and What it Means for HRD. *Advances in Developing Human Resources*, 6(3), 382-393.

Chris, W., Caroline, L. & Eli, D. (2008). The National Minimum Wage, Low Pay and the UK Hotel Industry. *Sociology*, 42(6), 1228-1236.

Clarke, N. (2002). Job/work environment factors influencing training transfer within a human service agency: Some indicative support for Baldwin and Ford's transfer climate construct. *International Journal of Training and Development*, 6(3), 146-162.

Cole, G., A. (1997). *Strategic management: theory and practice*, 2nd ed. Letts Educational: London.

Cole, G., A. (2002). *Personnel and human resource management*, 5th ed. Continuum. London. New York.

Collis, J. & Hussey, R. (2003). *Business research: a practical guide for undergraduate and postgraduate students*, 2nd ed. Basingstoke: Palgrave Macmillan.

Common, R. (2011). International trends in HRM in the public sector: reform attempts in the Republic of Georgia. *International Journal of Public Sector Management*, 24(5), 421-434.

Connolly, P &McGing, G. (2006). Graduate education and hospitality management in Ireland. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 18(1), 50-59.

Cooper, C, Fletcher, J, Fyall, A, Gilbert, D, & Wanhill, S. (2008). *Tourism: principles and practice*, 4th ed. FT Prentice Hall.

Cooper, C. & Westlake, J. (1989). Tourism teaching into the 1990s. *Tourism Management*, 10(1), 69-73.

Corinthia Bab Africa Hotels: *Employees Handbook*.

Corinthia Bab Africa Hotels: *Events AT Corinthia*.

Corinthia Hotels. Available at: <http://www.corinthiahotels.com/>

Corinthia Group of Companies. Available at:  
<http://www.corinthiacorporate.com/cphcl/content.aspx?id=143997>

Cox, J, Al Arkoubi, K. &Estrada, S. (2006). National Human Resource Development in Transitioning Societies in the Developing World: Morocco. *Advances in Developing Human Resources*, 8(1), 84-98.

Creswell, J. (2003). *Research design: qualitative, quantitative, and mixed methods approaches*, 2nd ed. Thousand Oaks, Calif.; Sage: London.

Crick, P, A. & Spencer, A. (2011). Hospitality quality: new directions and new challenges, *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 23(4), 463-478.

Crotty, M. (1998). *The foundations of social research: meaning and perspective in the research process*. Sage: London.

Cunningham, R. B. & Sarayrah, Y. K. (1993). *Wasta: The hidden force in Middle Eastern society*. Westport, CT: Praeger.

Czarniawska, B. & Joerges, B. (1996). Travels of ideas. In *Translating organizational change*, ed. B. Czarniawska and G. Sevon, 13–48. Berlin: Walter de Gruyter.

Danis, M., O. (2006). *The development of the tourism industry in Libya*, PhD thesis, University of Huddersfield.

Dearden, L., Reed, H. & Van Reenen, J. (2000). Who gains when workers train? Training and corporate productivity in a panel of British industries. Institute for Fiscal Studies: London.

Devadas, U. (2009). *National Human Resources Development: An Emerging Approach for the Development in the Developing World*. Available at: <http://www.wcyf2009.org/callforpaper/download.php?idx=158>.

Dirani, K. (2006). Exploring Socio-Cultural Factors that Influence HRD Practices in Lebanon. *Human Resource Development International*, 9(1), 85-98.

Doherty, L. (2004). Work-life balance initiative: Implications for women. *Employee Relations*, 26 (4), 433-452.

Easterby-Smith, M, Thorpe, R. & Lowe, A. (1991). *Management research: An introduction*, Sage: London.

Easterby-Smith, M, Thorpe, R. & Lowe, A. (2002). *Management research*, 2nd ed. Sage: London.

Elangovan, R.A. & Karakowsky, L. (1999). The role of trainee and environmental factors in transfer of training: an exploratory framework. *Leadership and Organisation Development Journal*, 20(5), 268-276.

El-Arbi, I.F. (2007). *Factors affecting overseas training in Libyan oil companies*, PhD thesis, University of Salford.

Elfazani, F. (2011). An investigation of training and development programmes in Libyan banking organisations: a case study approach, PhD thesis, University of Gloucestershire.

Elgamal, M.A. (2000). In search of an Arab model: Sources of Arab management practices, problems and development needs, in A. Al-Shamali and J. Denton (eds.) Arab business: The globalisation imperative, Kuwait: Arab Research Centre.

Elliott, J. (1997). Tourism: politics and public sector management, 1st ed. Routledge, London.

Enz, C. A., & Siguaw, J. A. (2000). Best practices in human resources. *Cornell Hotel and Restaurant Administration Quarterly*, 41(1), 48-61.

Esichaikul, R. (1996). Human resource development in the tourism sector in Thailand, PhD thesis, University of Strathclyde.

Esichaikul, R. & Baum, T. (1998). The case for government involvement in human resource development: A study of the Thai hotel industry. *Tourism Management*, 19(4), 359-370.

Faulkner, B. & Patiar, A. (1997). Workplace induced stress among operational staff in the hotel industry. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 16(1), 99-117.

Foot, M. & Hook, C. (2008) Introducing human resource management, 5th ed. Harlow: Financial Times Prentice Hall.

Forrest, Jr, C, L. (1990). Training for the hospitality industry, 2nd ed. East Lansing, Michigan: Educational Institute of the American Hotel & Motel Association.

Furunes, T. (2005). Training Paradox in the hotel industry. *Scandinavian Journal of Hospitality and Tourism*, 5(3), 231-248.

Gagne, R.M., Wager, W.W., Gola, K.C., & Keller, J.M. (2005). Principles of instructional design. Belmont, CA: Wadsworth/Thompson Learning.

Garavan, T., N. (1997). Training, development, education and learning: different or the same?. *Journal of European Industrial Training*, 21(2), 39-50.

Gilley, J.W., Eggland, S.A. & Gilley, A.M. (2002). Principles of Human Resource Development, 2nd ed. Cambridge, Mass.; Oxford: Perseus.

Goffee, R. & Jones, G. (1998). The Character of a Corporation: How Your Company's Culture Can Make or Break Your Business, Harper Business, London.

Goldsmith, A. & Zahari, M. (1994). Hospitality Education in Malaysia: Filling the skill gap. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 6(6), 27-31.

Goldstein, I., L. (2001). Training in organisations: needs assessment, development, and evaluation. 4th ed. Belmont, CA: Wadsworth.

Gomez-Mejia, L, Balkin, D. & Cardy, R. L. (2001). Managing human resources, 3rd ed. Upper Saddle River, N.J: Prentice Hall.

Goran, V., Bruno, Z., Blaz, R. & Gozdana, M. (2008). The training of civil servants in the Slovene state administration: issues in introducing training evaluation. *International Review of Administrative Sciences*, 74(4), 653-676.

Grant, J, Golawala, F.S. & McKechnie, D.S. (2007). The United Arab Emirates: The twenty-first century beckons. *Thunderbird International Business Review*, 49(4), 507-33.

Griffin, R. (2011). Workplace learning evaluation: a conceptual model and framework. *Industrial and Commercial Training*, 43(3), 172-178.

Guerrier, Y. (1999). Organisational Behaviour in Hotels and Restaurants: An International Perspective, John Wiley & Sons Ltd.

Hackett, P. (2003). Training practice, Chartered Institute of Personnel and Development: London.

Hakim, C. (1987). *Research design: strategies and choices in the design of social research*, Allen & Unwin: London.

Hales, C. & Nightingale, M. (1986). What are unit managers supposed to do? A contingent methodology for investigating managerial role requirements. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 5(1), 3-11.

Hammersley, M. (2009) The issue of quality in qualitative research, *International Journal of Research and Method in Education*, 30(3), 287-305

Handy, L.W. (2008). The importance of the work environment variables on the transfer of training, Unpublished PhD, University of North Carolina State, USA.

Hansson, B. (2007) Company-based determinants of training and the impact of training on company performance: Results from an international HRM survey, *Personnel Review*, 36(2), 311 - 331

Hartley, J. (1994). Case studies in organisational research. In Casell, C. & Symon, G. (1994). *Qualitative methods in organizational research*. Sage: London, 208-229.

Hashim, J. (2001). Training evaluation: Client's roles'. *Journal of European Industrial Training*, 25(7), 374-380.

Haven-Tang, C. & Jones, E. (2006). Human resource management in tourism businesses. In Beech, J. & Chadwick, S. (2006). *The business of tourism management*. Financial Times Prentice Hall.

Hawley, J. D. & Barnard, J. K. (2005). Work environment characteristics and implications for training transfer: A case study of the nuclear power industry. *Human Resource Development International*, 8(1), 65-80.

Hayajenh, A.F., Maghrabi, A.S. & Al-Dabbagh, T.H. (1994), Research: Assessing the effect on nepotism on human resource management. *International Journal of Manpower*, 15(1), 60-67.

Herschbach, R., D. (1997). Improving training quality in developing countries: Towards greater instructional efficiency. *International Journal of manpower*, 18(1/2), 90-118.

Hofstede, G. (1980). Dimension of national cultures in 50 countries and 3 regions. In Deregowski, J.B., Zrurawiec, S.D. and Annis, R. (eds.), *Expectations in Cross-cultural Psychology*. Lisse, Swets and Zeitlinger.

Hofstede, G. (1983). Dimension of national cultures in fifty countries and three regions, in Deregowski, J. B., Dziurawiec, S., and Annis, R. C., (Eds), *Explications in cross cultural psychology*, Swets and Zeitlinger, Lisse, The Netherlands.

Hofstede, G. (2001). *Culture's consequences: Comparing values, behaviors, institutions and organizations across nations*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.

Holloway, C. J. (2001) *The Business of Tourism*, 6th ed. Harlow: Financial Times Prentice Hall.

Holloway, J.C. & Taylor, N. (2006). *The Business of Tourism*, 7th ed. Prentice Hall.

Holton, E. & Baldwin, T. (2003). *Improving learning transfer in organisations*, 1st ed. Jossey Bass, A Wiley Imprint, USA.

Holton, E. & Naquin, S. (2003). Motivation to improve work through learning in human resource development. *Human Resource Development International*, 6(3), 335-370.

Holton, E. (2000). What's *really* wrong: Diagnosis for learning transfer system change. In *Managing and Changing Learning Transfer Systems*, Eds. Elwood F. Holton III, Timothy T. Baldwin & Sharon S Naquin (Eds.). *Advances in Developing Human Resources* 2(4), 7-22.

Huberman, A. M. & Miles, B. M. (2002). *The qualitative researcher's companion*, Sage: London.

Hussey, J. and Hussey, R. (1997). *Business research: a practical guide for undergraduate and postgraduate students*, Basingstoke: Macmillan Business.

Hutchings, K. & Weir, D. (2006). Understanding networking in China and the Arab World Lessons for international managers. *Journal of European Industrial Training*, 30(4), 272-290.

Hutchings, K. & Weir, D. (2006). Guanxi and Wasta: A comparison. *Thunderbird International Business Review*, 48(1), 141-156.

ILO (2001). *Human Resources Development, Employment and Globalization in the Hotel Catering and Tourism Sector*. International Labour Organisation: Geneva.

Ibrahim, N. S. E. (2004). *Women's employment in Egyptian Travel Agencies and factors influencing their career development*. Unpublished PhD thesis, University of Wales Institute, Cardiff.

Jacobs, R. (1990). Human resource development as an interdisciplinary body of knowledge. *Human Resource Development Quarterly*, 1(1), 65-71.

Jameson, S. M. (2000). Recruitment and training in small firms. *Journal of European Industrial Training*, 24(1), 43-49.

Jawad, R. (2005). Libya grapples with unemployment, BBC News, Tripoli, May 5.  
Available at: <http://news.bbc.co.uk/1/hi/world/africa/4515919.stm>

Jayawardena, C. (2001). Creating hospitality management educational programmes in developing countries. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*. 13(5), 259-266.

Jenkins, K. (1997). *An introduction to tourism*, Butterworth-Heinemann: Oxford.

Jithendran, K. & Baum, T. (2000). Human resource development and sustainability- the case of Indian tourism. *International Journal of Tourism Research*, 2(6), 403-421.

Jones, E. (2010). Tourism and the Great Socialist People's Libyan Arab Jamahiriya: *Presentation presented in the 2nd Libyan cultural Day in University of Cardiff*, February 18, 2010.

Jones, E. & Haven-Tang, C. (2005). *Tourism SMEs, Service Quality and Destination Competitiveness*. CABI: Wallingford, UK.

Jones, C, Thompson, P. & Nickson, D. (1998). Not part of the family? The limits to managing the corporate way in international hotel chains. *International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 9(6), 1048-1063.

Jwaili, M. (2006). The role of the marketing interface in the development of Libyan small and medium-sized tourist enterprises, PhD thesis, University of Glamorgan.

Jwaili, M. Thomas, B. & Jones, E. (2005). Small and medium-sized Libyan tourism enterprises and the National Tourism Development Plan for Libya. In: Jones Eleri & Haven-Tang C (Eds). *Tourism SMEs, Service Quality and Destination Competitiveness: International Perspectives*. Wallingford: CAB International.

Jwaili, M. & Jones, E. (2004). Small and medium-sized enterprises in the development of the Libyan Tourism Industry. Retrieved from Proceedings of Tourism State of the Art II.

Kalargyrou, V. & Woods, H., R. (2011). Wanted: training competencies for the twenty-first century. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 23(3), 361-376.

Kamoche, K, Debrah, Y, Horwitz, F. & Muuka, G, N. (2004). *Managing human resources in Africa*. Routledge: London.

Kassem, F, A. (2008). The impact of sales training on the internal marketing of hotel services. Unpublished MSc thesis, Postgraduate Studies Academy: Libya.

Kattara, H. (2005). Career challenges for female managers in Egyptian hotels. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 17(3), 238-251.

Khalifa, A. (2010). Destination Libya: Developing Libya as an Internationally - Competitive Tourism Destination, PhD thesis, University of Wales Institute, Cardiff.

King, C.A. (1995). Viewpoint: What is Hospitality?. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 14(3/4), 219-234.

Kirkpatrick, D. (1998). Evaluation training programmes: The four levels, 2nd ed. San Francisco, Calif.: Berrett-Koehler Publishers.

Kirkpatrick, D., L. & Kirkpatrick, J., D. (2005). Evaluating training programmes, 3rd ed. San Francisco: Berrett-Koehler.

Laird, D, Holton, E.W. III, Naquin, S.S. (2003), Approaches to training and development: 3rd ed. revised, Cambridge MA, Perseus Books Group

Lashley, C. (2004). The Benefits of Training for Business Performance. In: D'Annunzio-Green, N., Maxwell, G. and Watson, S. (Eds). Human resource management: international perspectives in tourism and hospitality. Thomson: London.

Lashley, C. & Best, W. (2002). Employee induction in licensed retail organisations. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 14(1), 6-13.

Lashley, C. & Watson, S. (1999). Researching Human Resources Management in the Hospitality Industry: The Need for a New Agenda?. *International Journal of Tourism and Hospitality Research*, 1(1), 19-40.

League of Arab States & United Nations Development Programme (2009) Development challenges for the Arab Region: A Human Development Approach, Vol.1, March 2009.

Lesliea, D. & Russellb, H. (2006). The importance of foreign language skills in the tourism sector: A comparative study of student perceptions in the UK and continental Europe. *Tourism Management*, 27(6), 1397-1407.

Libya Tourism Forums (LTFs). Retrieved September, 2006. From LTF:  
<http://www.tolibya.com/forum/viewtopic.php?p=164>

Libya online. Available at: <http://www.libyaonline.com/tourism/details.php?id=721>

Libyan Tourism Master Plan (LTMP, 1999-2018), The General People's Committee for Tourism, Tripoli: Libya.

Libyan Tourism Master Plan (LTMP, 2003-2018), The General People's Committee for Tourism, Tripoli: Libya.

Libyan Tourism Master Plan (LTMP, 2009-2025), Office of the University of Engineering Consulting, September 2009, Tripoli: Libya. Contemporary Hospitality

Li, L. & Leung, R. (2001). Female managers in Asianhotels: profile and career challenges. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 13(4), 189-96.

Lin, Y. & Jacobs, R, L. (2008). The perceptions of human resource development professionals in Taiwan regarding their working relationships with subject matter experts (SMEs) during the training design process. *Human Resource Development International*, 11(3), 237-252.

Lincoln, Y. S., &Guba, E. G. (1985).Naturalistic inquiry. Beverly Hills, CA: Sage Publications.

Lincoln, Y.S & Lynham, S. (2011). Human Resource Development International, 14(1), 3-22

Liu, A. & Wall, G. (2006). Planning tourism employment: a development country perspective. *Tourism Management*, 27(2006), 159-170.

Lowry, D. S., Simon, A. & Kimberley, N. (2002). Toward improved employment relations practices of casual associates in the New South Wales registered clubs industry. *Human Resource Development Quarterly*, 13(1), 53-70.

Lucas, R. (2002). Fragments of HRM in hospitality? Evidence from the 1998 workplace employee relations survey. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 14(5), 207-212.

Lucas, R. & Deery, M. (2004). Significant developments and emerging issues in human resource management. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 23(5), 459-472.

Lynham, A.S. & Cunningham, W.P. (2006). National Human Resource Development in Transitioning Societies in the Developing World: Concept and Challenges. *Advances in Developing Human Resources*, 8(1), 116-135.

Oppenheim, A. N. (1992). Questionnaire design, interviewing and attitude measurement, New ed. Pinter Publisher.

Otman, W. and Karlberg E. (2007). The Libyan Economy, Economic Diversification and International Repositioning, Springer.

Ottenbacher, M., Harrington, R. & Parsa, H. (2009). Defining the hospitality discipline: a discussion of pedagogical and research implications. *Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Research*, 33(3), 263-83.

Ozbilgin, M. & Healy, G. (2003). Don't mention the war: Middle Eastern careers in context. *Career Development International*, 8(7), 325-27.

Macky, K. & Johnson, G. (2000). The strategic management of human resources in New Zealand (Auckland: McGraw-Hill Book Company New Zealand Ltd). In: Furunes, T. (2005). Training Paradox in the hotel industry. *Scandinavian Journal of Hospitality and Tourism*, 5(3), 231-248.

Manpower Services Commission (1981). Glossary of Training Terms, HMSO: London.

Manyara, G. & Jones, E. (2005). Policy options for the development of an indigenous tourism SME sector in Kenya. In Jones, E. & Haven-Tang, C. (Eds.), *Tourism SMEs, service quality and destination competitiveness*. (59-72).

Marchington, M. & Wilkinson, A. (2008). *Human resource management at work, people management and development*, 4th ed. Chartered Institute of Personnel and Development: London.

Martin, M. (2007). Cross-border higher education: regulation, quality assurance and impact: Chile, Oman, Philippines and South Africa. *International Institute for Educational Planning*, Volume I, 5-331.

Marvell, P. (2009). The importance of training. *Third Sector*, 1st September, 35.

Mayfield, M. (2011). Creating training and development programs: using the ADDIE method. *Development and Learning in Organizations*, 25(3), 19-22.

Maxwell, J. A. (2005). *Qualitative research design: An interactive approach*. 2nd ed. Sage: London.

Maxwell, J.A. (2009) Designing a Qualitative Study, Chapter 7 in L.Bickman and D.J.Rog (eds.) *The Sage Handbook of Applied Social Research Methods*, pp214-251.

Maxwell, G, Watson, S. & Quail, S. (2004). Quality service in the international hotel sector: a catalyst for strategic human resource development?. *Journal of European Industrial Training*, 28(2-4), 159-182.

McGunnigle, J., P. & Jameson, M., S. (2000). HRM in UK hotels: a focus on commitment. *Employee Relations*, 22(4), 403-422.

McLean, G., N. (2004). National Human Resource Development: What in the World Is It?. *Advances in Developing Human Resources*, 6(3), 269-275.

Mendenhall, M. & Oddou, G. (1986). Acculturation profiles of expatriate managers: implications for cross-cultural training programs. *Columbia Journal of World Business*, 21(4), 73-9.

Mendonca, M. (2000). Human resource management in the emerging countries, *Regional Encyclopaedia of business and management: Management in the Emerging Countries*. London: Thomson Learning Business Press.

Mendonca, M. & Kanungo, R. (1996). Impact of culture on performance management in developing countries. *International Journal of Manpower*, 17(4/5), 65-75.

Merwe, D. & Wöcke, A. (2007). An investigation into responsible tourism practices in the South African hotel industry. *South African Journal of Business Management*, 38(2), 1-15.

Miller, J, Drummond, K. & Porter, M. (1998). Supervision in the hospitality industry. 3rd ed. Wiley, New York.

Miller, J. E, Walker, J. R. & Drummond, K. E. (2002). Supervision in the hospitality industry. 4th ed. John Wiley & Sons, Inc., Hoboken, New Jersey.

Mingers, J. & Gill, A. (1997). Multimethodology: the theory and practice of combining management science methodologies. Chichester: John Wiley & Sons.

Moore, S. (2005). A typology of approaches towards training in the south-east Wales hospitality industry. In Jones, E. & Haven-Tang, C. (Eds.), *Tourism SMEs, service quality and destination competitiveness*. (197-211).

Muller, H. (2001). Tourism and hospitality into the 21<sup>st</sup> century. In Lockwood, A. & Medlik, S. (Eds.), *Tourism and hospitality in the 21<sup>st</sup> century*. Oxford: Butterworth-Heinemann.

Mullins, L. (1993). The hotel and the open systems model of organisational analysis. *Service Industries Journal*, 13(1), 1-16.

Mullins, L. (1995). *Hospitality management: A human resources approach*, 2nd ed. Pitman: London.

Mullins, L. (1999). *Management and organisational behaviour*, 5th ed. Financial Times Management: London.

Naama, A. (2007). *Workforce analysis for the Libyan hotel sector: Stakeholder Perspectives*, PhD thesis, University of Wales Institute, Cardiff.

Naama, A, Havan-Tang, C. & Jones, E. (2008). Human Resource Development Issues for the Hotel Sector in Libya: A Government Perspective. *International Journal of Tourism Research*, 10 (5), 481-492.

Nageh, H. (2002). *Doing business with Libya*, Kogan Page: London.

National Human Development Report. (2003). *Achieving excellence in NHDRs*, Workshop for the Arab world, Cairo, Egypt.

Neuman, W. L. (2006). *Social Research Methods: Qualitative and Quantitative Approaches*, 6th ed. Allyn and Bacon: Boston, Mass.

Neuman, W. L. (1994). *Social Research Methods: Qualitative and Quantitative Approaches*, Allyn and Bacon: Boston.

Nickson, D. (2006). *Human Resource Management for the hospitality and tourism industries*, Butterworth-Heinemann: Oxford.

Nickson, D., Baum, T. G., Losekoot, E., Morrison, A. J. & Frochot, I. (2002). *Skills, organisational performance and economic activity in the hospitality industry: a literature review*, 5th ed. Universities of Oxford and Warwick, SKOPE: Economic and Social Research Council Centre for Skills, Knowledge and Organisational Performance.

Noe, R. (1999). *Employee training and development*. Irwin, McGraw-Hill.

Noe, R. (2005). *Employee training and development*, 3rd ed. Boston: McGraw-Hill, Irwin.

- Noe, R. (2008). *Employee Training and Development*, 4th ed. McGraw-Hill: New York.
- Nolan, C. (2002). Human resource development in the Irish hotel industry: the case of the small firm. *Journal of European Industrial Training*, 26(2/3/4), 88-99.
- Page, S., J. (2007). *Tourism Management: managing for change*, 2nd ed. Butterworth-Heinemann: Oxford.
- Page, S., J. & Connell, J. (2006). *Tourism a modern synthesis*, 2nd ed. Thomson Learning: London.
- Paprock, E. K. (2006). Overview National Human Resource Development in Transitioning Societies in the Developing World: Introductory. *Advances in Developing Human Resources*, 8(1), 12-27.
- Patterson, K., S. (2007). Report on Wilton Park Conference: *Working with Libya today: International and economic relations - perspectives for change*, 1-13.
- Patton, M.Q. (2002). *Qualitative research & evaluation methods*, 3rd ed. Sage: London.
- Paulin, W, Coffy, R. & Spaulding, M. (1982). Entrepreneurship research: methods and directions, an encyclopedia of entrepreneurship, 352-373, Calvin.
- Pearce, I. D. (1995). *The assessment and evaluation of training: a practical guide*. Technical Communications Ltd. England.
- People 1st. (2010). *The case for change: Women working in hospitality, leisure, travel and tourism*, available at:  
[http://www.people1st.co.uk/webfiles/Business%20and%20Training%20Support/Women%201st/Women\\_1st\\_Case\\_For\\_Change\\_Executive\\_Summary\\_November\\_2010.pdf](http://www.people1st.co.uk/webfiles/Business%20and%20Training%20Support/Women%201st/Women_1st_Case_For_Change_Executive_Summary_November_2010.pdf)  
(accessed August, 2011).

Perdue, J, Nanemaier, J. D. & Woods, R.H. (2002). Training methods for specific objectives: Preferences of managers in private clubs. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 14(3), 114-119.

Peteraf, M. & Bergen, M. (2003). Scanning Dynamic Competitive Landscapes: a market based and resource-based framework. *Strategic Management Journal*, 24(10), 1027-1041.

Pfeffer, J, Veiga, J.F, Hatano, T. & Santalainen, T. (1995). Producing sustainable competitive advantage through the effective management of people. *The Academy of Management Executive*, 9(1), 55-62.

Pfeffer, J. & Veiga, J.F. (1999). Putting people first for organisational success. *The Academy of Management Executive*, 13(2), 37-48.

Pilbeam, S. & Corbridge, M. (2002). People resourcing: HRM in practice. 2nd ed. Financial Times Prentice Hall: Harlow.

Pinara, M., McCuddy, M., Birkanb, I. & Kozakc, M. (2011). Gender diversity in the hospitality industry: An empirical study in Turkey. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 30(1), 73-81.

Pine, R. (1992). Technology transfer in the hotel industry. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 11(1), 3-22.

Pineda, P. (2010). Evaluation of training in organisations: a proposal for an integrated model. *Journal of European Industrial Training*, 34(7), 673-693.

Pizam, A. & Tesone, D, V. (2005). The utilization of human resources in tourism SMEs: a comparison between Mexico and central Florida. In Jones, E. & Haven-Tang, C. (Eds.), *Tourism SMEs, service quality and destination competitiveness*. (213-226).

Pont, T. (1995). Investing in training and development: turning interest into Capital, Kogan Page: London.

- Porter, M. E. & Yergin, D. (2006). National Economic Strategy: An Assessment of the Competitiveness of the Libyan Arab Jamahiriya. *The General Planning Council of Libya*.
- Poulston, J. (2008). Hospitality workplace problems and poor training: a close relationship. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 20(4), 412-427.
- Pratten, J. D. (2003). The training and retention of chefs. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 15(4), 237-242.
- Price, A. (2007). Human Resource Management in a Business Context. 3rd ed. Thomson: London.
- Prior, J. (1994). Handbook of training and development. 2nd ed. Aldershot: Gower, in association with the Institute of Training and Development, UK.
- Pugh, D. S., Hickson, D.J. & Hinings, C.R. (1969). The Context of Organization Structures. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 14(1), 91-114.
- Punch, K.F. (2006). Developing effective research proposals, 2nd ed. Sage: London.
- Purcell, K. (1996). The relationship between career and job opportunities: women's employment in the hospitality industry as a microcosm of women's employment. *Women in Management Review*, 11(5), 17-24.
- Putra, A. (2003). Evaluating training programmes for front line associates in the hotel sector in Sydney: Demonstrating Kirkpatrick's model, PhD thesis, University of Western Sydney. Australia.
- Putra, A. (2004). Evaluating training programs: an exploratory study of transfer of learning onto the job at Hotel A and Hotel B, Sydney, Australia. *Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Management*, 11(1), 77-87.
- Ramos, V, Rey-Maqueira, J. & Tugores, M. (2004). The role of training in changing an economy specializing in tourism. *International Journal of Manpower*, 25(1), 55-72.

Reid, M., A. & Barrington, H. (1999). Training interventions: promoting learning opportunities, 6th ed. Institute of Personnel and Development: London.

Reid, M., A. & Barrington, H. (1997). Training interventions: managing employee development, 5th ed. Institute of Personnel and Development: London.

Remenyi, D, Williams, B, Money, A. & Swartz, E. (1998). Doing research in business and management: An introduction to process and method, Sage: London.

*Reuters Africa (2009), Libya's jobless rate at 20.7%: Report, March 2 af.reuters.com > [Home](#) > [Investing](#).*

Richard, O.C. & Johnson, N.B. (2001). Strategic human resource management effectiveness and firm performance. *International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 12(2), 299-310.

Richter, L. (1985). Policy choices in south Asian tourism development. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 12(2), 201-217.

Riley, M. (1996). Human resource management in the hospitality and tourism industry, 2nd ed. Oxford: Butterworth-Heinemann.

Robinson, K. (1988). A handbook of training management, 2nd ed. Kogan Page: London.

Robinson, I. (2006). Human resource management in organisations: the theory and practice of high performance. Chartered Institute of Personnel and Development: London.

Robson, C. (2002). Real world research, a resource for social scientists and practitioner researchers, 2nd ed. Blackwell: Oxford.

Rowold, J. (2008). Multiple effects of human resource development interventions. *Journal of European Industrial Training*, 32(1), 32-44.

Sackett, P.R. & Mullen, E.J. (1993). Beyond formal experimental design: Towards an expanded view of the training evaluation process. *Journal of Personnel Psychology*, 46(3), 613-627.

Sadi, M. and Henderson, J. (2005). Local versus Foreign Workers in the Hospitality and Tourism Industry: A Saudi Arabian Perspective. *Cornell hotel and restaurant administration quarterly*, 46(2), 247-257.

Salih, M. S. (2005). The role of Commercial Banks in financing tourism development, Unpublished MSc thesis, Postgraduate Studies Academy: Libya.

Saibang, P. & Schwindt, R. C. (1998). The need for employee training in hotels in Thailand. *International Journal of Training and Development*, 2(3), 205-214.

Santos, A. & Stuart, M. (2003). Employee perceptions and their influence on training effectiveness. *Human Resource Management Journal*, 13(1), 27-45.

Sarah, D. (1994). The missing link: evaluation training programmes. *Supervision*, 55(11), 10-12.

Saunders, M, Lewis, P. & Thornhill, A. (2007). Research methods for business students, 4th ed. London: FT Prentice Hall.

Saunders, M, Lewis, P. & Thornhill, A. (2003). Research methods for business students, 3th ed. Harlow: Financial Times/Prentice Hall.

Schein, E. (2004). Organizational culture and leadership, 3rd ed. Jossey-Bass: San Francisco.

Sekaran, U. (2003). Research methods for business: a skill-building approach, 4th ed. Wiley: New York.

Sels, L. (2002), More is not necessarily better: the relationship between the quantity and quality of training efforts, *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 13(8), 1279-1298.

Sharpley, R., & Telfer, D. (2002). *Tourism and Development, Concepts and Issues*, channel view publications.

Silverman, D. (2010). *Doing qualitative research: a practical hand book*, 3rd ed. Sage: London.

Singh, S. (1997). Developing HR for the tourism industry with reference to India. *Tourism Management*, 18(5), 299-306.

Sloman, M. (1999). *A handbook for training strategy*, 2nd ed, Aldershot: Gower.

Smith, A. & Hayton, G. (1999). What drives enterprise training? Evidence from Australia. *International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 10(2), 251-271.

Smith, E. (2002). Training equals staff loyalty at Paramount. *Training and Management Development Methods*, 16(1), 401-403.

Smith, P.B., Misumi, J., Peterson, M., and Tayeb, M.H. (1989), The cultural context of leadership action: A cross cultural analysis, in J. Davis, M. Easterby-Smith, S. Mann, and M. Tanton (eds.) *The challenges of Western management development: International alternative*, London: Poutledge.

Social Security Fund Investments (SSFI): Available at: <http://www.ssfi.ly/arabic/index.html>

Social Security Fund Investments (SSFI, 2008): *Human resources and training*. Available at: <http://www.ssfi.ly/arabic/traning.html>

Social Security Fund Investments (SSFI, 2010). Expenditures of training, *Financial Department*.

Social Security Fund Investments (SSFI, 2009). Report 2008.

Social Security Fund Investments (SSFI, 2009). The General Strategic Plan (GSP, 2008-2012).

Social Security Fund Investments (SSFI, 2008). Training programmes of 2007-08.

Social Security Fund Investments (SSFI, 2009). Training Plan of 2009.

Spillane, J, J. (2001). The Christian humanisation of work-job satisfaction in the hospitality industry. *Review of business*, 22(3), 16-23.

Stavrou-Costea, E. (2005). The challenges of human resource management towards organisational effectiveness: A comparative study in southern EU. *Journal of European Industrial Training*, 29(2), 112-134.

Stevens, J. & Walsh, T. (1991). Training and competitiveness, in Stevens, J. & Mackay, R. (Eds) Training and competitiveness, Kogan Page in association with the National Economic Development Office: London. 25-58.

Stolovitch, H, D. (2007). The story of training transfer, *Talent Management Magazine*, September, available at:

<http://www.talentmgt.com/columnists/human-peformance/2007/September/419/index.php>

Stone, R. J. (2005). Human resource management, 5th ed. Milton: John Wiley and Sons Australia, Ltd.

Storey, J. (1992). Development in the Management of Human Resource: An Analytical Review, Blackwell: Oxford.

Sudani, M. (2010). The Head of Administrative Affairs of Bab-Bahur Hotel, Libya: Tripoli. Personal communication via telephone, on 9th December 2010.

Sue, B. & Brian, G. (2001). Small business - small minded? Training attitudes and needs of the tourism and hospitality industry. *International Journal of Tourism Research*, 3(2), 105-113.

Swanson, R., A. (1995). Human resource development: performance is the key. *Human Resource Development Quarterly*, 6(2), 207-213.

Swanson, R. A., & Holton, E. F. (2001). Foundations of human resource development. Berrett-Koehler: San Francisco.

Tan H. & Batra, G. (1996). Enterprise training in developing countries, World Bank, Washington, D.C.

Tanke, L. M. (2001). Human resource management for the hospitality industry, 2nd ed. Delmar, Thomson Learning.

Tannenbaum, S.I. & Yukl, G. (1992). Training and development in work organisations. *Annual Review of Psychology*, 43(1), 399-441.

Taylor, M. S. & Berger, F. (2000). Hotel managers' executive education in Japan. *Cornell Hotel and Restaurant Administration Quarterly*, 41(4), 84-93.

Taylor, P.J., O'Driscoll, M.P., & Binning, J.F. (1998). A New Integrated Framework for Training Needs Analysis. *Human Resource Management Journal*, 8(2), 29-51.

Taylor, S.J. & Bogdan, R. (1984). Introduction to qualitative research methods: the research for meaning, 2nd ed. New York; Chichester: Wiley.

Thang, N. N., Quang, T. & Buyens, D. (2010). The relationship between training and firm performance: A literature review, *Research and Practice in Human Resource Management*, 18(1), 28-45.

The Department of Labour and Vocational Training (DLVT). Available at:  
<http://www.smpt.gov.ly/>

The General Board of Tourism and Traditional Industries (GBTTI, 2008)

The General Board of Tourism and Traditional Industries (GBTTI, 2009)

The General Board of Tourism and Traditional Industries (GBTTI, 2009). Law NO. (7) of 2004 regarding Tourism: Article one.

Thomas , R . & Long , J . (2001). Tourism and Economic Regeneration: The role of skills development. *International Journal of Tourism Research*, 3(3), 229-240.

Torrington, D. and Hall, L. (1991). Personnel management: A new approach, 2nd ed. New York; London: Prentice-Hall.

Tregaskis, O. & Brewster, C. (1998). Training and development in the UK context: an emerging polarisation?. *Journal of European Industrial Training*, 22(4/5), 180-189.

Trochim, W.M. (2006). The research methods data base, Retrieved July 2010 <http://www.socialresearchmethods.net/kb/samprnon.php>

Tung, R. (1981). Selection and training of personnel for overseas assignments. *Columbia Journal of World Business*, 16(1), 68-78.

Twati, J. M., and Gammack, J.G. (2006). The Impact of Organizational Culture Innovation on the Adoption of IS/IT: the Case of Libya. *Journal of Enterprise Information Management*, 19(2), 175-191.

Tyson, S. (2006). Essentials of human resource management, 5th ed. Butterworth-Heinemann: Oxford.

UK Trade & Investment. (UKTI, 2009). Doing business in Libya. Available at: [http://www.secbe.org.uk/documents/doing\\_business\\_in\\_libya\\_guide2.pdf](http://www.secbe.org.uk/documents/doing_business_in_libya_guide2.pdf)

United Nations Development programme (1994). Report of reconnaissance mission of management reform in Libya.

U.S. Commercial Service (2008). *Doing Business in Libya: Country Commercial Guide for U.S. Companies*.

U.S. Department of State. (2011). 2011 Investment Climate Statement – Libya, available at: <http://www.state.gov/e/eeb/rls/othr/ics/2011/157312.htm> (accessed September, 2011).

Veal, J.A. (2006). *Research Methods for Leisure and Tourism*, 3rd ed. New York: Financial Times, Prentice Hall.

Velada, R., Caetano, A., Michel, J.W., Lyons, B.D. & Kavanagh, M.J. (2007). The effects of training design, individual characteristics, and work environment on transfer of training. *International Journal of Training and Development*, 11(4), 282-94.

Vermeulen, R. C., M. (2002). Narrowing the transfer gap: the advantages of “as if” situations in training. *Journal of European Industrial Training*, 26(8), 366-374.

Vimpany, J, Rossiter, P, Crimes, B. & White, R. (2009). *Education and training in the tourism sector: Report of a special mission to Libya*, January 2009. Available at: <http://www.google.co.uk/search?hl=en&q=REPORT+OF+A+SPECIAL+MISSION+TO+LIBYA+%2C2009&meta=>

Wall, G. & Mathieson, A. (2006). *Tourism, Change, Impacts and opportunities*. Pearson Prentice Hall, England.

Walmsley, A. (2004). Assessing staff turnover: A view from the English Riviera. *International Journal of Tourism Research*, 6(4), 275-287.

Walton, J. (1999). *Strategic Human Resource Development*, Financial Times Prentice Hall: London.

Wang, G. (2008). National HRD: a new paradigm or reinvention of the wheel?. *Journal of European Industrial Training*, 32(4), 303-316.

Wang, Y. (2008). An Investigation of Training and Development Practices in Three Selected Chinese Destinations, PhD thesis, Leeds Metropolitan University.

Wathum, O. P. (2002). Community Development: Education and Training for Change and Localisation. Canada: the University of Brith Columbia.

Warhurst, C, Lloyd, C. & Dutton, E. (2008). The National Minimum Wage, Low Pay and the UK Hotel Industry, *Sociology*, 42(6), pp. 1228-1236.

Watson, S. & Brotherton, B. (1996). Hospitality Management: minimising conflict-maximising potential. *Management Development Review*, 9(4), 13-22.

Weinberger, L. A. (1998). Commonly held theories in HRD. *Human Resource Development International*, 1(1), 75-93.

Weir, D. (2003). Human resource development in the Arab Middle East: A 'fourth' paradigm. In Lee, M. (Ed.) HRD in a Complex World, pp. 69-82.

Weir, D, Mahfod, J. & Armstrong, S. (2006). Management training and development in the context of human resource management in Libya. CERAM Sophia Antipolis, Working Papers, 2006, Volume 1.

Whitely, B.E. (1996). Principles of research in behavioural science, Mayfield Publishing CO: London.

Wikipedia (2010). Districts of Libya. Available at:  
[http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Libya#Administrative\\_divisions](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Libya#Administrative_divisions)

Wilkins, S. (2001). Human resource development through vocational education in the United Arab Emirates: the case of Dubai polytechnic. *Journal of Vocational Education and Training*, 54(1), 1-26.

Williams, G. (1976). The validity of methods of evaluating learning. *Journal of European Industrial Training*, 5(1), 12-20.

Wills, M. (1994). Managing the training process: Putting the basics into practice. *Journal of European Industrial Training*, 18(6), 4-28.

Wilson, M, D, J, Murray, A, E, Black, M, A. & McDowell, D, A. (1998). Training and education in Contract Catering Management. *Journal of European Industrial Training*, 22(2), 73-81.

Wood, R.C. (1997). *Working in hotels and catering*, 2nd ed. Thomson Learning: London.

World Tourism Organisation (WTO). Demand remains firm despite uncertainties. Retrieved June, 2008. 6 (2), from WTO:

[http://www.world-tourism.org/facts/eng/pdf/barometer/UNWTO\\_Barom08\\_2\\_en\\_LR.pdf](http://www.world-tourism.org/facts/eng/pdf/barometer/UNWTO_Barom08_2_en_LR.pdf)

World Tourism Organisation (WTO). Inbound Tourism: short-term data. Retrieved June, 2007. 5 (2), from WTO:

[http://www.world-tourism.org/fact/eng/pdf/barometer/unwto\\_barom07\\_2\\_en.pdf](http://www.world-tourism.org/fact/eng/pdf/barometer/unwto_barom07_2_en.pdf)

World Travel & Tourism Council (WTTC, 2003)

Yamnill, S. & McLean, G. (2005). Factors Affecting Transfer of Training in Thailand. *Human Resource Development Quarterly*, 16(3), 323-344.

Yang, H. (2007). Human resource management in the hotel industry in Taiwan, PhD thesis, Institution Swinburne University of Technology.

Yang, H. & Cherry, N. (2008). Human Resource Management: Challenges in the Hotel Industry in Taiwan. *Asia Pacific Journal of Tourism Research*, 13(4), 399-410.

Yang, H. & Fu, H. (2009). Contemporary human resource management issues and concerns in the hotel industry: identifying the priorities. *International Journal of Organizational Innovation*, 2(1), 201-224.

Yin, R., K. (2003a). *Case study research: Design and methods*, 3rd ed. London: Sage Publications

Yin, R., K. (2003b). Applications of case study research, London: Sage Publications:.

Yin, R.K.(2011) Quality research from start to finish, NY: The Guildford Press

Youell, R. (1998). Tourism: an introduction. Harlow: Longman.

Zhang, H., Q. & Wu, E. (2004). Human resource issues facing the hotel and travel industry in China. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 16(7), 424-428.

Zhou, J. L. (1991). A current look at hospitality and tourism education in China's colleges and universities. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 10(4), 357-367.

## APPENDICES

### Appendix (1) Survey questionnaire (English Version)

#### Part (a) Training managers

1/ Are there specific objectives for the training programmes?

Yes  Sometimes  No

2/ Are there any training courses taking place outside the hotel?

Yes  No

3/ Is there a Training Policy in the hotel?

Yes  No

If yes:

a) Who planned it?

- Training Management
- Department of human resource management
- Top management authority
- Don't know
- Others, please specify: .....

b) The training plan is:

Monthly  3 Months  6 Months  Yearly  Do not know

c) Is there a criterion for the plan?

Yes  No  Do not know

If yes, please specify:.....

d) Do you think the training plans need to change?

Yes  No

If yes, please mention the reasons:.....

4/ What are the main objectives that you are usually looking to achieve through the implementation of such training programmes? (Please specify the objectives in order of importance)

- A better understanding of the employee
- A greater ability to communicate with others
- Improve the service quality
- Improve the performance levels
- New knowledge and skills
- Reduce the turnover of staff
- Other: .....

5/ To what extent have the objectives of the training programmes been achieved?

- Fully achieved
- More than 80% achieved
- More than 50% achieved
- Less than 50% achieved
- Not achieved at all

If the objectives were not fully achieved, what were the main reasons: .....

6/ Do you have a method that you adopt in the evaluation of training for trainees?

If so, what is the basis of this? .....

7/ Are there specific objectives for conducting the evaluation process?

Yes  Sometimes  No

If yes – please mention: .....

8/ What is the source of your information that you have used when implementing methods of training evaluation for trainees? .....

9/ What are the means of communication on the evaluation of training between you and other departments of the company and its hotels?

- Sending letters
- Regular meetings with managers' departments

- Personal communication
- Others, please specify: .....

10/ How much cooperation do you receive from departments about the evaluation of training programmes?

- Excellent cooperation
- Good cooperation
- Cooperation to some extent
- Lack of cooperation
- No cooperation

If the answer is “Lack or No cooperation” please specify why this might be so: .....

11/ What are the methods of training that are adopted in the implementation of training programmes?

Lecture                       Discussion                       Case study

Other – please specify: .....

12/ Is there a specific time for the evaluation of training programmes?

Yes                       No

If yes – when is this done? .....

13/ Does the company or the hotel grants incentives to the trainees after the end of session?

Yes                       Sometimes                       No

If yes, please specify: .....

14/ Does the company face some difficulties during the evaluation of its training programmes?

Always                       Sometimes                       Rarely                       Never

If always or sometimes, please give examples: .....

15/ If you have any comments or notes on the evaluation of training programmes, are not included in this questionnaire, please feel free to mention them here: .....

**Part (b) Trainees**

1/ Gender: Male  Female

2/ What is your current job? .....

3/ How long have you worked in this hotel?

Less than 1 year  1-3 years  3-6 years  More than 6 years

4/ Are you Libyan or non-Libyan? Libyan  Non-Libyan

If you are non-Libyan, please mention your country: .....

5/ What training courses have you attended during the last three years of your work or since you have joined the hotel?

Title of course	Place of course	Date & Year

6/ Your choice of these training courses was according to:

- Your desire
- A study of training needs
- An instruction from your manager
- Top management
- Training management
- Some other reason, please specify.....

7/ Were you told in good time about the details of the course (e.g. objectives, content, and location) before the session?

Time was adequate  Time was short  Time was inadequate

8/ Are there any training courses taking place outside the hotel?

Yes  No

9/Did you think that the number of participants on the course was:

Too many  Very appropriate  Appropriate to a certain extent  Too few

10/ Did you see that the duration of the training course was:

Too short       Appropriate duration       Too long

11/ What were the benefits that you achieved through your attendance of these training sessions?

Extent of benefit \ Type of benefit	To a large extent	To a certain extent	No benefit
New knowledge and information			
New skills			
New attitudes and behaviour			

12/ If you gained any of the benefits mentioned above – Have you been able to apply these skills, knowledge and attitudes to your job?

To a large extent       To a certain extent       Not at all

13/ How would you rate the policy and plan of training?

- Entirely appropriate
- Appropriate to a certain extent
- Not appropriate and need to change

If the plan not appropriate – please mention the reasons: .....

14/ How would you rate the relevance of the content of training courses for each of the following situation:    Entirely      Appropriate to      Not

- |                                  | appropriate | a certain extent | appropriate |
|----------------------------------|-------------|------------------|-------------|
| • Training objectives            | .....       | .....            | .....       |
| • The nature of your work        | .....       | .....            | .....       |
| • Your training needs            | .....       | .....            | .....       |
| • Specified time for the session | .....       | .....            | .....       |
| • Ability                        | .....       | .....            | .....       |

15/ What are the methods used in the training courses attended?

Lecture       Discussion       Case study

Other – please mention .....

16/ Do you think that these methods were appropriate for your training needs?

Entirely appropriate  Appropriate to a certain extent  Not appropriate at all

17/ Have you obtained any personal benefits (e.g. incentives, promotion) as a result of attending these sessions?

Yes  No

If yes, how would you describe these benefits? .....

18/ How would you rate the equipment, facilities and location of the training courses?

- Excellent
- Entirely appropriate
- Appropriate to a certain extent
- Not appropriate
- Very poor

19/ In general, do you see that trainers were:

Competent  Competent to a certain extent  Incompetent

If the trainer was incompetent or competent to a certain extent, please mention the reasons:

.....

20/ Did you find that trainers were effective

The extent of effectiveness	Very Effective	effective	Effective to a certain extent	Not effective
explaining the subject matter				
generating an interest in the topic				
helping you with problems				
monitoring your progress				
giving practical examples to support the topic				

21/ Have there been any difficulties that prevented you from applying the knowledge and skills gained from the training courses?

Yes  No

If yes, was there:

- Discouragement from your line manager

- A lack of enthusiasm from colleagues
- An absence of appropriate incentives
- Others, please specify: .....

22/How satisfactory was the training provided by the hotel in preparing you for your present job?

- Dissatisfied at all
- Dissatisfied
- Satisfied to a certain extent
- Satisfied
- Totally satisfied

23/How would you rate the training programmes that have been targeted this hotel?

Excellent       Good       Satisfactory       Not good

If the programmes were satisfactory or not good, please mention your suggestions for their development: .....

24/ If you have any comments or notes on the evaluation of training programmes, not included in this questionnaire, please feel free to mention them: .....

**Part (c) Trainers**

1/ Are there specific objectives of the training programmes?

Yes       Sometimes       No

2/ Are there specific objectives for conducting the evaluation process?

Yes       Sometimes       No

If yes – please mention.....

3/ What are the methods you have adopted in training evaluation for trainees?

.....

4/ What are the methods of training that are adopted in the implementation of the training programmes?

Lecture           Discussion           Case study   
 Other – please mention .....

5/ Is there a specific time for evaluation of the training programmes?

Yes           No

If yes – when is this done? .....

6/ Did you face any difficulties during the evaluation of training programmes?

Always           Sometimes           Rarely           Never

If always or sometimes, please give examples: .....

7/ How would you rate the relevance of the content of training courses for each of the following situation:

	Entirely appropriate	Appropriate to a certain extent	Not appropriate
• Training objectives	.....	.....	.....
• The nature of trainee's work	.....	.....	.....
• training needs of trainee	.....	.....	.....
• Specified time for the session	.....	.....	.....
• Ability of trainee	.....	.....	.....

8/ How would you rate the policy and plan of training?

- Entirely appropriate
- Appropriate to a certain extent
- Not appropriate and need to change

If the plan not appropriate – please mention the reasons and suggestions:

.....

9/ If you have any comments or notes on the evaluation of training programmes, are not included in this questionnaire, please feel free to mention them:

.....

.....

**Appendix (2) Form for identifying training needs (SSFIC)**

Social Security Fund Investments Company  
Office of Planning and Studies  
Form for identifying training needs

Hotel name: ..... Department: ..... Name of employee: .....  
No. Job in staffing: ..... Name of job: .....

- 1- Please identify training needs of the employee mentioned above, according to your assessment of his technical and administrative current capacity, and needed skills to achieve the required tasks efficiently in accordance with the job description.
  
- 2- Please arrange the training needs in accordance with priorities to be programmed through a training plan for the staff of the SSFIC and its hotels.

No:	Training needs in accordance with priority
1-	
2-	
3-	
4-	
5-	

Training needs were identified by: .....

Date: ..... Signature: .....

**Appendix (3) Form for evaluating an external training courses (SSFIC)**

Social Security Fund Investments Company

Questionnaire of evaluation an external training programme by trainee

Name of trainee: ..... Specialisation: .....

Location and date of course: ..... Duration: .....

**Preparation and organisation**

Did the timing of programme suitable for you?

Yes  To a certain extent  No

Did you see that the duration of the training programme was:

Adequate  Inadequate  Too long

The level of administrative supervision of the training programme was:

Excellent  Good  Weak

The level of accommodation was:

Excellent  Good  Weak

Location was:

Excellent  Good  Weak

**Contents of programme**

Did the training programme appropriate to the nature of your job?

Entirely appropriate

Appropriate to a certain extent

Not appropriate

**General notes**

Problems and difficulties: .....

Suggestions: .....

Signature of trainee: .....

**Appendix (4) Form for evaluating an internal training courses (SSFIC)**

Social Security Fund Investments Company

Questionnaire of evaluation an internal training programme by trainee

Thank you for your participation in this programme, and we assert to you that your assessment for the course will help us to develop the future programmes.

Title of course: ..... Duration: .....  
 Date of course: From..... to ..... Location of course: .....  
 Name of trainer: .....

Elements of evaluation	Level of evaluation			
	Excellent	Very good	Good	Satisfactory
Style of trainer and the way to connect information				
Contents of programme				
Teaching aids				
Enthusiasm of trainer to success programme				
Commitment of trainer to training times				
Style of trainer in treated with trainees				
Standard of services and organisation				
Training room and its facilities				
Location of course				
The extent of your benefit from the course				
General evaluation for the course				

Name of trainee: .....  
 Location of job: .....

## Appendix (5) Forms for evaluating training courses (Tunisia) – (SSFIC)

There were several forms for evaluating training courses, and most of these forms related to external courses.

- **Evaluation forms of the external training courses**

### Form (1)

Title of course: The psychology of dealing with customers

Type of course: External course

Country: Tunisia

Training centre: Al-Emteyaz

Supervisor: ..... Trainer:.....

There are three levels of evaluation: high, medium and weak; and Table (1) shows the summary of the final evaluation of each level.

Table 5.1: Final evaluation for the training course in the psychology of dealing with customers

No:	Name of trainee	Psychology evaluation	Recommendations
1	-----	<p><b>High level</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>*a high degree of attendance and motivation</li> <li>*active and looking to make new contributions</li> <li>*able to supervise, lead and develop</li> <li>* has a strong personality</li> <li>*able to develop his/her skills in line with job requirements</li> <li>*rapid development</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>*He/she should be nominated to another session even to be enabled to work in five star hotels</li> </ul> <p><b>Required courses</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>*Foreign languages (e.g. English &amp; French)</li> <li>*Communication skills with customers and staff</li> <li>*Development of his/her technical skills in the area of specialisation</li> <li>*Field visits to the hotel chain to acquire expertise</li> </ul>
2	-----	<p><b>Medium level</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>*active and able to do tasks better</li> <li>*has desire to develop and progress</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>*He/she should be nominated to another session even to be enabled to work in five star hotels</li> </ul> <p><b>Required courses</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>*Foreign languages (e.g. English &amp; French)</li> </ul>

			*Communication skills with customers and staff *Actions in cases of pressure and conflict *Field visits to the hotel chain to acquire expertis
3	-----	<b>Weak level</b> weak desire to develop and progress weak personality and attendance shy and unable to communicate unclear ideas strong desire to change his/her position no wish to assume responsibility better to direct him/her to another job	

### Form (2)

This is another form of evaluation of an external training course that took place in Tunisia in the period from 25<sup>th</sup> Dec 2008 to 22<sup>nd</sup> Jan 2009. This evaluation consists of four levels, and there is a specific colour for each level: (Green = Excellent); (Red = Good); (Blue = Satisfactory) and (Grey = Weak). The first level (Excellent) was selected as an example.

**Firstly**, personal data of trainee

Name of trainee: ..... Location of work: ..... Occupation: .....

**Secondly**, elements of evaluation

Table 5.2: Elements of evaluation process

No:	elements of evaluation	0	1	2	3	4	5
1	Commitment to training times					*	
2	Debate and expressing opinions on the content of training course						*
3	Positive behaviour and cooperation with colleagues					*	
4	Respect and cooperation with trainer						*
5	Performing required duties well					*	
6	Ability to express his/her views frankly						*
7	Initiative to put good solutions to problems					*	
8	Clear improvement in his/her behaviour and attitudes					*	
9	Ability to work under stress					*	
10	Capacity to apply new ideas and methods					*	

11	Mental readiness for training				*		
12	Ability to develop his/her performance					*	
13	General performance of trainee					*	

**Thirdly**, details of evaluation

Table 5.3: Results of evaluation process

No:	elements of evaluation	Evaluation
1	Commitment to training times	Good commitment
2	Debate and expressing opinions on the content of training course	He had lots of questions and observations during the practical training.
3	Positive behaviour and cooperation with colleagues	He interacted with the group from the beginning of the third day of the session.
4	Respect and cooperation with trainer	He co-operated to a great extent.
5	Performing required duties well	He worked hard
6	Ability to express his/her views frankly	Since his arrival at the hotel, he showed ease in the expression of opinion.
7	Initiative to put good solutions to problems	He has some characteristics that might make him a head chef in the future.
8	Clear improvement in his/her behaviour and attitudes	He was effective in the group after adjustment to them.
9	Ability to work under stress	He has good capacity and skills, so he needs encouragement.
10	Capacity to apply new ideas and methods	He needs training sessions in leadership to be an assistant to a head chef.
11	Mental readiness for training	He was ready since his arrival at the hotel.
12	Ability to develop his/her performance	Sure.
13	General performance of trainee	Excellent and deserves to be encouraged.

**Fourthly**, approval

Supervisor: .....

Trainer: .....

**Form (3) - (A)**

**Exploring the views of trainees concerning training courses**

Title of course: The psychology of dealing with customers

Name of trainer: .....

Table 5.4: Exploring the views of trainees in different specialisations about providing training courses

Elements of evaluation	Level of evaluation										
	Weak		Satisfactory		Good		Very good		Excellent		Total views
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	
Commitment of trainer to training times	0	0	0	0	1	1	46	34	89	65	136
Level of topic	0	0	0	0	8	6	56	41	72	53	136
Ability of trainer to achieve course goals	0	0	0	0	4	3	53	39	79	58	136
Trainer's degree of preparation	0	0	0	0	10	7	49	36	79	57	138
Trainer's ability to explain subject matter thoroughly	0	0	0	0	9	7	39	29	85	64	133
Level of supervision	0	0	0	0	15	12	41	32	72	56	128
Location	0	0	0	0	16	13	35	28	75	60	126
Other notes	0	0	2	6	2	6	7	20	24	69	35
Total	0	0	2	6%	65	7	326	34	575	59	968

**Form (3) - (B)**

**Exploring the views of trainers concerning training course provided to service deliverers**

Name of trainer: .....

**First:** Training programme

Table 5.5: Elements and levels of evaluation process

Elements of evaluation	Level of evaluation				
	Weak	Satisfactory	Good	Very good	Excellent
Schedule					<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
Scientific articles					<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
Training sheets					<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
Participants					<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>

**Second:** Managing programme

Table 5.6: Elements and levels of evaluation process

Elements of evaluation	Level of evaluation				
	Weak	Satisfactory	Good	Very good	Excellent
Relationship of trainees with trainer				<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	
Relationship of trainer with trainees					<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
Lunch time schedule				<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	
Photocopier services					<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
Location					<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>

**Third: Notes**

- Positive note: rich experience of different participants.
- Negative note: In some cases, a large number of trainees hinder the progress of the lecture.

**Form (4)**

**Exploring the views of trainers concerning efficiencies of trainees**

Name of trainee: .....

This evaluation includes three types of technical efficiencies as shown in Tables (7), (8) and (9).

Table 5.7: General technical efficiencies

Elements of evaluation	Level of evaluation				
	Weak	Medium	Good	Very good	Excellent
Knowledge of food and beverage					
Ability to classify restaurants					
Knowledge of types of menus					
description of work					

Table 5.8: Complementary efficiencies

Elements of evaluation	Level of evaluation				
	Weak	Medium	Good	Very good	Excellent
Ability to express and analyse					
Practical intelligence					
Degree of maturity and motivation					
Discipline					
Preparation					
Punctuality					
Listening and concentration					
Initiative					

Table 5.9: Special technical efficiencies

Elements of evaluation	Level of evaluation				
	Weak	Medium	Good	Very good	Excellent
Use of equipment					
Table setting					

Service	French					
	English					
	Russian					
	Hot drinks					
	Cold drinks					
	Removing beverage					
	Removing food					
Reception	Welcome (verbal)					
	Welcome (non-verbal)					
	Departure procedures					
Request procedures	Direct					
	Indirect					
Preparation dishes	Breakfast					
	Others					
Performance of tasks						
Formulation and reformulation of menus						
Leadership and management						

General level of evaluation: .....

### Form (5)

### Trainer's evaluation of trainees on food production course

Table 5.10: Elements and degrees of evaluation with some of the main observations

Name of trainee: .....

Elements of evaluation	Level of evaluation					Notes
	Weak	Medium	Good	V. good	Excellent	
Theoretical information			<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>			General information needs to be refined.
Practical ability			<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>			He needs to improve his skills.
Ability to work		<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>				Simple potential as a result of a lack of knowledge.
Discipline and attendance			<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>			Disciplined in general.
Listening & concentration			<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>			Active and heedful.
Leadership skills			<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>			He needs to apply these skills in his job area.
Future training needs						He needs more practical abilities.

**Appendix (6) Questionnaires of the Al-Mahari Hotel (SSFIC)**  
 Social Security Fund Investments Company

**Questionnaire (1)**

Name: ..... Date of birth: .....  
 Qualifications: ..... Specialisation: .....  
 Current occupation: ..... Function desired: .....

Would you like to continue working with us after the maintenance and development of the hotel?      Yes       No

Training courses

Title of course	Implemented by	Location	Duration

Qualifications (Non-academic qualifications): .....

Languages skills

Language	Reading			Writing			Speaking		
	Good	Medium	Weak	Good	Medium	Weak	Good	Medium	Weak
1-									
2-									

Computer skills

Word			Excel			Internet		
Good	Medium	Weak	Good	Medium	Weak	Good	Medium	Weak

**Questionnaire (2)**

Name: ..... Qualifications: .....Current job: .....

Would you like to attend training courses organised by the company to develop the skills of employees in the Al-Mahari hotel?      Yes                   No

If 'No', I authorize the company to choose appropriate work in accordance with the applicable legislation.

If 'Yes', I pledge to do my best to take advantage of all training courses that are organised by the company.

Name: .....      Signature: .....

## **Appendix (7) Report of Arab Union of Technical Education**

### Report of Arab Union of Technical Education

External training programme, “Hotel Management”, implemented by Al-Quds University-  
Amman: Jordan

#### **Introduction**

Investment in the rehabilitation of human resources through training and development programmes is one of the most important investments in organisations today, given the vital role of human resources in achieving the goals of these organisations. These resources have become the basic standards by which to measure the organisation's capital. This has encouraged us to organise a training plan commensurate with the training needs of the staff in the SSFIC hotels, particularly in the Al-Mahari hotel.

The Arab Union of Technical Education emphasises the importance of investment in training in accordance with the vision and strategies of the SSFIC for developing the skills of all staff in the company hotel chain. It is also crucial to bridge the gap between the current situation and future plans. Moreover, to a large extent, we stress the importance of assessing the return on investment in training, and appropriate methods should be used to achieve this purpose.

#### **Preparation programme of training courses**

Training in the hotel industry is the cornerstone and the major solution for enabling employees to perform their functions effectively. Training aims to develop employees' performance through acquiring required knowledge and skills in hotel industry and practice in accordance with applicable international standards. In so doing, the SSFIC seeks to enhance the performance of all staff of each hotel. Therefore, training programmes have been prepared in accordance with identified training needs as follows:

- Hotel needs: to determine departments and units those require more training than others due to the low level of performance and change in the local work environment.
- Individual needs: identifying employees to be trained according to their specialties; also experience, knowledge and skills needed by each employee.
- Job needs: to determine knowledge, skills, behaviour and experience necessary for performing each function.

It is our conviction that the implementation of any training course without planning becomes useless and a waste of time, effort and money. Furthermore, difficulty in formulating objectives and a measurable return on training based on the above has led to the following actions:

- Preparation of a distinct training programme under the title of "Hotel Management".
- Choice of expertly trained professionals in all disciplines targeted.
- Establishment of an ideal training environment in the University of Al-Quds in Amman, Jordan.
- Meeting with all trainees, trainers and representatives from the hotel to give a brief overview of the outline of the training programme.

### **Targeted group**

56 employees from 9 hotels were targeted in this course (Al-Mahari, Al-Kabeer, Bab Al-Bahur, Al-Wahat, Bab Al-Jadid, Janzour Tour village, Garyunis Tour village, Tebesty and Aozo). The table below shows the number of trainees according to their specialties.

Table 7.1: Total of participants and their specialties

Specialisation	Al- Mahari hotel	Other hotels	Total
Receptionists	12	8	20
Reservation	4	7	11
Supervisor of housekeeping	-	5	5
The head of waiters	5	-	5
First waiter	10	-	10
Assistant chef	3	2	5
Total	34	22	56

### **The contents of training programme**

This course was designed in the light of the actual training needs of trainees, rather than relying on the programmes prepared in advance in order to obtain better results. A variety of training methods adopted on a practical application. An evaluation of training was given a great importance before and during the training session. This led to enhance training objectives. The training programme was divided into three axes:

- Administrative training
- Computer skills
- Practical training within the facilities of the hotel

**Additional activities**

A number of experts in the hotel industry hosted to give lectures in different areas.

- Director of Cotton Flowers Company: This company specialised in the carpeting industry for the five-star hotels.
- Director of sales for the HYGEX Company: This company is one of the leading cleaning materials used in hotels.
- Director of Personnel and Training Manager at Radisson SAS Hotel - Amman. He gave a lecture for two days to the trainees about the following topics:
  - Interior instructions for the staff in the Radisson SAS Hotel.
  - Organisational structure of the hotel.
  - Tasks and duties assigned to each employee.
  - Health and professional safety for the hotel staff.
  - Offering some problems and ways to treatment, in accordance with the global criteria in the Radisson SAS hotel chain.
  - Services and benefits received by workers.

**Field visits and practical training in hotels**

Several field visits organised to a group of five-star hotel chain, and the purpose of these visits was:

- To familiarize participants with all advantages of each hotel.
- To familiarize participants with the services provided by each hotel.
- Identify the policies of each hotel.
- Conducting comparisons between these hotels chain.

The field visits included the following hotels chain as shown in Table (2).

Table 7.2: The field visits to a group of five-star hotels

Radisson SAS Hotel	Regency Palace Hotel
Arabella Hotel	Dayzan Hotel
Marriott Hotel	Kempinski Hotel

Four Seasons Hotel	Moevenpick Hotel
Grand Hyatt Amman	Sheraton Amman Hotel
TCHE TCHE Restaurants	Salad House Restaurants

### Training quality control

To ensure the achievement of training objectives in accordance with the principles of quality used globally, therefore the following procedures were followed:

- Survey the perspectives of trainees and the degree of their satisfaction concerning the level of training provided and to address any negative effects may arise through the analysis of the results of this survey. The survey involved the following major items:
  - assessment of training contents
  - assessment of trainer
  - assessment of the means of training
  - assessment of the whole training session
- Distribution questionnaires to trainers in order to evaluate the level of each trainee in different specialisations, and to follow-up developments and resolving any obstacles facing the trainee. For example, Table (8.3) shows the results of evaluation of participators at the receptionists course.

Table 7.3: Training quality control of participators at the receptionists course

Title of course	Name of Trainer		
Receptionists	-----		
Changes	First week	Second week	Third week
assessment the means of training	96.30%	92%	100%
assessment of trainer	98.20%	100%	100%
assessment of training contents	85.30%	85%	94%
assessment of the training session	96.80%	100%	100%

### Final evaluation of trainees

This evaluation involved all courses (computer skills, management skills, food production, receptionists, reservation, supervisor of housekeeping and quality service), and all trainees in different specialisations. The evaluation shows the overall development in all axes

addressed during training programme. For example, Table (8.4) below shows the final evaluation of the trainees at the receptionists course.

Table 7.4: Final evaluation of the trainees at the receptionists course

Receptionists course	The general development of trainees					
Name of trainee	General level	tasks of Receptionists	Dealing with customer	The life cycle of the guest	Preparation of invoices	The general level of evolution
1/ -----	30%	60%	60%	55%	50%	65%

### Summary

One of the most important factors that helped in the success of this training programme is the clarity of training plan, which was prepared by the SSFIC. This plan was clear and comprehensive with respect to the goals of the company, and the number of staff to be trained as well as the time frame for implementation.

Based on the above, trainers were selected on the light of training contents and methods that have been identified. Then put the schedules of training courses and appropriate places for their implementation, with determine the basis for evaluating these courses.

The main aim of Arab Union of Technical Education is to achieve training objectives that have been planned by the SSFIC. These objectives may not be achieved in one go, or in other words, after the end of the training programme directly. Some results of training might be appeared after a long period from the end of a training programme. Nevertheless, we confirm that training programme was in required level in general, and trainees have capacities to do their work better, through the final results of evaluation that have been recorded.

Public administration of Arab Union of Technical Education

Tripoli – Libya 2008/09

## Appendix (8) Investment Projects of SSFIC

- (1) Establishment of a centre for advanced training in the field of tourism and the hotel industry in Tripoli (JTV).

Figure 8.1: The proposal training centre in the Janzour Tour Village (Tripoli)



Source: SSFIC, Report of 2008

### Investment Projects in Tripoli

#### 1- Tripoli Tower

This is one of the important projects of the company in Tripoli. It is located near the Bab Al-Bhr Hotel and Tripoli Al-Fateh Tower, on a land area of 5400m<sup>2</sup>. The Tripoli Tower is planned to have forty five storeys. A contract was made with Atkins Company, which is one of the world's leading companies in towers design, to design the tower. The estimated cost of the project is LD 210m.

Figure 8.2: Tripoli Tower



Source: SSFIC, Report of 2008.

## Investment Projects in Benghazi

### 1- Amwaj Towers Compound Project

The project is located in Benghazi on a parcel of land estimated at about 4.5 hectares. It consists of three towers, two of which designed as offices towers composed of administrative offices of superior level designed for companies and other business institutions, whilst the third tower is designed to be a polytechnic composed of specialised clinics of medical diagnosis. The estimated cost of the project is LD 143m.

Figure 8.3: Amwaj Towers Compound Project



Source: SSFIC, Report of 2008

### 2- Tebesty Towers Project

This project consists of three towers with twelve floors located next to the Tebesty Hotel. One of the towers will be allocated to hotel apartments follow the Tebesty Hotel, and two towers will be designed to be administrative offices, shops, restaurants and car park underground. The estimated cost of the project is LD 37m.

Figure 8.4: Tebesty Towers Project in Benghazi



Source: SSFIC, Report of 2008.

## **Investment projects between the SSFIC and foreign companies**

### **(i) Investment projects with the Spanish Company (Marina First)**

The SSFIC has signed a contract with Marina First to implement the following investments equally between them:

- 1- Development of Al-Byda Hotel

Figure 8.5: Al-Byda Hotel



Source: SSFIC, Report of 2008

- 2- Establishment of a centre for advanced training in the field of tourism and the hotel industry in the Janzour Tour Village, as mentioned in section 5.6.2.
- 3- Establishment of an entertainment centre comprising restaurants, cafes and sport galleries

### **(ii) Investment projects with the Turkish Company (Emsas)**

The SSFIC has signed a contract with Emsas, which has experience in investing in hotels, to work on the following projects:

- 1- Purchase and completion of a hotel in Abu-Meshmasha in Tripoli

Figure 8.6: Abu-Meshmasha Hotel in Tripoli



Source: SSFIC, Report of 2008

- 2- Development of the Tebesty Hotel in Benghazi
- 3- Establishment of a new hotel in Abu-Setta in Tripoli

### **Other investment projects**

- 1- Chalets Shahat

The SSFIC planned to develop forty seven Chalets, because Shahat region is one of the most beautiful tourist destinations on the east coast of Libya. The initial cost for maintenance is LD 1m.

- 2- Souiri Summering (Zeletin)

The SSFIC seeks the development and completion of this project which consists of forty rooms, and the estimated cost of the project is LD 5m. Moreover, two new tourist sites have come under the umbrella of the SSFIC: Al-Khomous Tour Village and Al-Nakaza Tourist Hotel.

## Appendix (9) Examples of training courses (internal & external) for 2008 -2009

### Training courses in 2008

#### 1- Internal courses

The SSFIC organised many courses for its internal staff and the staff in hotels. The tables below show detailed data about each course.

- **English language**

Table 9.1: Courses in English language for the SSFIC's staff

Level	Beginning of course	End of course	Location	No. of courses
First	03.02.2008	24.04.2008	Languages centre of oil companies	25
Second + Second advanced	17.01.2008	08.05.2008	Languages centre of oil companies	5
Second	27.04.2008	19.06.2008	British Consulate	1
Advanced	06.07.2008	28.06.2008	British Consulate	1
First	22.06.2008	31.08.2008	Languages centre of oil companies	1
Second	22.06.2008	31.08.2008	Languages centre of oil companies	14
Third	22.06.2008	31.08.2008	Languages centre of oil companies	2
Total				49

Source: the SSFIC: Office of Planning and Studies, 2009

Table 9.2: Courses in English language for Al-Mahari Hotel's staff

Level	Beginning of course	End of course	Location	No. of trainees
Beginner	13.7.2008	11.09.2008	Al-Tawasel	31
Beginner	13.7.2008	05.10.2008	High Studies Academy	52
Beginner	13.7.2008	11.09.2008	Al-Shati	24
Beginner	12.7.2008	18.09.2008	Am –Al-Jwabi	96
First	12.7.2008	17.09.2008	Awardbrand	31
First	13.7.2008	14.09.2008	Al-Aalamya	31
Second	13.7.2008	14.09.2008	Al-Aalamya	10
Total				289

Source: the SSFIC: Office of Planning and Studies, 2009

Table 9.3: Courses in English language for Al-Mahari Hotel's staff

Level	Number of weeks	Location	No. of trainees
Beginner	9	Al-Aalamya	42
Beginner	9	High Studies Academy	39
First	9	High Studies Academy	15
Second	9	Afaaq	31
Second	9	Ayn Shames	46
Second	9	Al-Shati	45
Third	10	Awardbrand	27
Total			245

Source: the SSFIC: Office of Planning and Studies, 2009

**i- Computer programmes**

Table 9.4: Courses in computer programmes

Hotel name	The International Computer Driving Licence (ICDL).	No. of trainees
Al-Kabeer	3	16
Bab Al-Bahr	2	6
Al-Wahat	4	2
Bab Al-Jadid	16	14
Janzour Tour village	12	32
Zliten	8	8
Al-Rabta	1	1
Total	46	78

Source: the SSFIC: Office of Planning and Studies, 2009.

**ii- Technical skills for employees in direct hotel jobs**

Table 9.5: Training courses in direct hotel jobs

Title of course	Duration	Location	Position	No. of trainees
Hotel industry	6 days	Arab Union of Technical Education	Front office	30
			House-keeping	34
Specialisation course	12 days		Food services	57
			Food production	25
Total				146

Source: the SSFIC: Office of Planning and Studies, 2009.

Table 9.6: Training course in behavioural skills

Target position	Beginning of course	End of course	Location	No. of trainees
Reception, house-keeping, and food production	06.10.2008	14.10.2008	Arab Union of Technical Education	142
Other departments	19.10.2008	27.10.2008		116
Total				268

**iii- Technical skills for employees in financial jobs**

This course targeted 4 employees from the SSFIC, 27 employees from the Al-Mahari hotel, and 18 employees from other hotels.

Table 9.7: Training courses in financial jobs

Title of course	Beginning of course	End of course	No. of trainees	Location
Accounting & financial processes in hotels	23.11.2008	04.12.2008	54	SSFIC's Training Centre

Source: the SSFIC: Office of Planning and Studies, 2009

**iv- Technical skills for employees in the department of stores (supplies division)**

Table 9.8: Training course in storage function (The function stores)

Title of course	Beginning of course	End of course	No. of trainees	Location
Technical practices in storage function	14.12.2008	25.12.2008	28	SSFIC's Training Centre

Source: the SSFIC: Office of Planning and Studies, 2009

**v- Technical skills in identifying training needs**

Table 9.9: Training course in identifying training needs

Title of course	Beginning of course	End of course	Location	No. of trainees	
				SSFIC	Hotels
Identifying training needs	14.12.2008	25.12.2008	SSFIC's Training Centre	7	30

Source: the SSFIC: Office of Planning and Studies, 2009.

## 2- External courses

The SSFIC organised several external courses in different Arab countries as shown in the following Tables (10), (11), and (12).

Table 9.10: External courses in Jordan

Training area		No of trainees	Al-Mahari hotel	Other hotels	Duration		No. of weeks
					Technical skills	Supervisory skills	
Front office	Receptionists	20	12	8	3	2	5
	Reservation	11	4	7	3	2	5
	Supervisor of housekeeping	5	-	5	2	2	4
Service	The head of waiters	5	5	-	2	2	4
	First waiter	10	10	-	2	2	4
	Assistant chef	5	3	-	4	2	4
Total		56	34	22			

Source: the SSFIC: Office of Planning and Studies, 2009.

Table 9.11: External courses in Tunisia

Training area		No of trainees	Al-Mahari hotel	Other hotels	Duration		No. of weeks
					Technical skills	Supervisory skills	
Service	The head of waiters	5	5	-	2	2	4
	First waiter	14	14	-	2	2	4
	Waiter	19	19	-	3	-	3
Food production	Chef	9	2	7	4	-	4
	Assistant chef	5	2	3	4	-	4
	Salad chef	8	2	6	4	-	4
	Pastry-cook	5	2	3	4	-	4
	Butcher	3	2	1	3	-	3
Total		68	48	20			

Source: the SSFIC: Office of Planning and Studies, 2009.

Table 9.12: External courses in United Arab Emirates

Training area		No of trainees	Al-Mahari hotel	Other hotels	Duration		No. of weeks
					Technical skills	Supervisory skills	
Food	Chef	12	5	7	4	-	4

producti on	Assistant chef	10	2	8	4	-	4
	Salad chef	8	1	7	4	-	4
	Pastry-cook	6	2	4	4	-	4
Supervisor of housekeeping		10	10	-	2	2	4
Total		46	20	26			

Source: the SSFIC: Office of Planning and Studies, 2009.

### Training courses in 2009

The SSFIC organised a number of internal courses in a variety of jobs as shown in the following Tables (13), (14), and (15).

Table 9.13: Accommodation course for employees in Al-Mahari hotel

Title of course	Number targeted	Location	Implemented by
Accommodation	34	Al-Kabeer & Bab Al-Bahur Hotel	Yadis training centre

Source: the SSFIC: Office of Planning and Studies, 2009.

Table 9.14: Training courses in technical skills for employees in the departments of Food and Beverage, and Cleaning and Laundry

Title of course	Department	Number targeted	Location	Implementing by
Food preparation and processing	Food & beverage	32	Al-Kabeer & Bab Al-Bahur Hotel	Yadis training centre
Hygiene technical practices in hotels	Receptionists & housekeepers	26		
Technical practices in laundry	Laundry	12		
Total		70		

Source: the SSFIC: Office of Planning and Studies, 2009.

Table 9.15: Training course in methods and techniques of providing service

Title of course	Position	Number targeted	Location	Implementing by
Methods and techniques of providing service	Head of waiters	8	Al-Kabeer Hotel & Bab Al-Bahr Hotel	Yadis training centre
	First waiter	7		
	Waiter	6		
Total		21		

Source: the SSFIC: Office of Planning and Studies, 2009.

Table 9.16: English language courses for employees in the Al-Mahari hotel

Department	Number targeted	Total
General administration	10	293
Receptionists & Accommodation	62	
Food & Beverage	87	
Finance	43	
Stores	11	
Human resources	29	
Supervision	31	
Office of internal audit	4	
Control	16	

Source: the SSFIC: Office of Planning and Studies, 2009.

**Appendix (10)** Summarising the field visits to Libya

<b>The first visit</b>	
<b>Activity</b>	<b>Date</b>
To gain initial approval to do the research and available preliminary data	07/2008 – 09/2008
<b>The second visit (add a bit on gaining approval)</b>	
Translation of the questionnaires from English into Arabic	3-5/4/2009
Pilot study	7-12/4/2009
Main study (distribution and collection the questionnaires)	Distribution (16-20/4/2009) Collection(26/4 – 20/5/2009)
Conducting the interviews	6-26/4/2009 (see table 6.9)
Second study (distribution and collection of questionnaires)	Distribution (4/5- 2009) Collection (9/5 2009)
Conducting the interview	7/5 2009
<b>The third visit</b>	
Collecting additional data, such as expenditures on training (see Table 6.10).	31/03/2010 – 10/04/2010

## Appendix (11) Covering letter and survey questionnaire (Arabic Version)

### أخي الكريم... تحية طيبة وبعد ..

يقوم الباحث بدراسة موضوع تقييم التدريب بالفنادق الليبية بهدف التعرف علي أساليب التقييم المتبعة والصعوبات التي قد تواجه عملية التقييم وذلك من أجل المساهمة في تطوير وتحسين البرامج التدريبية المقدمّة والحد من الصعوبات التي قد تعرقل سير العملية التدريبية. هذا الاستبيان هو وسيلة لانجاز أهداف هذه الدراسة – وأن الإجابة علي كافة أسئلته سوف يكون لها الأثر البالغ في تحقيق أفضل النتائج بعون الله. علماً بأن إجاباتكم هي لخدمة أهداف هذه الدراسة العلمية لاغير- وسوف تحاط بالعناية والسريّة التامة.

تقبلوا فائق التقدير والاحترام ودمتم لخدمة العلم وطلابه

الباحث: رمضان محمد بيوض

عضو هيئة تدريس بكلية المحاسبة / غريان

طالب دكتوراه بالساحة البريطانية

### إستبيان المتدربين

1- الجنس: ذكر  أنثي

2- ماهي وظيفتك الحالية؟ .....

3- مدة عملك في هذا الفندق: أقل من سنة  1-3 سنوات

3-6 سنوات  أكثر من 6 سنوات

4- الجنسية: لبيبي  غير لبيبي

\* إذا كنت غير لبيبي – من فضلك حدد جنسيتك: .....

5- ماهي الدورات التي حضرتها خلال الثلاث سنوات الماضية من عملك في هذا الفندق؟

عنوان الدورة التدريبية	مكان الدورة	التاريخ

6- كيف تم ترشيحك لتلك الدورات التدريبية؟

بناءً علي رغبتك  بناءً علي دراسة تحديد الاحتياجات التدريبية  بناءً علي طلب رئيسك المباشر   
بناءً علي ترشيحات من الإدارة العليا للفندق  بناءً علي ترشيح إدارة التدريب  أخري حدد من فضلك:

.....

7- هل تم إبلاغك بمواعيد تلك الدورات ومحتواها وأهدافها قبل إنعقادها:

بوقت كافٍ  بوقت قصير  بوقت غير كافٍ

8- هل هناك دورات تدريبية تجري خارج الفندق؟ نعم  لا

9- ماهي أنواع التدريب التي تعتقد أنها مفيدة لمجال عملك لفترة مستقبلية طويلة الأجل؟

تدريب داخل مكان العمل

تدريب خارج مكان العمل لفترة قصيرة

تدريب خارج مكان العمل لفترة طويلة

10- هل كان عدد المشاركين في الدورات التدريبية التي حضرتها:

كثير جداً  مناسب جداً  مناسب إلي حد ما  قليل جداً

11- هل كانت مدة الدورات التدريبية :

قصيرة جداً  مناسبة جداً  طويلة جداً

12- ماهي الفوائد التي حققتها من خلال حضورك لتلك الدورات التدريبية؟

نوع الفائدة	مدى الفائدة	فائدة كبيرة	فائدة إلي حد ما	لا فائدة
معلومات ومعارف جديدة				
مهارات جديدة				
مواقف وسلوكيات جديدة				

13- إذا تحصلت علي أي من الفوائد السابقة – هل كنت قادراً علي تطبيقها في مجال عملك؟

إلى حد كبير  إلى حدٍ ما  لم أتمكن من تطبيقها علي الإطلاق

14- ماهو تقييمك لسياسة وخطة تدريب الشركة؟

مناسبة جداً  مناسبة إلى حدٍ ما  غير مناسبة وتحتاج إلى تغيير

\* إذا كانت الخطة غير مناسبة – ماهي أسباب ذلك: .....

15- كيف تقيّم محتوى الدورات التدريبية من حيث تناسبها مع:

درجة الملائمة	مناسبة تماماً	مناسبة إلى حدٍ ما	غير مناسبة
نواحي التقييم			
أهداف التدريب			
طبيعة عملك			
احتياجاتك التدريبية			
الوقت المحدد لتلك الدورة			
قدرتك			

16- ماهي الأساليب المستخدمة في الدورات التدريبية التي حضرتها؟

المحاضرات  المناقشات  دراسة الحالات  أخرى – حدد من فضلك: .....

17- هل تعتقد بأن تلك الأساليب مناسبة لاحتياجاتك التدريبية؟

مناسبة جداً  مناسبة إلى حدٍ ما  غير مناسبة

18- هل تحصّلت علي أية مزايا شخصية ( مثل حوافز مادية أو معنوية / ترقية .... إلخ) كنتيجة لحضورك تلك الدورات؟

نعم  لا

\* إذا نعم – من فضلك وضّح تلك المزايا: .....

19- كيف تقيّم الإشراف الإداري علي الدورات التدريبية التي حضرتها؟

مناسب جداً  مناسب إلى حدٍ ما  غير مناسب

20- ماهو تقييمك لمكان التدريب والإمكانيات والخدمات المتوفرة به؟

مناسبة جداً  مناسبة إلى حدٍ ما  غير مناسبة

21- بشكل عام – هل تري بأن المدرّب كان: كفاء  كفاء إلى حدٍ ما  غير كفاء

إذا كان المدرّب كفاء إلى حدٍ ما – أو غير كفاء – ماهي الأسباب من وجهة نظرك:

.....

22- هل المدرّبين كانت لديهم القدرة والكفاءة علي:

مدى الكفاءة	كفاء و	كفاء و فعّال	كفاء و فعّال إلى	غير كفاء
-------------	--------	--------------	------------------	----------

و فعّال	حدّ ما	فعّال جداً	المهارات والقدرات
			شرح وإيصال المعلومة بشكل جيّد
			خلق أهمية لموضوع التدريب
			مساعدتك في فهم محتوى الدورة
			التوجيه الجيّد من أجل تقدّمك
			إعطاء أمثلة جيّدة لدعم موضوع الدورة

23- هل تواجه أية صعوبات تتعلق بتطبيق المعارف والمهارات في مجال عملك - التي تحصّلت عليها من تلك الدورات التي حضرتها؟  نعم  لا

\* إذا نعم - فإن تلك الصعوبات تتمثّل في:

عدم التشجيع من قبل المدراء

ضعف التشجيع ممن قبل الزملاء

غياب الحوافز المناسبة

أخري: - من فضلك حدّد: .....

24- هل أنت راضٍ علي الدورات التدريبية التي حضرتها من أجل تحسين أدائك الحالي؟

راضٍ تماماً  راضٍ  راضٍ إلي حدّ ما  غير راضٍ  غير راضٍ علي الإطلاق

25- ما تقييمك لبرامج التدريب التي استهدفت هذا الفندق؟

ممتازة  جيّدة  مقبولة  غير جيّدة

\* إذا كانت مقبولة أو غير جيّدة ماهي مقترحاتك من أجل تطويرها: .....

26- هل تعتقد بأن الدورات التدريبية التي نظّمها هذا الفندق لمختلف الوظائف كانت:

ضرورية جداً  ضرورية  ضرورية إلي حدّ ما  غير ضرورية

27- إذا لديك أي تعليقات أو ملاحظات لم يتضمنها هذا الاستبيان - تفضل بتدوينها لتعزيز نتائج هذا البحث العلمي:

.....  
.....  
.....

#### ثانياً: إستبيان مدراء التدريب

1- هل هناك أهداف محددة للبرامج التدريبية التي تنظّمها الشركة؟  نعم  أحياناً  لا

2- هل هناك دورات تدريبية تجري خارج الشركة؟  نعم  لا

3- هل هناك سياسة وخطة للتدريب بالشركة؟  نعم  لا

إذا كانت الإجابة بنعم :

\* من يقوم بالتخطيط والإعداد لها؟

إدارة التدريب  إدارة الموارد البشرية  الإدارة العليا بالفندق  لا أعرف  جهة أخرى – حدد من فضلك: .....

4- هل خطة التدريب: شهرية  3 أشهر  6 أشهر  سنوية  لا أعرف

5- هل هناك معايير لتلك الخطة؟  نعم  لا  لا أعرف

6- ماهو تقييمك لسياسة وخطة تدريب الشركة؟

مناسبة جداً  مناسبة إلى حد ما  غير مناسبة وتحتاج إلى تغيير

\* إذا كانت الخطة غير مناسبة – ماهي أسباب ذلك: .....

7- ماهي الأهداف الأساسية التي تسعى إلى تحقيقها من تنفيذ مثل تلك البرامج التدريبية؟ من فضلك حدد تلك الأهداف حسب أهميتها بالترتيب.

الفهم الجيد للعامل وتحسين مستوي أدائه  القدرة علي الاتصال الجيد بالآخرين  تحسين جودة الخدمة  معارف ومهارات جديدة  تقليل دوران العمل  أخرى – من فضلك حدد:

8- إلي أي مدى تم تحقيق أهداف الخطة التدريبية؟

تحققت بالكامل  تحققت أكثر من 80%  تحققت أكثر من 50%  تحققت أقل من 50%  لم تتحقق علي الإطلاق

\* إذا أهداف التدريب لم تتحقق بالكامل – ماهي الأسباب الكامنة وراء ذلك؟ .....

9- هل هناك أسلوب متبع في تقييم البرامج التدريبية؟ نعم  لا

\*إذا نعم – ماهو تلك الأسلوب؟ .....

10- هل هناك أهداف محددة لإجراء عملية التقييم؟ نعم  أحيانا  لا

11- ماهو مصدر المعلومات الذي تعتمدون عليه عند إجراء عملية تقييم التدريب؟

12- ماهي وسائل الاتصال المتعلقة بتقييم البرامج التدريبية بينكم وبين مختلف الإدارات والأقسام بالشركة؟

إرسال رسائل  اجتماعات منتظمة مع مدراء الإدارات  اتصالات شخصية  وسائل أخرى – حدد من فضلك: .....

13- مامدي تعاون تلك الإدارات والأقسام معكم بخصوص تقييم البرامج التدريبية؟

تعاون جيد  تعاون إلي حد ما  تعاون قليل  لا تعاون

\* إذا كان التعاون قليل أو لا تعاون – من فضلك وضح أسباب ذلك:

.....  
.....

14- ماهي الأساليب المتبعة في تنفيذ البرامج التدريبية؟

المحاضرات  المناقشات  دراسة الحالات  أخري – حدد من فضلك:

.....

15- هل هناك وقت محدد لتقييم البرامج التدريبية؟

نعم  لا

\* إذا نعم – متى يتم ذلك؟

.....

16- هل تقوم الشركة بمنح حوافز تشجيعية للمدربين بعد انتهاء الدورة التدريبية؟

نعم  أحيانا  لا

\* إذا نعم – من فضلك حدّد نوع تلك الحوافز:

.....

17- هل تواجه الشركة بعض المشاكل والصعوبات عند تقييم البرامج التدريبية؟

دائماً  أحياناً  نادراً  أبداً

\* إذا دائماً – أو أحياناً – ماهي أبرز تلك المشاكل والصعوبات:

.....

18- إذا لديك أي تعليقات أو ملاحظات لم يتضمنها هذا الاستبيان – تفضّل بتدوينها لتعزيز نتائج هذا البحث العلمي:

.....

.....

**ثالثاً: الاستبيان الخاص بالمدرّبين :**

1 - هل هناك أهداف محددة للبرامج التدريبية التي تنظمها الشركة؟ نعم  أحيانا  لا

2- هل هناك أهداف محددة لإجراء عملية تقييم التدريب؟ نعم  أحيانا  لا

\* إذا نعم – من فضلك أذكر أهم تلك الأهداف:

.....

3- هل هناك أسلوب متبع في تقييم البرامج التدريبية؟ نعم  لا

\*إذا نعم – ماهو تلك الأسلوب؟ .....

4- ماهي الأساليب المتبعة في تنفيذ البرامج التدريبية؟

المحاضرات  المناقشات  دراسة الحالات  أخرى – حدد من فضلك: .....

5- هل هناك وقت محدد لتقييم البرامج التدريبية؟ نعم  لا

\* إذا نعم – متي يتم ذلك؟ .....

6- هل تواجهون أية مشاكل وصعوبات عند تقييم البرامج التدريبية؟

دائماً  أحياناً  نادراً  أبداً

\* إذا دائماً – أو أحياناً – ماهي أبرز تلك المشاكل والصعوبات:

.....

7- كيف تقيّم محتوى الدورات التدريبية من حيث تناسبها مع:

نواحي التقييم	درجة الملائمة	مناسبة تماماً	مناسبة إلي حد ما	غير مناسبة
أهداف التدريب				
طبيعة عمل المتدرب				
الاحتياجات التدريبية للمتدرب				
الوقت المحدد لكل دورة				
قدرات المتدرب				

8- ماهو تقييمك لسياسة وخطة تدريب الشركة؟

مناسبة جداً  مناسبة إلي حد ما  غير مناسبة وتحتاج إلي تغيير

\* إذا كانت الخطة تحتاج إلي تعديل أو تغيير – ماهي الأسباب و المقترحات من وجهة نظرك:

.....

9- إذا لديك أي تعليقات أو ملاحظات لم يتضمنها هذا الاستبيان – تفضل بتدوينها لتعزيز نتائج هذا البحث العلمي:

.....

.....

.....