

Assessing key tour guide competences to co-create memorable tourism experiences

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MSc Tourism and Hospitality Management

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DECLARATION WITH REGARD TO INDEPENDENT WORK

I, Brighton Hurombo, identity number 24-120826 N 24 (Passport no. BN140440) and Student No. 24836044, hereby declare that this research, submitted to the North-West University, for the PhD in Tourism Management: Assessing key tour guide competences to co-create memorable tourism experiences, is my independent work and complies with the Code of Academic Integrity, as well as other relevant policies, procedures, rules and regulations of the North-West University and has not been submitted before to any institution by myself or any other person in fulfillment (or partial fulfillment) of the requirements for the attainment of any qualification. The study was also submitted to turnitin and complies with the prescribed guidelines regarding similarity index.



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PERSONAL JOURNEY

This journey started in November 2012 when the researcher thought of enrolling for a PhD study but was by then very “green” in terms of the “University of choice” for enrolment and studentship. After a protracted investigation using various platforms, including the internet and debates with colleagues, the name of “North-West University” in South Africa continued to dominate the various searches and discussions. The researcher would soon take a deep seated interest in studying with the University.

The prospect of getting expert research supervision and a study scholarship from the University became among others, the paramount carrot, given the various challenges one would want to avoid when studying abroad, more so at this height of academic enquiry. Having satisfied the University’s entry requirements, the researcher vividly recalls the day he received the letter of acceptance into the programme in January 2013 (See, Appendix 6) and this day will forever be entrenched in the mind of the scholar; as it is highly reminiscent of the “day I will never forget” tales of young age.

Developing a research proposal and an appropriate study title was soon to be the next hurdle as the researcher only had a rough conceptualisation of what he intended to pursue. The researcher was passionate to learn about human capacity development in tourism. The initial research topic proposed in early April, 2013 was entitled “exploring the impact of the human factor on the quality of visitor experience in Zimbabwe’s Tourism and Hospitality Industry”. This topic had been motivated by a web article the researcher came across on tourism human capacity development in developing nations. (Semone, 2013:3). The article pointed out that the human element of the visitor economy is often neglected, particularly at the destination level with human capital development often relegated behind infrastructure, marketing, transportation and other tourism development priorities.

It was on the basis of the proposed title that the researcher was able to catch the interest of the would-be study promoters, namely professors Martinette Kruger and

Melville Saayman who are passionate researchers in the field of tourism experiences. A brief concept note was then to be shared with the new study promoters so that they get a better understanding of the researcher's vision of the study. The research idea was accepted in the same month (April, 2013) by the study promoters, but had to pass through a rigorous refinement process for it to be what it ultimately became. An important recommendation from the promoters was that the research strongly focuses on memorable tourism experiences (MTEs) as it was an emerging and largely unexplored area.

Thus before the research proposal was finally approved, the proposed study titles had to change from one form to the other until a better nomenclature was arrived at. Examples include having to change from the initial nomenclature to "exploring the impact of the human factor on the quality of visitor experience in Zimbabwe's tourism and hospitality industry" " a framework for exploring human capital development and the delivery of memorable tourism experiences (MTE' s) of tour guides in Zimbabwe's tour guiding industry' , "a framework for human capital development and the delivery of memorable tourism experiences (MTE' s) by tour guides in Zimbabwe" and "a critical assessment of tour guide competences to co-create memorable tourism experiences". The research title to be finally approved and registered by the University was "Assessing key tour guide competences to co-create memorable tourism experiences" and that was in October 2014.

With an approved title, work on the subsequent chapters got much easier and logical. The first literature chapter was relatively less challenging due to the avalanche of data on tourism experience. It was the third literature chapter on the Zimbabwe's tour guiding industry, which proved to be more challenging to write because of the paucity of scholarly work particularly on Zimbabwe. Only one publication from Nyahunzvi and Njerekai (2013:3-7) was noted (to the best understanding of the researcher) to be available during the time of study and it then became the main reference point for the chapter. The study is therefore envisaged to make a significant literature contribution to Zimbabwe's tour guiding sector as very minimal work has so far been conducted locally.

Data collection was challenging given the mixed methodological slant of the study. Nevertheless with the support of the Zimbabwe Tourism Authority in getting the tour guide contacts, as well as the authorisation secured from the Civil Aviation Authority of Zimbabwe to administer questionnaires at the Victoria Falls International Airport, the data collection burden was lightened.

Finally, the researcher feels greatly privileged and honoured to contribute to knowledge in the tour guiding industry not only in Zimbabwe, but to the whole planet at large. It would bring great joy to the researcher, to see the quality of tourism experiences improve in this sector, with tour guides playing a centre stage role in their co-creation role.

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I wish to commence this page by thanking our Father, who art in heaven for granting me the life, the strength and the wisdom to accomplish this Doctoral study. May glory and honour be given to Him.

My supreme gratitude goes to my research supervisors, Proff. M Kruger and M Saayman for all their academic guidance throughout this project. May the Lord richly bless you for your invaluable, tireless and professional supervision. Your level of scholarship, dedication and encouragements during this project were very humbling. Special appreciation is also extended to the entire TREES team at the North-West University, including Hanneri Borstlap. To Clarina Vorster, thank you for your assistance in the language and technical editing of this thesis, and in the abstract translations.

I wish to also thank my wife Linet, my two daughters Tamirirashe and Taonashe and my parents and siblings for all their emotional and spiritual support during this project. To all the tour guides and tourists who participated in this study, I salute you a million times for the time you spent expressing your thoughts to my research questions. Your insights were so enriching and are captured in this work. Mr. and Mrs. Dumisile Ncube, thank you very much for accommodating me in your house during my data collection phase at Victoria Falls. You were such a rarely hospitable family, please keep the faith. May the Lord abundantly bless you all.

I am also grateful to the management of the following organisations who supported me during my data collection period: Wildhorizons, Shearwater Adventurers, Wilderness Safaris, Africa Travel, Tour link, Victoria Falls Hotel, Elephant Hills Hotel, Victoria Falls Safari Lodge, Love for Africa, Adventure Zone, Cresta Sprayview Hotel, Dingane tours, Zimbabwe Tourism Authority, the Zimbabwe Professional Guides and Hunters Association, the Civil Aviation Authority of Zimbabwe and the Victoria Falls International Airport. To the North-West University and Chinhoyi University of Technology

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ABSTRACT

Despite growing academic interest in memorable experiences, very limited research has examined how tourism frontline staff should be nurtured to become co-creators of memorable tourism experiences, particularly the tour guides. Limited research has to date also focused on this important topic from a developing country context. While tour guides, who are an important interface between the host destination and its visitors, have the ability to transform a tourist's visit from a tour into an experience, it is ironic that the training of tour guides in Zimbabwe is noted by scholars to be lamentably weak, loosely coordinated and insufficient to develop a guide who is competent enough to deliver in specialised tourist nuggets. The main goal of this thesis was therefore to assess key tour guide competences required to co-create memorable tourism experiences in Zimbabwe and how they are developed.

To help achieve the study's goal, five objectives were formulated. The first objective, namely "a literature based analysis of memorable tourism experiences and how tour guides can influence their development", was achieved in Chapters 2 and 3. The second objective on analysing Zimbabwe's tour guide educational and training systems by means of a literature review was achieved in Chapter 4. Objective three, intended to provide an overview of the methodological approach followed in the empirical phases of the study, was fulfilled in Chapter 5 by using a concurrent mixed method approach. In this research approach, a seven (7) page questionnaire was administered to 384 tourists, while an interview guide was administered to 46 tour and field guides. The study's fourth objective and its five sub-objectives regarding the results of both the quantitative and qualitative research phases were addressed in respectively Chapters 6 and 7. The study's fifth objective: "to draw conclusions and make recommendations regarding tour guide competences for the co-creation of memorable tourism experiences in Zimbabwe" was achieved through Chapter 8.

SPSS Statistics v23 and SPSS Amos v 23 were used to analyse the quantitative data, with some analysis tools being employed which included the one-way analysis of

variance, factor analyses, regression analyses and the descriptive statistics. Qualitative data was thematically analysed using Creswell's six steps. The study's results and the proposed model concluded that the key tour guide competences to co-create memorable tourism experiences are personality traits, emotional intelligence and cultural intelligence (PEC), with emotional intelligence contributing the largest positive influence. These three key competences were noted to comprise 22 sub-scale items as follows: personality traits (the ability to understand and manage others' emotions, the ability to entertain, acting skills, counselling skills, leadership skills, interpreting skills), emotional intelligence (commitment, having a sense of responsibility, honesty and trustworthiness, adaptability and flexibility, optimism and positive thinking, knowledge of the destination and tourism products and right attitude with respect to service) and cultural intelligence (knowledge of cultural values and religious beliefs, legal and economic systems, marriage systems, the arts and crafts of the tourists' cultures, knowledge of the rules for expressing non-verbal behaviour in tourists' cultures, knowledge of the rules of tourists' languages, ability to change non-verbal and verbal behaviour when interacting with tourists, and mindfulness of others' cultural preferences and norms).

About fourteen (14) of these PEC (personality, emotional and cultural) competences emerged from the qualitative phase and validated the quantitative findings. These emergent competences were "the ability to entertain, flexibility, knowledge of local culture, knowledge of local marriage systems, knowledge of destination and products, right attitude with respect to service, commitment, leadership skills, interpreting skills, problem solving, responsiveness, optimism and determination, mindfulness of others' cultural preferences and norms and knowledge of the vocabulary and grammar of tourists' languages".

All the competences were noted to be developable through education and training. The study recommends that the current tour guide training curricula and delivery methods in Zimbabwe be reviewed and strengthened by the adoption of apposite education and training approaches that promote the inculcation of the identified PEC competences

among tour guides. These include, among others, the experiential training approaches. The most significant contribution is that this study removes the perceived ambiguity in tourism human capital development by proposing, to the best understanding of the researcher, the first ever model of key tour guide competences to co-create memorable tourism experiences. Tour guide trainers and tour companies will thus benefit by understanding the relevant competences they can prioritise during their education and training initiatives, leading to a more efficient allocation of their resources.

Keywords: Tour guide, competence, memorable tourism experience, co-creation personality traits, emotional intelligence, cultural intelligence, Zimbabwe.

OPSOMMING

Ten spyte van 'n groeiende akademiese belangstelling in onvergeetlike ervarings, is daar baie beperkte navorsing nog gedoen oor hoe pionier personeel in die toerismebedryf, en veral toergidse, gekoester moet word om mede-skeppers van onvergeetlike toerisme-ervarings te word. Min navorsing het ook tot op hede gefokus op hierdie belangrike onderwerp binne die konteks van 'n ontwikkelende land. Terwyl toergidse, wat 'n belangrike skakel is tussen die gasheer bestemming en die besoekers, die vermoë het om die besoek van 'n toerist te transformeer van 'n toer na 'n ervaring, is dit ironies dat die opleiding van toergidse in Zimbabwe ongelukkig deur leerders opgemerk is as swak, losweg gekoördineer en onvoldoende om 'n gids te voorsien wat bekwaam genoeg is om gespesialiseerde toerisme ervarings te lewer. Die hoofdoel van hierdie tesis was dus om die belangrike toergidsvaardighede wat nodig is om onvergeetlike toerisme-ervarings in Zimbabwe te help skep en die ontwikkeling daarvan te evalueer.

Om die doel van hierdie studie te bereik, is vyf doelwitte geformuleer. Die eerste doelwit, naamlik "'n literatuur gebaseerde analise van onvergeetlike toerisme-ervarings en hoe toergidse die ontwikkeling daarvan kan beïnvloed", is aangespreek in Hoofstukke 2 en 3. Die tweede doelwit is bereik in Hoofstuk 4, na die ontleding van Zimbabwe se toergids opvoedkundige en opleidingstelsels, deur middel van 'n literatuuroorsig. Doelwit drie, wat bedoel was om 'n oorsig te verskaf van die metodologiese benadering wat in die empiriese fases van die studie gevolg is, is vervul in Hoofstuk 5, deur die gebruik van 'n konkurrente gemengdemetode-benadering. Tydens hierdie navorsingsbenadering is 'n sewe (7) bladsy vraelys geadministreer aan 384 toeriste, terwyl 'n onderhoudsgids geadministreer is aan 46 toer- en veldgidse. Die studie se vierde doel en vyf sub-doelwitte met betrekking tot die resultate van beide die kwantitatiewe en kwalitatiewe navorsingsfases is aangespreek in onderskeidelik Hoofstukke 6 en 7. Die studie se vyfde doel, naamlik "om gevolgtrekkings en aanbevelings te maak met betrekking tot toergidsvaardighede vir die mede-skepping van onvergeetlike toerisme-ervarings in Zimbabwe", is bereik in Hoofstuk 8.

SPSS Statistics v23 en SPSS Amos v23 is gebruik om die kwantitatiewe data te ontleed, tesame met 'n paar analise-instrumente wat eenrigting-variensieanalise, faktorontleding, regressie-ontledings en beskrywende statistiek insluit. Kwalitatiewe data is tematies ontleed met behulp van Creswell se ses stappe. Deur die resultate van die studie en die voorgestelde model is tot die gevolgtrekking gekom dat die belangrikste toergidsvaardighede wat nodig is om onvergeetlike toerisme-ervarings te help skep, persoonlikheidseienskappe, emosionele intelligensie en kulturele intelligensie (PEK) is, met emosionele intelligensie wat die grootste positiewe invloed het. Hierdie drie belangrike vaardighede is in berekening gebring met die samestelling van die volgende 22 sub-skaal items: persoonlikheidseienskappe (die vermoë om ander se emosies te verstaan en te bestuur, die vermoë om te vermaak, waarnemingsvaardighede, beradingsvaardighede, leierskapsvaardighede, interpretasievaardighede), emosionele intelligensie (verbintenis, 'n sin vir verantwoordelikheid, eerlikheid en betroubaarheid, aanpasbaarheid en buigzaamheid, optimisme en positiewe denke, kennis van die bestemming en toerisme-produkte en die regte gesindheid ten opsigte van diens) en kulturele intelligensie (kennis van kulturele waardes en godsdienstige oortuigings, wetlike en ekonomiese stelsels, huwelikstelsels, kuns en kunsvlyt rakende toeriste se kultuur, kennis van die reëls vir die uitdrukking van nie-verbale gedrag in toeriste se kulture, kennis van die reëls van toeriste se tale, die vermoë om nie-verbale en verbale gedrag te verander tydens interaksie met toeriste en bewustheid van ander se kulturele voorkeure en norme). Ongeveer veertien (14) van hierdie PEK (persoonlikheids-, emosionele en kulturele) vaardighede het na vore gekom uit die kwalitatiewe fase en bekragtig die kwantitatiewe bevindinge. Hierdie ontluikende vaardighede was "die vermoë om te vermaak, buigzaamheid, kennis van die plaaslike kultuur, kennis van plaaslike huwelikstelsels, kennis van bestemming en produkte, die regte gesindheid ten opsigte van diens, toewyding, leierskapsvaardighede, interpretasievaardighede, probleemoplossing, 'n responsiewe ingesteldheid, optimisme en vasberadenheid, bewustheid van kulturele voorkeure en norme en kennis van die woordeskat en grammatika van toeriste se tale".

Dit blyk dat al die vaardighede ontwikkelbaar is deur middel van onderwys en opleiding. Die studie beveel aan dat die huidige toergids opleidingskurrikulum en afleweringmetodes in Zimbabwe hersien en versterk word deur die aanvaarding van gepaste onderwys- en opleidingsbenaderings wat die inskerping van die geïdentifiseerde PEK vaardighede onder toergidse bevorder. Dit sluit onder andere ervarings opleidingsbenaderings in. Die belangrikste bydrae is dat hierdie studie die vermeende dubbelsinnigheid in toerisme mensontwikkeling die hok slaan deur die bekendstelling van, na die beste begrip van die navorser, die heel eerste model van die belangrikste toergidsvaardighede om onvergeetlike toerisme-ervarings te help skep. Toergidsinstrukteurs en toermaatskappye sal dus voordeel trek uit die begrip van die relevante vaardighede wat hulle kan prioritiseer tydens hul onderwys- en opleidingsinisiatiewe, wat sal lei tot 'n meer doeltreffende aanwending van hul hulpbronne.

Sleutelwoorde: toergids, vaardigheid, onvergeetlike toerisme-ervaring, mede-skepping persoonlikheidseienskappe, emosionele intelligensie, kulturele intelligensie, Zimbabwe.

ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS

ANOVA	Analysis of Variance
CAAZ	Civil Aviation Authority of Zimbabwe
CFA	Confirmatory Factor Analysis
CHAID	Chi Square Automatic Interaction Detector
DTA	Decision Tree Analysis
ECI	Emotional Intelligence Inventory
EFA	Exploratory Factor Analysis
EFTGA	European Federation of Tourist Guide Associations
EI / EQ	Emotional Intelligence
FFM	Five Factor Model
HCT	Human Capital Theory
IQ	Intellectual Intelligence
KMO	Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of sampling adequacy
MIIC	Mean Inter Item Correlation
MTE	Memorable Tourism Experience
NWU	North-West University
OCEAN	Openness, Experience, Conscientiousness, Extraversion, Agreeableness and Neuroticism

OECD	Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development
PCA	Principal Component Analysis
PEC	Personality traits, Emotional and Cultural intelligence
SPSS	Statistical Package for the Social Sciences
TGII	Tour Guiding Interactional Intelligence
UNWTO	United Nations World Tourism Organisation
UZ	University of Zimbabwe
WFTGA	World Federation Tourist Guide Association
ZPGHA	Zimbabwe Professional Hunters and Guides Association
ZPWMA	Zimbabwe Parks and Wildlife Management Authority
ZTA	Zimbabwe Tourism Authority

APPENDICES

APPENDIX 1 Quantitative research instrument

APPENDIX 2 Interview guide

APPENDIX 3 Research confirmation letters

Appendix 3a Wildhorizons

Appendix 3b Shearwater Adventurers

Appendix 3c Africa Travel

Appendix 3d Tour link, Victoria Falls Hotel

Appendix 3e Victoria Falls Safari Lodge

Appendix 3f Cresta Sprayview Hotel

APPENDIX 4 List of organisations that consented to research

APPENDIX 5 Civil Aviation Authority of Zimbabwe research approval letter

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CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION, PROBLEM STATEMENT, OBJECTIVES AND METHOD OF RESEARCH

1.1 Introduction

The memorable tourism experience (MTEs) concept is a recently emerging phenomenon that has become a focal point for current tourism research (Kim & Ritchie, 2014:323; Lee, 2015:155,159; Tung & Ritchie, 2011:1367). Pine and Gilmore (1998:97) observed that the global economy has drastically transformed from being service based to being experience based and that this change will continue “so long our needs and the needs of the society continue to change”. This view is also supported by Azedevo (2009:3) and Sthapit (2013:20) who noted that experiences are now viewed to be the latest economic progression and that the provision of experiences as opposed to provision of goods or services represents the most advanced form of differentiated position for organisations. This global economic evolution has not circumvented the tourism industry either. Knutson, Beck, Him and Cha (2006:31-47) concur with the previous observations and point out that the tourism industry, the world over, is transforming from a product-focused, physical-asset intensive business to a customer-focused, experience-centric one. The essence of tourism today is therefore centered on the “development and delivery of travel and visitation experiences” (Kim & Ritchie, 2014:323; Lee, 2015:155,159; Ritchie, Tung & Ritchie, 2011:419).

One should therefore realise that the tourism industry has now entered a new global economic dispensation where successful tourism destinations are those that will strive towards delivering “experiences” rather than hanging on to the traditional models of merely providing “standardised services and products”. The provision of memorable experiences is now at the heart of what tourism is all about, as tourists today seem to attach more value to the former than the latter. To embrace this new paradigm, players in the tourism industry are therefore recognising the need to lift the nature of their tourism products and services to the level of a memorable experience. Kruger and Saayman (2012:63-77) define a memorable experience as that experience which

visitors not only remember but also treasure long after the event is over. This view is supported by Kim, Ritchie and McCormick (2012:13) who define a memorable tourism experience as “a tourism experience that is positively remembered and recalled after the event has occurred”. Pine and Gilmore (1999:11) shed more light on the difference between commodities, goods, services and experiences by stating that “while commodities are fungible, goods tangible and services intangible, experiences are memorable”.

Extant tourism literature emphasises the importance for destinations to provide memorable experience because memory has been seen to be the single most important source of information when one intends to make a decision on whether to revisit a location or not (Kozak, 2001:784-807; Lehto, O’Leary & Morrison, 2004:801-818; Mazursky, 1989:333-344; Wirtz, Kruger, Scollon & Diener, 2003:520-524). It has also been observed that memorable tourism experiences are very strong predictors of future destination selection as tourists can choose to return to a destination based on the extent to which they positively remember their previous experience of that given destination. Research also associates tourists’ memorable experiences with other positive outcome factors such as spreading positive word-of-mouth (Woodside, Caldwell & Albers-Miller, 2004:1–7). Therefore it is clear that the ability to provide memorable experiences has become very pivotal in today’s tourism marketplace and destinations need to concomitantly adapt themselves in order to attain optimum competitiveness.

With rising global competition, the ability of the human factor to deliver memorable experiences is emerging to be very key in the tourism industry world-wide (Baum, Amoah & Spivack, 1997:229; Bharwani & Jauhari, 2013:827). However there appears to be little transfer of information among staff on how best they should deliver the memorable tourism experiences (Carmody, 2013:680). Efforts should therefore be directed to see how human capital can be effectively maneuvered to facilitate the development of memorable tourism experiences. For the purpose of this study, the focus was specifically placed on competences which include various aspects such as knowledge, expertise and skills, which ultimately may maximise organisational

productivity, outputs and a greater economic development (Abdullah, 2012:64; Becker, 1993:15). Subsequently, focus was specifically placed on exploring competences required to create memorable tourism experiences.

Boyatzis (1982:21) defined a competence as “the underlying characteristics of a person that lead to or cause effective and outstanding performance”. This definition is supported by Parry (1996:50) who expanded the understanding of a competence by viewing it as a cluster of related knowledge, skills and attitudes that affects a major part of one’s job that correlates with performance on the job, that can be measured against well-accepted standards and that can be improved via training and development. Examples include problem solving, analytical thinking, or leadership skills (Mirabile, 1997:75). With the advent of the experience economy, the increasing competition levels in the global tourism sector have changed the operational landscape and skills set needed by frontline employees to work competently (Chung, 2000:473-487). This means tourism organisations need to develop, in their frontline employees, competences which will enable them to achieve “a level of engagement that goes significantly beyond that encapsulated within traditional skills model of the sector” (Baum, 2006:126).

Tour guides are one of the key front-liners of the tourism industry. They are an essential interface between the host destination and its visitors (Chang, Kung & Luh, 2012:192) and have the ability to transform the tourists’ visit from a tour into an experience (Ap & Wong, 2000:551; Black & Weiler, 2005:24; Chowdhary & Prakash, 2008:288; Rabotic, 2011:152). In addition their performance can repeat existing and generate new business and also affect the image of destinations themselves (Zhang & Chow, 2004:82). This therefore underpins the need for understanding the competences required by tour guides for effective tourist engagement. In spite of the above observations, very few studies about the professional status and issues faced by the tour guiding profession have been reported globally (Chang *et al.*, 2012:192) and worse still, specifically on a developing country such as Zimbabwe (Nyahunzvi & Njerekai, 2013:4). For this reason, this study was done from both a supply and demand perspective.

The purpose of this chapter is to discuss the research process followed in this study. This encompasses a discussion on the background of the study, analysing the problem statement, followed by the goal and objectives of the study, the research methodology, definitions of key concepts and lastly, the chapter classification.

1.2 Background to the study

The background to the study is divided into five sub-sections. The first section gives a summary of the theories related to the study. This is followed by a discussion on tour guides covering the supply and demand side perspectives that culminate in a proposed conceptual framework for the study. Emphasis is also placed on the previous research done on the topic globally and specifically on Zimbabwe.

1.2.1 Theories related to memorable tourism experiences and human capital development

This research falls within the ambit of two main theories namely the memorable experience theory and the human capital theory. The memorable experience theory argues that, services, like goods before them, are becoming more and more commoditised and as a result, organisations must strive to add value to their offerings with the provision of meaningful and memorable experiences (Pine & Gilmore, 1998:97–108). Pine and Gilmore (1998:97–108) further point out that organisations must orchestrate memorable events for their customers and that memory itself becomes the product, the “experience”. This position has achieved considerable support from scholars (e.g. Berry & Bendapudi, 2003:1-10; Gupta & Vajic, 2000:33-51; Schmitt, 1999:53-67). Given this emerging importance of memorable experiences, it is thus critical for tourism researchers to identify and interrogate antecedent factors that facilitate formation of these memorable tourism experiences. Hence the need to also explore the antecedent role played by tour guides in the formation of memorable tourism experiences.

Subsequent to the above, this study is also hinged on the human capital theory (HCT). Human capital is defined as the investment of organisations in education and training to increase employees' "knowledge, expertise, and skills, which ultimately may maximise organisational productivity, outputs and a greater economic development" (Abdullah, 2012:64; Becker, 1993:15). The human capital theory rests on the assumption that education and training are highly instrumental and necessary to improve the productive capacity of a population (Almendarez, 2011:1) and of tour guides in particular (Black, Ham & Weiler, 2001:147-149; Christie & Mason, 2003:14). This theory further propounds that an educated population is a productive population. An investment in human capital is thus considered to lead to greater employee performance and subsequent economic outputs. Consequently the theory seems to imply the necessity for tourism businesses to identify specific human competences needed and how they are developed in staff for them to be better positioned to provide memorable tourism experiences. Further discussions of these two theories have been reserved for the literature chapters.

1.2.2 *Understanding tour guides*

According to the World Federation Tourist Guide Association (WFTGA, 2003:1), a tour guide is "a person who guides visitors in the language of their choice and interprets the cultural and natural heritage of an area in which the person normally possesses an area-specific qualification, usually issued and/or recognised by the appropriate authority". Black and Ham (2005:178) concur with the above view and define a tour guide as "a person who guides groups or individuals on visits around the buildings, sites and landscapes of a city or region and who interprets in the language of the visitor's choice, the cultural and natural heritage and environment". While the preceding definitions seem to give prominence to the informative role of tour guides, it should be noted that this profession does not exist merely to be a "mindless rattling of information but the job calls for commitment, enthusiasm and integrity as the entire experience of the tourist lies in their hands" (Ang, 1990:171). A guide's role thus extends well beyond

welcoming and informing tourists (Dahles, 2002:783). Hence the importance of human capital development among tour guides as discussed in the next section.

1.2.3 Importance of human capital development among tour guides

If properly developed, tour guides have the ability to transform a visitor's sightseeing activities into a truly memorable learning experience (Ap & Wong, 2001:551). Previous studies seem to indicate that the demand side of tourism expects tour guides to possess, among others, the following competences: punctuality, the ability to solve problems, having knowledge of the destination, being honest and trustworthy and being informed of safety regulations (Chang, 2014:222). Additional competences also include good presentation ability, a sense of responsibility, friendliness, interpretive ability, professional ability and an ability to coordinate within group members (Wang, Hsieh, Chou & Lin, 2007:361–376).

Further still, tour guides are also expected to perform activities such as that of pathfinder (Cohen, 1985:5-29; Pearce, 1984:129-146), mediator (Leclerc & Martin, 2004:181-200; Ryan & Dewar, 1995:295-303; Yu, Weiler & Ham, 2001:75-87), leader (Geva & Goldman, 1991:177-185), information giver (Dahles, 2002:783-800), cultural broker (Leclerc & Martin, 2004:181-200; Yu *et al.*, 2001:75-87, 2001:75-87), educator (Cohen, 1985:5-29; El-Sharkawy, 2007:77-94; Randall & Rollins, 2009:357-374; Skanavis & Giannoulis, 2009:164-176) as well as entertainer (Holloway, 1981:377-402).

Contrastingly, from a supply side perspective, tour guides are expected to function as a buffer (Leclerc & Martin, 2004:181-200; Zhang & Chow, 2004:81-91), motivator (Cohen, 1985:5-29; Weiler & Davis, 1993:91-98), counsellor-guide (Cohen, Ifergan & Cohen, 2002:919-932), environment protector (Armstrong & Weiler, 2002:104-121; Randall & Rollins, 2009:357-374; Weiler & Ham, 2002:52-69), caretaker (Kong, Cheung & Baum, 2009:66); interpretation and information provider (Black & Ham, 2005:178) and as facilitators of marketing (Wang, Hsieh & Chen, 2002:489–498).

It was therefore this study's intention to further explore among these several tour guiding competences, those that are particularly indispensable in the creation of memorable tourism experiences.

1.2.4 Some of the tour guiding research in the past fifteen (15) years

A review of scholarly papers, to the best knowledge of the researcher, seem to suggest that limited attempts have been done to explore the key tour guiding competences in the creation of memorable tourism experiences in the tour guiding industry. This is evident in Table 1.1 which profiles most of the tour guiding studies conducted in the past fifteen years, a period noted to be coinciding with the emergency of the experience economy as advanced by Pine and Gilmore (1998:97-105).

Table 1.1: Some of the tour guiding research in the past 15 years

Author and Year	General purpose for research	Major findings from research
Ap and Wong (2001)	The study looked at the nature of tour guiding in Hong Kong, examining the current level of Professional service standards, including the issues and challenges facing the profession in this 21st century.	The study noted that tour guiding in Hong Kong is characterised by the lack of a basic training course for the new entrants and an absence of training opportunities in general which has partially caused, some variable levels of professionalism, a lack of recognition and a poor image of the profession.
Black <i>et al.</i> (2001)	To identify the types of eco tour guide training being presently delivered in less developed countries and to highlight some key issues and research priorities for eco tour guide training.	Findings showed the majority of guide trainings were offered on a formal basis by the training providers and NGOs. The length of the training was noted to vary mostly from 7–140 days, depending on the training institution; with operators (short) or tertiary institutions (long). The study further noted that more work is needed to determine the effectiveness of both approaches and which

		training needs are best met by formal training.
Christie and Mason (2003)	To examine how tour guides can be trained and developed to become critically reflective practitioners.	The study suggests that effective training and development should result in a change, not only in terms of knowledge and skills, but also in attitudes and behaviour. It further argues that effective guide training should change how guides think and act and suggests that if trainee guides learn how to critique their own knowledge, attitudes and behaviour, they will be able to offer their clients (tourists) something better and authentic.
Zhang and Chow (2004)	To assess the performance of Hong Kong's tour guides as perceived by mainland Chinese outbound visitors using the importance-performance analysis (IPA) model.	The results of the study show that Hong Kong's tour guides did well in 11 out of the 20 service quality attributes. These were mainly related to their professional skills of, reliability and language ability, while the problem-solving ability of Hong Kong's tour guides fell into the concentrate here quadrant.
Leclerc and Martin (2004)	To assess cross-national variations in the perceived importance of communication competences of tour guides.	The study noted that there are major differences in the perceptions of important communication competences among nationality groups. The study was seen to raise some questions on the appropriateness of applying US competence frameworks to other cultural groups. It was recommended that tour guides might enhance their perceived competence depending on the nationality of the group they are leading.
Black and Weiler (2005)	To explore a range of quality assurance and regulatory	The results indicated that, a combination of mechanisms would be most appropriate in

	mechanisms with the potential to enhance the performance of tour guides.	order to raise awareness and enhancement of individual guide performance as well as guiding across the industry.
Salazar (2006)	To analyse how global discourses are locally (re)produced by tour guides.	The study established that guides do not merely reproduce the narratives and practices they were taught at school; but they themselves become creative storytellers, often subtly questioning or contesting the normative templates.
Lugosi and Bray (2008)	This paper investigates the impacts of organisational culture on the learning and development of tour guides.	The paper suggests that the development of a learning culture within such an organisation may benefit from the provision of appropriate learning opportunities among the guides and facilitators who coordinate guide development.
Mak, Wong and Chang (2009)	The study was set to examine the factors affecting the service quality of the tour guiding profession in Macau.	Six factors were identified in the results, which are: unhealthy business practices, market domination, immaturity of tourist market, changing tourist behaviour, intense competition between inbound tour operators and human resource issues.
Randall and Rollins (2009)	This study focused on the importance and performance of the various roles of the tour guide based on Cohen's (1985) model, as modified by Weiler and Davis (1993).	The results show strong support for five of the six tour guide roles which are instrumental, social, interaction, motivator of responsible behaviour and environmental interpreter. Less support was evident for the communicative role.
Huang, Hsu and Chan (2010)	This looks at tour guide performance and its relationship with tourist satisfaction in the	Tourist satisfaction was conceptualised as including three aspects/layers: satisfaction with guiding service, satisfaction with tour

	context of package tours in Shanghai.	services and satisfaction with the overall tour experience. Tour guide performance was found to have a significant direct effect on tourist satisfaction.
Huang and Weiler (2010)	This paper evaluates the effectiveness of China's tour guiding quality assurance system as an instrument for sustainable tourism.	Findings revealed that tour guide quality assurance in China may be constrained by an over-dependence on government being worsened by the absence of industry-driven mechanisms. It was noted that the focus of China's quality assurance system is on a limited number of tour guiding roles and tends to overlook those most critical to making the guide a vehicle for sustainable tourism.
Avcikurt, Koroglu, Koroglu and Avcikurt (2011)	To ascertain Turkish tour guides' awareness and attitudes regarding HIV and AIDS.	The respondents showed a reasonable to excellent degree of knowledge about HIV and AIDS. Nonetheless, the survey exposed some common misconceptions about HIV/AIDS, indicating that tour guides require additional training in the mechanisms of HIV transmission.
Prakash, Chowdhary and Sunayana (2011)	The research examined the guiding challenges as perceived by tour guides in northern and eastern regions of India.	The study established six important factors for tour guides in India namely; quality of job, deficiency in skills, problems of general working environment, challenges from within the immediate tourism context, perceived attractiveness of the (tour guide) job and quality of tourism infrastructure.
Yamada (2011)	The study was set to review the literature to illustrate the importance of tour guiding in achieving policy and ecotourism	The study suggested that non-profit organisations should offer training on guiding roles and interpretation at a national level and that the ecotourism promotion councils train

	goals.	at a regional level.
Min (2012)	The aimed to develop a Chinese short-form measure for assessment of emotional intelligence for tour guides.	The study produced a 35 item scale with 6 sub-scales that can be used to assess emotional intelligence of guides.
Manwa and Boemah (2012)	The purpose of this paper was to examine the performance management methods used by South African National Parks (SANParks) to assess the effectiveness of interpretive tour guiding. On tourist enjoyment and sustainability of natural resources in national parks and other protected areas.	The study established that there was no concurrence among both the park managers and tour guides regarding performance appraisal methods adopted by SANParks. SANParks have some form of performance appraisal mainly through its website which offers tourists an opportunity to express their views on the effectiveness of interpretive guiding. Nonetheless, the internal customers, who are the employees and park managers are either not aware of its existence or are not effectively using it.
Jonasson and Scherle (2012)	The study explored the complexity involved in guided tours and an analysis of the performative aspects of guided tours.	The study revealed that the performative aspects of guiding tourists involve interpretations, mediations and translations through verbal and bodily communication, the ability to engage by producing intense moments through narratives and creative affordances. The study also concluded that it is a challenge to actually use the variety of scientific perspectives offered within tourism education programmes in order to produce hybrid study outcomes.
Nyahunzvi and Njerekai (2013)	To assess the key issues and challenges facing Zimbabwe's tour guiding profession.	The study noted a matrix of challenges faced in Zimbabwe's tour guiding profession which include lack of job security, low remuneration, a limited and expensive training curricular

		and low career development opportunities.
Carmody (2013)	The paper examined the provision of intensive professional development schools to enhance the standards of professionalism for nature-based tour guides in remote regions.	The study noted that the provision of professional development schools in nature-based tourism regions consequently benefits the guide and the tour guiding industry and contributes to the protection of the natural environment.
Chang (2014)	The study examined the effect of tour guide performance on tourist shopping behaviour.	The results showed that tour guide performance has positive effects on perceived credibility trust, perceived benevolence trust and tourist satisfaction.

Source: Developed by researcher from existing literature

After assessing Table 1.1, it is possible for one to conclude that most of the tour guiding literature presented addresses issues to do with challenges being faced in the sector, quality assurance and training and performance management. In addition, it is also noteworthy to observe that most of the tour guide performance/competence related studies identified above seem to be mostly drawing responses from the demand side as opposed to the supply side of tourism (Huang *et al.*, 2010:3–33; Leclerc & Martin, 2004:181-200; Min, 2012:155–167; Randall & Rollins, 2009:357-374; Zhang & Chow, 2004:81–91). This attests to the need to explore tour guiding perspectives from a supply side dimension as well; a gap which this current research attempts to fill.

Despite the notable advances in tour guiding studies shown in Table 1.1, more so in the area of training (e.g. by Black *et al.*, 2001:1-10; Carmody, 2013:679-694; Christie & Mason, 2003:1-16; Lugosi & Bray, 2008:467–479), it is however still clear that only minimal work has been conducted (Min, 2012:155–167) to open horizons on the exact human competences essential for the co-creation of a memorable tourism experience. The next sub-section therefore represents an attempt to identify these key competences

as discoursed by scholars in other competence related literature. A conceptual framework is hence proposed.

1.2.5 Antecedent tour guiding competences for memorable tourism experiences development

As already indicated, this sub-section proposes the conceptual framework of this study and discusses the competences required by tour guides to transition from simply being “service providers” to facilitators of “memorable tourism experiences “as provided in the competence related literature. Although very limited scholarly research exists on this area (Huang *et al.*, 2010:4), as illustrated in Figure 1.1, this study proposes a construct of “Tour Guiding Intelligence” (TGI) which embraces the key competences required by the tour guides.

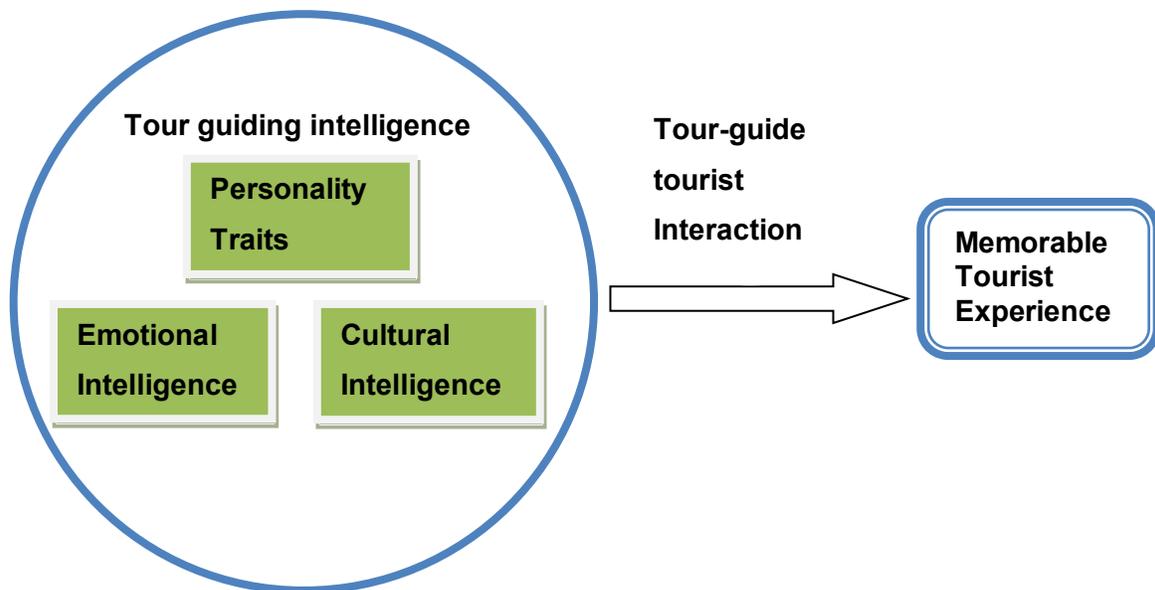


Figure 1.1: Proposed conceptual framework of tour guide competences to co-create memorable tourism experiences

Source: Developed by the researcher from existing literature

In this proposed framework, tour guiding intelligence will encompass the personality traits, emotional intelligence and cultural intelligence (Wong & Lee, 2012:15; Bharwani

& Jauhari, 2013:827; Carvelzani, Lee, Locatelli, Monti & Villamira, 2003:1-24; Min, 2012:2; Sthapit, 2013:10). Intelligence is defined by Kihlstrom and Cantor (2000:359-379) as an individual's ability to learn and reason and the term is commonly interchanged with "competence". Salovey and Mayer (1990:189) defined emotional intelligence as "the ability to monitor one's own and others" feelings and emotions, to discriminate among them and to use this information to guide one's thinking and actions. Considerable evidence supports the notion that those with high levels of emotional intelligence are able to understand their own and others' emotions, which help them, adapt to challenging situations, solve problems more effectively and maintain a positive outlook (Min, 2012:2). Similarly, Carvelzani *et al.* (2003:1-24) point out that emotional intelligence is especially crucial for professionals in the tourism industry to have the ability to manage, regulate and control their emotions in order to constructively and effectively interact with others. Recent studies on the determinants of memorable tourism experiences have attached more value to those experiences that create positive emotions and feelings in tourists (Xu & Chan, 2010:140; Sthapit, 2013:10). By learning, knowing and using emotional intelligence competences, local guides can thus be better equipped to arouse pleasurable emotions which may further trigger travellers' memories of a trip (Carvelzani *et al.*, 2003:10). This study therefore proposes that tour guides need emotional intelligence as one of the competences necessary to effectively facilitate the creation of memorable tourism experiences.

In addition to emotional intelligence, it is also proposed that tour guides should possess cultural intelligence. This refers to the capabilities of an individual to intelligently deal with situations marked by cultural diversity (Bharwani & Jauhari, 2013:831). It provides individuals with insights and capabilities to deal with multi-cultural situations and engage in cross-cultural encounters. When tourists and hosts are from different nationalities, sensitivity to cultures could play an important role in building memorable interactions (Bharwani & Jauhari, 2013:831). A tour guide acts as a cultural interface between the visitors and the host population and plays a vital role in interpreting the host culture to visitors (Huang *et al.*, 2010:6). Moreover, local culture has also been identified to be an

important component of the tourist's experience and is likely to affect one's memory (Kim, 2010:792).

As already been noted, the study also theorises that tour guides need the appropriate personality traits in order to co-create memorable tourism experiences. Lim and Aylett (2007:4) note that besides emotions (emotional intelligence); personality plays an important role in the guide. This view is consistent with the trait theory in which Allport (1961) posit that a person's behaviour will be generated consistent with his or her personality traits. Most social researchers of every discipline also seem to concur with this view by acknowledging that the importance of the impact of personality on human behaviour dates back to Aristotle (Ranjbarian, Forghani & Ghafari, 2013:22). Given that personality traits can thus influence and explain an employee's work related behaviour, tour and safari companies emphasise personal characteristics during their recruitment and selection of guides (Valkonen, Huilaja & Koikkalainen, 2013:237). It is argued that employees possessing enduring personality traits are able to induce customer-oriented behaviour (Johari & Hee, 2013:213) which can subsequently facilitate the development of memorable tourism experiences. These observations are validated by Wong and Lee (2012:15), who have also noted that the personality traits of tour guides, by virtue of being the first point of contact for visitors, can impact tourists' satisfaction and how they feel when they leave the destination. Thus, Preji (2014:56) is of the opinion that "If you enjoy taking people around, and you are genuinely concerned about providing them with a good experience, it will reflect in your personality... a guide's personality in that sense is part of the experience that tourists have purchased".

Explaining the proposed conceptual model (Figure 1.1) further, the researcher posits that, in addition to the emotional intelligence, cultural intelligence and appropriate personality traits in tour guides, there is need for an effective interaction to take place between the guide and the tourists in order for the memorable tourism experience to take place. This is because tourists have been identified to be indispensable co-creators of guided tours who can co-write the tourism experience by logging on to and off the guiding (Larsen & Meged, 2013:101). By logging on and off, tourists alternate between

the five different tactics; the participatory, the attentive, the partial, the alternative and the absent and it is recommended that tour guides enact relevant performances applicable to those various phases of tourists' participation (Edensor, 2001:59–60). Hence according to Larsen and Meged (2013:101); “there is no free lunch” as tourists need to be “attentive and participatory” in order for best tourism experiences to be produced in a tour. Tourists should therefore contribute with insights or questions in what Goffman (1959:83–108) refers to as “team work”. Ultimately, for a memorable tourism experience to be created, guides and tourists should work as mutually depending co-producers of the guided tour and these observations are reflected on the proposed conceptual framework in Figure 1.1. This study however focused more on the role of the tour guides rather than of the tourists to co-create the memorable tourism experiences.

1.2.6 Zimbabwe's tour guiding industry

Zimbabwe as a destination has experienced a deteriorating economic and social environment since year 2000 and tourism recovery has repeatedly been identified by government to be one of the key drivers for national economic turnaround (National Tourism Policy, 2011:3; Short Term Economic Recovery Program, 2009:10; Zimbabwe Agenda for Sustainable Socio-Economic Transformation, 2014:30). Various coordinated efforts therefore need to be effected if that magnitude of tourism growth should be achieved. It has already been pointed out that the success of the tourism industry is very much dependent on the performance of tour guides as they can make or break a trip in each destination (Zhang & Chow, 2004:81). This research therefore seems timely as it provides insights that can be used in Zimbabwe's tour guiding industry to consolidate the country's tourism recovery efforts.

Tour guiding in Zimbabwe is collaboratively coordinated by two main bodies which are the Zimbabwe Tourism Authority (ZTA) in conjunction with the University of Zimbabwe (UZ) and the Zimbabwe Parks and Wildlife Management Authority (ZPWMA) in partnership with the Zimbabwe Professional Hunters and Guides Association (ZPGHA).

The Zimbabwe Tourism Authority is an implementing arm that falls under the Ministry of Tourism and Hospitality Industry responsible for, among other functions, training, registration, inspection and licensing tourism operators and regulating the tourism industry. ZTA hence licenses, trains and governs the operations of tour guides in Zimbabwe. The ZPWMA provides the syllabi and sets the examinations for professional hunters and safari guides. The ZPGHA is a voluntary organisation that represents the interests of professional hunters and safari guides. It also assists in the training and examining of professional hunters and safari guides.

Pioneering studies on tour guiding in Zimbabwe identified a lack of coordination and standardisation of the training curricular and industry's input in the setting up of the tour guide training syllabi in Zimbabwe (Nyahunzvi & Njerekai, 2013:5). Furthermore, some of the syllabi and past examination papers of key training institutions were observed "to be too general and not sufficing to produce a professional guide who is competent enough to provide specialised interpretation "for specific tourist nuggets" (Nyahunzvi & Njerekai, 2013:5). Other challenges faced include a lack of job security, low remuneration, a limited and expensive training curricular and low career development opportunities (Nyahunzvi & Njerekai, 2013:3). These observations are clear testimonies of the need to further interrogate the tour guiding profession of Zimbabwe. This study therefore represents a very important building block to the seminal work of Nyahunzvi and Njerekai (2013:3-7) on Zimbabwe's tour guiding industry.

1.3 Problem statement

With the global economy having shifted from a service to an experience economy (Kim & Ritchie, 2014:323; Lee, 2015:155,159; Ritchie *et al.*, 2011:419; Sthapit, 2013:30) the importance of facilitating memorable tourism experiences has also gained substantial support from scholars and policy makers, being viewed as pivotal in creating superior customer value and competitiveness in modern business (Dalton, 2011:6). Despite this notable value attached to memorable experiences, there however appears to be a dearth of scholarly attention on how staff should be developed to facilitate the

development of memorable tourism experiences (Carmody, 2013:680), more so in the tour guiding industry. Tour guides are considered to be an essential interface between the host destination and its visitors (Chang *et al.*, 2012:192) with the potential to transform the tourists' visit from a tour into an experience (Rabotic, 2011:152). The main problem of the study is thus to unearth those key competences, tour guides would need to facilitate the development of memorable experiences. Compounding the problem, is the fact that, in Zimbabwe, tour guide education and training have been noted to be general, loosely coordinated and insufficient to produce a guide competent enough to deliver in specific tourist nuggets (Nyahunzvi & Njerekai, 2013:5).

Using a concurrent mixed method approach, this study therefore sought to answer, among others, the following questions:

- What competences should tour guides possess to co-create memorable experiences according to tourists and according to tour guides?
- How do Zimbabwe's current tour guide education and training initiatives support the development of tour guiding skills?
- What education and training interventions should be initiated to engender the requisite competences in tour guides?

To answer these questions this study assessed tour guide competences needed to create memorable tourism experiences in Zimbabwe.

1.4 Goal of the study

To assess key tour guide competences to co-create memorable tourism experiences.

1.4.1 Specific research objectives

Objective 1

To do a literature based analysis of memorable tourism experiences and how tour guides can influence the development of memorable experiences.

Objective 2

To explore and analyse Zimbabwe's tour guide educational and training systems by means of a literature review.

Objective 3

To provide an overview of the methodological approach followed in the empirical research phases of the study.

Objective 4

To establish the tour guide competences required to co-create memorable tourism experiences in the Zimbabwe tour guiding industry by means of an empirical analysis.

Sub-objectives

1. To assess tourists' and tour guides' perceptions on the nature of tour guiding experience being offered in Zimbabwe's Tour Guiding Industry by means of an empirical analysis.
2. To assess tourists' and tour guides' perceptions on the important tour guide competences (in general) by means of an empirical analysis.
3. To determine the tour guide competences (specifically) important in the co-creation of memorable tourism experiences in Zimbabwe by means of an empirical analysis.
4. To examine the performance of tour guides on the identified memorable tourism experience competences by means of an empirical analysis.
5. To determine education and training interventions required to develop memorable tourism experience competences in tour guides by means of an empirical analysis.

Objective 5

To draw conclusions and make recommendations regarding tour guide competences for the creation of memorable tourism experiences in Zimbabwe.

1.5 Method of research

This section discusses the various methods and procedures that were used to gather and analyse relevant data for the study.

1.5.1 Literature study

Related literature was reviewed and analysed for the purposes of identifying existing concepts, strategies and models that relate to tour guide competences to co-create memorable tourism experiences. Information searches with various combinations of the following keywords were conducted: human capital, competences, emotional intelligence, cultural intelligence, personality traits, tour guiding, memorable tourism experience, education and training and Zimbabwe. The theoretical frameworks of human capital development and memorable tourism experience were investigated. The investigations were done through the analyses of journal articles, theses, dissertations, newspaper articles, text books and other human capital and memorable experience related literature. Information searches were conducted mainly through library catalogues and indexes, as well as the Internet. Scientific databases such as Google Scholar, Science Direct and Ebscohost were also consulted in searching for the most recent, relevant publications and information on the mentioned subject areas. Through these sources, an exploration of the key tour guiding competences influencing the memorable tourism experience in destinations was done. The study thus incorporated both primary and secondary sources.

1.5.2 Empirical survey

The following section highlights the methods chosen to conduct the empirical analysis.

1.5.2.1 *Research design and method of collecting data*

The study adopted a mixed method research design, characterised by a concurrent triangulation strategy, owing to the scarcity of research on the relationship between the tour guiding profession and the delivery of memorable tourism experiences globally. The scarcity of research in these domains has already been confirmed by scholars (e.g. Min, 2012:155–167)

1.5.2.2 *Mixed method research*

In this research design, a combination of qualitative and quantitative methods was employed and such triangulative approaches are a common practice in tour guide studies for example, Black and Ham (2005:181); Manwa and Boemah (2012:46); Wang *et al*, (2002:489-498) as well as Zhang and Chow (2004:83).

An integration of qualitative and quantitative methods served for the mutual validation of data and findings as well as for the production of a more coherent and complete picture of the investigated domain than mono method research can yield (Kelle, 2006:301). Johnson and Turner (2003:299) hold similar views and point out that “all methods have specific limitations and strengths and that qualitative and quantitative methods should be combined in order to compensate for their mutual and overlapping weaknesses”. However, having pointed out the strengths of embarking on a mixed methodological approach above, it is also important for one to acknowledge the time consuming character of such approaches which the researcher counteracted by using less time demanding sampling techniques such as the convenience and random sampling techniques.

1.5.2.3 *Sampling*

In order to fully address the study’s main goal to establish the key tour guide competences to co-create memorable tourism experiences, this study examined both the demand and supply side of the tour guiding industry. On the demand side, the study

used the random sampling technique for selecting tourists for the quantitative survey questionnaire. The tourist survey targeted the population of tourists departing at the country's main tourism hub (Victoria Falls) to ensure that the tourists may correctly answer questions dealing with the assessment of their travel experiences (Leclerc & Martin, 2004:186).

From the supply side perspective, tour and field guides were conveniently and purposively chosen for the interviews. Field guides were also included in the survey as they are an important sub-sector of the tour guiding sector. Purposive sampling is recommended by Strauus and Corbin (as cited by Nyahunzvi & Njerekai, 2013:4) for studies of this nature where some subjects have more intimate knowledge and experience of the phenomenon under investigation than others.

1.5.2.4 Sample size

The target sample size for the survey questionnaire was calculated at 384 tourists out of a population of 301239 (ZTA, 2012:49) and 50 tour and field guides. There are about 182 registered freelance tour guides in Zimbabwe (ZTA, 2014:1) and the population of tour and field guides who are permanently employed by tour companies in Zimbabwe is unknown. The sample size for tourists was calculated using the Krejcie and Morgan (1970:607-610) formula.

1.5.2.5 Development of the survey instruments

As indicated in sub-section 1.5.2.3, the researcher undertook the study from both the demand and supply side of tourism. Hence two survey instruments were deemed most appropriate. A survey questionnaire was specifically designed to address the research objectives that directly dealt with the tourists perceptions on the variables under study. On the other hand, the interview guide was developed to be administered to the tour guides (*see sections 5.8 and 5.9 for a more detailed discussion on the development of survey instruments*).

1.5.2.6 *The survey*

The tourist surveys (demand side) were administered toward the end of the tourists' travel experiences to ensure that the tourists correctly answer questions dealing with the assessment of their travel experiences (Leclerc & Martin, 2004:186). The study therefore targeted tourists who were departing from the country's major tourist region and mostly at the airport (The Victoria Falls International Airport). Other questionnaires were left at selected accommodation establishments and tour operating companies so that willing tourists could also access them from those points.

From the supply side perspective tour guides were surveyed using a combination of purposive, convenience as well as the snowball sampling techniques. Purposive sampling was adopted for tour guides. The researcher obtained a registered list of tour guides from the ZTA which was used for contacting the interviews. It can be noted from the list that at least 90% of the registered guides are based in the Victoria Falls, which is Zimbabwe's prime tourist destination (Chikuta, 2015:178). The snowball technique was mostly applied to identify the field guides whom the researcher failed to secure their contacts list from the Zimbabwe National Parks and Wildlife Management Authority. A few contacts were however obtained through the ZPHGA who posted on their website to encourage their members to notify the researcher if they were willing to take the interview. Using the snowball technique, the surveyed tour guides were asked to provide contact information of up to three other tour guides whom they thought would be interested in the survey. The advantages of using this snowball sampling technique includes penetration into a random population which may be difficult to access, avoidance of researcher's selection bias and easiness of gathering data (Jackson, White & Schmierer, 1996:798-810).

1.5.2.7 *Data analysis*

The study used both qualitative and quantitative analysis tools. Qualitative data was analysed thematically using Creswell's six steps. In terms of statistical tools SPSS Statistics v23 and SPSS Amos v 23 were used to process the information. SPSS is a

world leader in e-Intelligence software and services, enabling its visitors to turn raw data into usable knowledge. By virtue of using SPSS, a factor analysis, Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) and Multiple Linear Regression analysis were carried out. A factor analysis was undertaken to establish the key tour guide competences to co-create these experiences. The ANOVAs were conducted to establish any considerable differences between the demographic preferences of the respondents. Multiple Linear Regression analysis was also conducted to test relationship between a particular tour guide competence for example, cultural intelligence and memorable tourism experiences (C.f.6.8 & 6.9).

1.6 Defining the concepts

The following concepts were used regularly throughout the thesis and therefore need clarification:

1.6.1 Competence

A competence is defined by Parry (1996:50) as a cluster of related knowledge, skills and attitudes that affects a major part of one's job (a role or responsibility); that correlates with performance on the job, that can be measured against well-accepted standards and that can be improved via training and development. Mirabile (1997:75) concurs and define competence as a knowledge, skill, ability or characteristic associated with high performance on a job, such as problem solving, analytical thinking or leadership. In corroboration with the above definitions, Bharwani and Jauhari (2013:829), using somewhat summarising approaches, consider competences to refer to behavioural dimensions that an individual brings to a position to enable him to perform the job competently.

1.6.2 Human capital

Rastogi (2002:193-203) conceptualises human capital to be the “knowledge, competence, attitude and behaviour embedded in an individual”. In a broader

perspective, Abdullah (2012:64) defines it as the investment of organisations in education and training to increase employees' knowledge, expertise and skills, which ultimately may maximise organisational productivity, outputs and a greater economic development. Concurring with the later, Romer (1986:1002-1037) seems to give more emphasis to the economic dimension of the concept by referring to the human capital as "a fundamental source of economic productivity".

1.6.3 Memorable tourism experience

A memorable tourism experience is defined as a tourism experience that is positively remembered and recalled after the event has occurred (Kim *et al.*, 2012:13). This view is also shared by Kim (2009:22) who defines it as an experience that is better retained and recalled afterwards, with a level of recollection that is very high. Ritchie and Ritchie (as cited by Sthapit, 2013:31) indicate that a memorable tourism experience serves to consolidate and reinforce the recollection of pleasurable memories of the destination experience.

1.6.4 Tour guide

A tour guide is a person who guides visitors in the language of their choice and interprets the cultural and natural heritage of an area in which the person normally possesses an area-specific qualification, usually issued and/or recognised by the appropriate authority (the World Federation Tourist Guide Association, 2003:1). Black and Ham (2005:178) concur with the above view and define a tour guide as "a person who guides groups or individuals on visits around the buildings, sites and landscapes of a city or region and who interprets in the language of the visitor's choice, the cultural and natural heritage and environment". In another definition provided by the Professional Tour Guide Association of San Antonio (as cited by Ap & Wong, 2001:551) a tour guide is "a person with an elective combination of enthusiasm, knowledge, personality qualities and high standards of conduct and ethics who leads groups to the important sites, while providing interpretation and commentary".

1.7 Preliminary chapter classification

This thesis consists of eight (8) chapters. The following section includes a brief outline of what can be expected from each of the chapters.

Chapter 1: Introduction and problem statement

Chapter one gives an introduction on the key variables under study which are human capital development and the memorable tourism experience, a background of the tour guiding field while also highlighting the importance of tour guides in the creation of memorable tourism experiences. The chapter also presents the problem statement, which is followed by the goal and objectives of the study, the research methodology and definitions of key concepts.

Chapter 2: Analysis overview of memorable tourism experiences and tour guides as co-creators

Chapter two analyses the concept of memorable tourism experiences by literature review and how tour guides can influence the development of memorable experiences. Thus key competences required for creation of memorable tourism experiences are also reviewed as well as the theories of memorable experience and human capital development

Chapter 3: Analysis overview of education and training interventions required to develop memorable tourism experience competences in tour guides

Chapter three analyses the education and training approaches required to develop memorable tourism experience competences in tour guides by means of a literature review.

Chapter 4: A literature analysis of Zimbabwe's tour guide education and training systems

Chapter four explores and analyses the tour guide educational and training systems of Zimbabwe by means of a literature review.

Chapter 5: Research methodology

Chapter five is centred on the empirical research methodology. This encompasses a discussion of study's research design, study population, sampling frame, sample size and data collection, sampling, measurement and survey instruments.

Chapter 6: Quantitative results

Subsequent to the above, Chapter six, presents, discusses and analyses the empirical findings from the study's quantitative phase.

Chapter 7: Qualitative results and discussion

This chapter presents analyses and discusses the results from the qualitative survey. It is also in this chapter that the results from the quantitative phase are triangulated and synthesised into the discussion.

Chapter 8: Conclusions and recommendations

Chapter eight, which is the final chapter of the thesis, provides the study's conclusions and recommendations and the identified key tour guide competences to co-create memorable tourism experiences. Limitations of the study as well as the directions for future research are also pointed out in this chapter.

CHAPTER 2: ANALYSIS OVERVIEW OF MEMORABLE TOURISM EXPERIENCES AND TOUR GUIDES AS CO-CREATORS

2.1 Introduction

This chapter focuses on a literature-based analysis of memorable tourism experiences and how tour guides can influence their development. Scholars' perspectives on the explicit and latent variables of this objective were therefore reviewed. This chapter, among others, touched on the following subtitles: the experience economy, the definition of experience, the experience product (in contrast to a service product), the tourism experience, elements of a tourism experience, the importance of memory in the tourism experience, the memorable tourism experience, the determinants of memorable tourism experiences, the co-creation of memorable tourism experiences, the role of tour guides in the co-creation of memorable tourism experiences and the human interaction competences. The chapter culminated in the development of a conceptual model of tour guide competences to co-create memorable tourism experiences.

2.2 The experience economy

There is a general acceptance within literature that a paradigm shift has transpired from services to experiences (Dalton, 2011:12; Fitzsimmons & Fitzsimmons, 2004:10) and that the experience economy is here to stay, growing and will continue to do so (Sthapit, 2013:20). Earlier studies by Mano and Oliver (1993:451-466) pioneered this view by pointing out that research on motivations for consumer behaviour, informed by psychology theory, established that the desire for higher-order experiences is at the core of much of consumer behaviour. Memorable tourism experiences are an epitome of these higher order experiences as the world economy continues to evolve from a service based one.

The aforementioned "Experience Economy Era" concept was formulated and first coined by Pine and Gilmore (1998:97-105). Pine and Gilmore (1998:97) observed that the global economy had evolved from a service paradigm into an experience paradigm

and that the provision of special experiences is essential to destination competitiveness (Ritchie & Hudson, 2009:111-126). It is argued that the transition to an experience economy was prompted by the realisation of an increasingly sophisticated nature of customers that requires firms to differentiate their offerings to meet the desire for greater differentiation and personalisation (Schmitt, 1999:53-67). Consistent with the previous observations, Dalton (2011:12) points out that service offering has increasingly become standardised and commoditised with little to differentiate them beyond price and availability. Consequently, experiences have been discovered to offer more meaningful value as they can “touch” people in a manner unachievable by products or services (Binkhorst & Dekker, 2009:312). Hence experiences have become an essential innovation in today’s business (Voss, as cited by Canadian Tourism Commission, 2004:21). According to Pine and Gilmore (1999:6) the experience economy is the new stage of economic offering as illustrated in Figure 2.1.

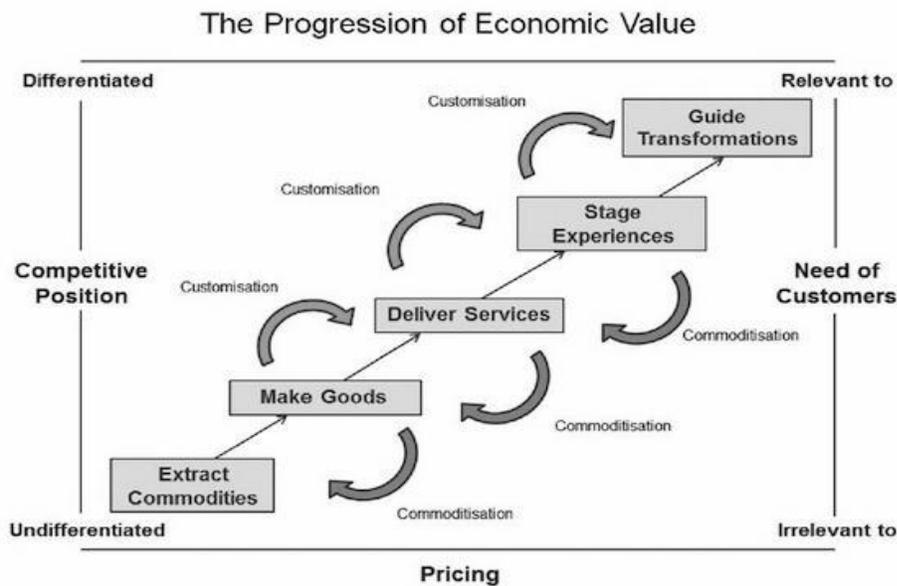


Figure 2.1: The progression of economic value

Source: Adapted from Sthapit (2013:19)

Figure 2.1 serves to reinforce Pine and Gilmore’s (1998:97) observation that “as services, like goods before them, increasingly become commoditised, experiences have

emerged as the next step in the progression of economic value”. The diagram illustrates experiences as a fourth economic offer which is consistent with earlier observations that regard experiences as distinctly different from the traditional commodities, goods and services that drive economic growth (Pine & Gilmore, 1999:5). This hypothesis is also confirmed by Hemmington (2007:749); who pointed out that customers no longer buy service delivery but they buy experiences; they no longer buy service quality but they buy memories.

Pine and Gilmore (1999:6) argue that the core component of the experience economy is a new kind of business and product offering that provides customers with something extra and memorable experiences, differentiated from the manufacturing of physical products and the delivery of service. They further argue that the Agrarian economy dealt mostly in raw materials for example, wheat to bake one’s bread and wool to knit the family garments. During the industrial revolution, it is noted that millions of people migrated from farms to factory floors leading to a dispensation of mass manufactured goods. Economic growth and advanced automation increased wages and decreased the hours worked, people then spent time purchasing services. According to Pine and Gilmore (1999:7); the service stage was rooted and prevalent that in many instances it became commoditised as raw materials such as wheat and oil and goods such as family cars. Experiences emerged as the next step that Pine and Gilmore (1999:22) call the progression of economic value. Economic distinctions involved in the evolution towards experiences are depicted in Table 2.1.

Table 2.1 shows the four main economic distinctions the world has so far gone through which are namely the Agrarian, Goods and Services and currently the Experience economies. The respective characteristics of these economic distinctions have also been discussed. It is important for one to understand these characteristics for operational efficiency and effectiveness. Dalton (2011:13) supports this notion by for example, asserting that “the inevitable design of experiences requires an understanding of experiences, their characteristics and elements”. This understanding is very critical in assisting producers to survive in the ever more competitive future (Binkhorst, 2005:2).

Table 2.1: Economic distinctions in the evolution of the global economy

ECONOMIC OFFERING	COMMODITIES	GOODS	SERVICES	EXPERIENCES
Economy	Agrarian	Industrial	Service	Experience
Economic Function	Extract	Make	Deliver	Stage
Nature of Offering	Fungible	Tangible	Intangible	Memorable
Essential Attributes	Natural	Standardised	Customised	Personal
Method of Supply	Stored in Bulk	Inventoried after Production	Delivered on demand	Revealed over a duration
Seller	Trader	Manufacturer	Provider	Stager
Buyer	Marketer	User	Client	Guest
Factors of Demand	Characteristics	Features	Benefits	Sensations

Source: Adapted from Pine and Gilmore (1999:6)

The next section discusses the “experience” concept in more detail.

2.3 Defining experience

While the experience economy concept continues to be popularised by an ever growing number of scholars (e.g. Bharwani & Jauhari, 2013:824; Kim *et al.*, 2012:13; Kruger & Saayman, 2012:63-77; Sthapit, 2013:20; Tung & Ritchie, 2011:1367) it is ironic to note that there is no clearly defined method for operationalising experiences or a universally accepted definition of the concept (Jurowski, 2009:2). To even provide delineation between the everyday experiences and those punctuating the new experience economy proves to some extent to be an amorphous task. This is partly because everything in a way is an “experience” (Azedevo, 2009:4) and for example, everything tourists go through at a destination can be referred to as an experience (Oh, Fiore & Jeung, 2007:120).

Hosany and Witham (2010:5) reinforce the foregoing argument by pointing out that the term “experience” is an all-embracing term, used in everyday conversation to describe everything from work-related achievements, to describing vacation experiences to family and friends. It is a broad term used to describe the feelings and encounters that an individual has during everyday life (Caru & Cova, 2003:267-286). Hence the term may mean different things to different people at different points in time (Blichfeldt, 2007:149–164). In view of the preceding arguments, one can therefore have substantial merit in challenging the seemingly sudden “hullabaloo” and “over trumpeting” of the concept by extant scholars as if tourism has never been an experience based phenomenon since its origins. Consistent with this observation, the Canadian Tourism Commission (2004:22) remarks that “tourism, by its very nature, is an experiential business. Visiting a destination for the first time is an experience, attending a particular cultural event is an experience and struggling to order food in a foreign language while leafing through a dictionary is an experience”. Thus tourism can be argued to have been an experience in its right way before the advent of the newly championed experience economy.

According to Palmer (as cited by Sthapit, 2013:16) the English language dictionary interpretations is what has contributed to the foregoing confusion in the conceptualisation of the word “experience “ which is used both as a verb and also as a noun. It is further noted that while in the English language the word experience has a dual meaning, many languages such as German, Swedish and Finnish use two separate words for this dual conceptualisation (Palmer, as cited by Sthapit, 2013:16). Sthapit (2013:16) utilises the German term “Erlebnis” to split everyday events (experiences) and what can be defined as experiences within the experience theory. “Erlebnis” corresponds with a memorable event or a process of undergoing and living through an event and the English noun “experience” as an incident, encounter, event, happening etc. as well as the English verb “experience” as a feeling, emotions, what one comes in contact with, what one faces, lives through, suffers, undergoes, be subjected to or come across (Gelter, 2006:28-50).

Drawing from the foregoing discussion, one can thus appreciate the feasibility of delineating experiences; separating inadvertent experiences, which occur by happenstance to those of commercial experiences, that are purposefully designed economic offerings, created to deliver experiential outcomes for the consumer (Dalton, 2011:13). It is argued that quality experiences rarely occur by accident (Canadian Tourism Commission, 2004:22) but can be designed and co-created by the visitor and the supplier (Binkhorst & Dekker, 2009:311-327; Prahalad & Ramaswamy, 2004:5-14) making the experience more valuable to the consumer and, consequently, benefiting the provider (Scott, Laws & Boksberger, 2009:99-110). It is further pointed out that in providing experiences one should think of his/her business as a theatre, his/her environment as the stage, merchandise, buildings, transportation and attractions as props and his/her staff and volunteers as actors charged with engaging the audience, is integral to delivering the consumer experience (Canadian Tourism Commission, 2004:22).

Pine and Gilmore (1998:97-105) buttress this observation by pointing out that the novelty of the experience economy era lies in the fact that “experiences” are designed, intentionally produced, organised, budgeted, calculated, priced and (often explicitly) charged for (Pine & Gilmore, 1998:97-105). This view is also held by Arnould and Price (1993:24-35) who also point out that the term experience “has come to represent encounters of a higher order that are typified by high levels of emotional intensity with the experience narrative revealed over time”. This experience will have a positive effect on emotion and, subsequently, on behavioural intention through the mechanism of satisfaction (Tscaur, Chiu & Wang, 2006:47-64). Thus the experiential component is a new element that adds adventure and intense emotions to the short time the tourist spends in his destination and as proposed by Kano (1984:39–48) it produces a very high satisfaction because it overcomes the expected quality.

Several definitions have consequently been put forward to explicate the term “experience”. An experience can be mainly defined as an individual and internal constant flow of conscious thoughts and feelings (Carlson, as cited by Wang & Pizam,

2011). Early research on experiences utilised psychology literature to understand the emotional nature of experiences generally describing them as hedonistic events that stimulate a person's emotions (Havlena & Holbrook, 1986:394-404). The application of psychology literature is considered appropriate as experiences are formed within the individual by means of psychological processes (Larsen, 2007:7-18). One of the forerunners in the experience discourse, Csikszentmihalyi (1975:35-50) sought in his research to explain the essence of experiences through the idiom of "flow", which is a state of complete absorption in an activity which is characterised by personal control, joy and valuing and a spontaneous, uninhibited letting-be (Csikszentmihalyi, as cited by Dalton, 2011:15). Thus the term "experience" within the context of the experience economy has come to represent encounters of a higher order or the extraordinary experiences. The reasoning behind the term is that one is continually having experiences but only a limited number of those can be considered as extraordinary. Oh, Fiore and Jeoung (2007:119) describe experiences from a consumer's perspective and describe them as enjoyable, memorable and engaging encounters.

Pine and Gilmore (1999:12) define experiences as "events that engage the consumer in a personal way" and offer some form of personal development or transformation. From this definition, it seems their work concentrates mainly on how to stage such events in order to create unique and memorable experiences. As previously mentioned, according to Pine and Gilmore's (1999:101) typology, the key to success in business is to regard "work as theatre and every business a stage". This emphasis on event-based performance can be seen as developing from the work of earlier authors who see services management as a dramatic encounter between actors and an audience in a setting (Gronroos, 1985:41-47; Grove, Frisk & Bitner, 1992:91-102; Lovelock, 1981:5-9). The practical implications of the service-as-drama metaphor are an increased attention to the impact of staff performance, settings and scripts on the consumer experience and customer satisfaction.

One can thus logically conclude from the foregoing discourse that an experience is not as amorphous a construct as may be claimed by other schools of thought but it is as

real and distinct an offering as any service, good or commodity (Pine & Gilmore, 1999:12). A commercial experience can be categorically delineated from the day to day experiences as it is consciously planned and designed and does not occur by accident as can happen with the day to day experiences that occur by chance and through happenstance. An attempt has been made in this section to define an experience and to distinguish the “commercial” experiences from the everyday experiences. The next section further explicates experiences by examining how the experienced product compares and differs with service products.

2.4 The experience product (in contrast to a service product)

An experience is as different from service as services are from goods for example, “while commodities are fungible, goods tangible and services intangible, experiences are memorable” (Pine & Gilmore, 1999:11). To purchase a service is the same as paying for a range of intangible activities, while purchasing an experience is purchasing the opportunity to enjoy a series of memorable events that are staged by a producer with the aim of engaging a customer in a personal way. Both services and experiences are intangible and cannot be stored, resold or pre-purchased (Sthapit, 2013:21). Production and consumption happen simultaneously and the customer co-creates his or her experience (Prahalad & Ramaswamy, 2004:5-14). The sellers of goods are manufacturers; sellers of services are providers, while sellers of experiences are stagers. The consumers are in the same way labelled as users for goods, clients for services and guests for experiences (Pine & Gilmore, 1999:6). Another way of differentiating experiences from services is that service is something that is done for a consumer, but experiences are an offering that does something to the consumer - educates, engages or entertains (Poulsson & Kale, 2004:267-277). The work of the experience provider perishes upon its performance, but remains in the memory of the consumer engaged in it. Experiential product offers involve thinking of business as theatre, environment as stage, merchandise, buildings, transportation and attractions as props and staff and volunteers as actors charged with engaging the audience is integral to delivering the consumer experience (Pine & Gilmore, 1999:101-124).

While prior economic offerings - commodities, goods and services - are external to the buyer, experiences are inherently personal, existing only in the mind of an individual who has been engaged on an emotional, physical, intellectual or even spiritual level. Thus, no two people can have the same experience, because each experience derives from the interaction between the staged event (like a theatrical play) and the individual's state of mind. Experiences are revealed over duration and tap the senses of the customer. Experiences must provide a memorable offering that will remain with one for a long time, but in order to achieve this, the guest, must be drawn into the offering such that they feel a sensation. To feel the sensation, the guest must actively participate and in addition experiences can "touch" people better than products or services (Pine & Gilmore, 1999:41).

Now that the meaning of an experience has been explained as well as the nature of the experienced product discussed, the next stage interrogates theories related to experience creation.

2.5 Theories related to experience creation

In this section, the researcher examines the two main theories that form the basis for the current study. These theories are the experience economy theory and the human capital development theory. Both theories are consequently discussed.

2.5.1 *The experience economy theory*

This research forms part of the experience economy theory. The experience economy theory argues that, services, like goods before them, are becoming more and more commoditised and as a result, organisations must strive to add value to their offerings with the provision of meaningful and memorable experiences (Pine & Gilmore, 1998:97-105). Pine and Gilmore (1998:97-105) further point out that organisations must orchestrate memorable events for their customers and that memory itself becomes the product - the "experience". This position has achieved substantial support from scholars for example Berry and Bendapudi (2003:1-10); Berry and Haeckel (2002:85-89); Kim

(2010:780-796); Stuart and Tax (2004:611) as well as Tung and Ritchie (2011:1367-1386) to name but a few.

Morgan, Elbe and de Esteban Curiel (2009:204) note that Pine and Gilmore used Schechner (1998:7-303)'s performance theory to propose their experience theory characterised by a new management paradigm where military strategy is replaced by drama as the core metaphor of business. Morgan *et al.* (2009:204) argue that Schechner combined anthropological and literary analysis of Greek drama and tribal rituals to identify the principal components of all enactments that were identified to be the drama, scripts, theatre and performance. The drama is regarded as the domain of the author, whose idea is subsequently realised through scripts, directions, sets and actors to become the performance experienced by the audience. Adapting this concept into the experience realm, Pine and Gilmore (1999:201) regarded the drama as the business strategy, the scripts as the processes and the performance as the delivery of the product to the customer, which needs to be stage-managed as carefully as any theatrical show.

Pine and Gilmore (1999:146) posit that the aims of the business are expressed as a drama, central to what the organisation does. This drama is the interaction between the organisation and its customers that create the experience. Additionally they point out that as in drama, the result of the interaction is personal development, so that the service experiences that create the highest value are those that offer some personal transformation, health, fitness, education.

Despite the above positives, criticism of this theory has also been abounding. Morgan *et al.* (2009:205) highlight that the emphasis on performance and the overuse of examples from Disney have led to the ideas of the experience economy being dismissed as superficial and product- rather than customer-centred. The theory is challenged as an example of an over-hyped business philosophy arising from the dot-com boom and a rising economy in the United States of America that was tolerant of high prices, inflated claims and no limitations on supply or investment. Consistent with the above

arguments, Ritzer and Liska (1997:96-109), who differentiated authentic spaces from simulated environments, criticised as inauthentic; the experience management approach of staging performances. Pine and Gilmore's theory was also challenged by Holbrook (2001:139) who referred to it as "a gloriously upbeat, positive and opportunistic picture of consumer culture full of millennial optimism". Nijs (2003:15–32) corroborated the above observation by criticising the experience economy approach as too concerned with sensation and too entrenched in the United States "masculine" culture. Nijs (2003:15–32) further observed that in more "feminine" European cultures, the experience needs to be grounded in the social and environmental values of the company in order to create added emotional value for the customer. The thesis of Pine and Gilmore (1998:97-105) has also attracted further criticism from within the fields of tourism in that their work did not acknowledge prior studies that had been done, for example by Csikszentmihalyi (Ritchie *et al.*, 2011:420).

From this background, the researcher did not therefore conceptualise the experience theory only as is espoused by Pine and Gilmore (1998:97-105), but took a broader perspective of experiences by also taking cognisance of the theoretical perspectives of other scholars on the same subject, such as Kim *et al.* (2012:12–25). Despite its incumbent weaknesses, it should still be acknowledged that the experience theory continues to influence business thinking in the modern day and organisations and destinations that remain indifferent to this new paradigm do so at their own peril.

2.5.2 *The human capital theory*

This study is also hinged on the human capital theory. Becker (1930–2014) who is considered to be the father and founder of the human capital theory (Khasawneh, 2010:535) defined human capital as the investment of organisations in education and training to increase employees' knowledge, expertise and skills, which ultimately may maximise organisational productivity (Becker, as cited by Khasawneh, 2010:535). Consistent with this definition, the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development or OECD (2001:18) defines human capital as "the knowledge, skills,

competences and attributes embodied in individuals that facilitate the creation of personal, social and economic well-being". Marimuthu, Arokiasamy and Ismail (2009:266) also seem to support the preceding definitions in their conceptualisation of human capital as the processes that relate to training, education and other professional initiatives in order to increase the levels of knowledge, skills, abilities, values and social assets of an employee which will lead to the employee's satisfaction and performance and eventually on a firm performance.

One commonality that can be drawn from the above definitions is the great emphasis which the theory places onto training. This observation is confirmed by Plummer and Taylor (as cited by Esu, 2012:277) who also found that education and training of persons were the major human capital strategies. The importance of training is also underscored by Green (1993:103-122) who argues that the workforce's lack of training is related to low competitiveness and in turn, a greater human capital stock is associated with greater productivity and higher salaries (Mincer, 1997:26-47). In the same vein, training is linked to greater tendency to business and economic growth (Goetz & Hu, 1996:355-362).

Mincer and Becker (as cited by Esu, 2012:277) observed that human capital is similar to "physical means of production", for example, factories and machines: one can invest in human capital. It is however not transferable like land, labour, or fixed capital. It is gained via education, training, medical treatment. One's outputs depend partly on the rate of return on the human capital one own; additional investment yields additional output (Marimuthu *et al.*, 2009:266).

It is therefore argued that the investment on the human capital enhancement will result in high performance or rather high performance work systems (Marimuthu *et al.*, 2009:266). Youndt, Subramaniam and Snell (2004:335-361) assert that human capital development and enhancement in organisations create a significant contribution on organisational competences and this in turn becomes a great boost for further enhancing innovativeness and the current literature to a large extent supports the fact

that firm performance is positively impacted by the presence of human capital practices. Endorsing the importance of human capital development, Delaney and Huselid (1996:966) even pointed out that human capital development is a prerequisite to good financial performance and the overall organisation performance in general (Hsu, Lin, Lawler & Wu, 2007:251-275). The previous discussion seems to point to the fact that human capital leads to greater organisational performance.

According to Marimuthu *et al.* (2009:266); organisation performance can be viewed in two different perspectives that are financial performance and non-financial performance. Financial performance includes productivity, market share and profitability, whereas, non-financial performance includes customer satisfaction, innovation, workflow improvement and skills development. It is therefore recommended that companies should therefore, come up with some practical plans especially in investing the various aspects of human capital as not only does it direct firms to attain greater performance but also it ensures firms to remain competitive for their long-term survival (Marimuthu *et al.*, 2009:266). Rastogi (2002:193-203) considers the impact of human capital development from an employee perspective rather than the organisational perspective. He stated that human capital is important especially for employees' continuous improvement mainly in knowledge, skills and abilities (Rastogi, 2002:193-203). While Marimuthu *et al.* (2009:266) seem to focus on the effect of human capital development on organisational performance and Rastogi (2002:193-203) on the employee enhancements, Lynham and Cunningham (2006:116-35) seem to take a broader dimension to include the effect of human capital development on performance at a societal or national economic level. They argue that investment in people results in economic development and other benefits at the societal level (Lynham & Cunningham, 2006:116-35). The importance of the training guides cannot thus be ignored (Ap & Wong, 2001:552).

While the human capital theory has been hailed above, it has nonetheless received its share of criticism from scholars just like the experience economy theory that has already been discussed. As has already been noted earlier on, Becker's (1964) human

capital development theory concludes that investment in human capital will lead to greater economic outputs however the validity of the theory is sometimes hard to prove and contradictory. Consistent with this observation, Abdulla (2012:66) argues that some countries even though they possess strong human capital base they still lack in terms of economic growth which suggest that the investment in human capital does not guarantee the presumed productivity and gain if other mediating variables like family background and personality traits are ignored. The other weakness of the theory is that it views human beings as machines when yet a human being is a social animal that cannot work as machines and have some very complicated dimensions that should not be ignored as well such as the welfare issues.

Bowles and Gintis (2000:1411-1439) challenge the human capital theory and propound that the theory formally excludes the relevance of class and class conflict that thereby imposes restrictions on an individual's ability to operate within the market. The other impediment to the realisation of human capital development goals especially in the Tourism Industry emanate from the fact that labour conditions in the sector are destitute, with low salaries, high rates of turnover, high seasonality, anti-social working hours, a lack of a career path design and comprising a significant proportion of the informal sector, that make the acquisition of skills and, therefore, the improvement of the final service, difficult (Maxwell, MacRae, Adam & MacVicar, 2001:735-744). Notwithstanding the weaknesses mentioned above, it is still important for one to note that every theory has its criticisms and nevertheless, the human capital theory continues to influence business thinking in the modern day. The next section discourses on the various dimensions of the tourism experience including its meaning and elements.

2.6 The tourism experience

The tourism experience concept is prevalent in tourism literature; however like the “experience” concept discussed earlier on, its central meaning is however arguable as it is implicitly assumed as opposed to being explicitly defined (Jennings, 2006:1-21). The conceptual and theoretical difficulties associated with understanding the essence of

tourism experiences may have discouraged scholars from exploring its conceptualisation to the same extent as other disciplines (Ritchie *et al.*, 2011:431). Thus the transition from services to experiences represents a critical challenge for destinations and tourism products as experiences are not the same as services and as such need to be deliberately designed to incorporate the different characteristics of experiences (Pine & Gilmore, 1998:97-105).

Hudson and Ritchie (2009:218) reinforce the above observation by noting that to meet the demands of the changing tourism marketplace, already alluded to above; tourism enterprises must change in operational methods and marketing strategies of tourist destinations and tourism products and services and engage consumers at a more emotional level for greater competitive advantage (Schmitt, as cited by Dalton, 2011:12). Consumers are willing to pay a premium for quality memorable experiences that transform them (Jurowski, 2009:2). Consequently, the design of experiences requires an understanding of experiences, their characteristics and elements (Dalton, 2011:13) as an understanding of the nature of tourism experiences is critical to the financial success of tourism products and services in the 20th century (Jurowski, 2009:2).

However a dearth of understanding amongst academics has thus resulted in an unclear message being communicated to tourism practitioners and as the provision of an attractive value proposition for tourism enterprises is dependent on the tourist experience (Zehrer, 2009:332-349) the lack of insight into the nature of this experience limits enterprises' ability to develop an effective experience management strategy. Nonetheless, since it is the purpose of this section to explore the essence and meaning of the concept above, key themes are gleaned from literature to explain "tourism experience" as discussed in the next section.

2.6.1 Definition of tourism experience

While there is currently no consensus in the academic literature as to the exact definition of tourism experiences, many scholars have provided insights into various

definitional components (Tung & Ritchie, 2011:1368). For example, tourism experiences are presented as multifaceted consumptive experiences resulting from numerous inputs (Moscardo, 2010:43–58); they arise from activities, the environment, as well as the social contexts embedded in the activities and cover a multiplicity of definitions (Moscardo, 2010:43–58); which adds to its complexity (Murray, Foley & Lynch, 2010:16). Otto and Ritchie (1996:166) describe a tourism experience as the subjective mental state felt by participants.

From a psychological point of view, Larsen (2007:15) defines a tourist experience as a past personal travel-related event strong enough to have entered long-term memory. Experience is made up of behaviour, perception, cognition and emotions that are either expressed or implied (Oh *et al.*, 119-132). Tourism experiences are created through a process of visiting, learning and enjoying activities in an environment away from home (Stamboulis & Skayannis, 2003:2). Quan and Wang (2004:298) support this notion but from a sociological perspective and indicate that the tourist experience is understood as the peak experience in which the peak experience is defined as “a way to experiences something different from their daily lives” (Quan & Wang, 2004:298). In this context the experiences that are regarded as the extension of the everyday experiences of the tourist journey, for example accommodation, food and transport, are mostly ignored (Quan & Wang, 2004:298).

Tourism experiences are internally produced by the tourist. Each person creates his/her experience based on backgrounds, values, attitudes and beliefs brought to the situation (Knutson *et al.*, 2006:31-47). This suggests that the tourist provider cannot deliver or provide the experience for the tourist. However, tourism practitioners can provide the input for those experiences (Anderson, 2007:46-58) or the set of circumstances or environment in which tourists can actually have experiences (Mossberg, 2007:60). It is therefore crucial that the tourism provider know how to provide circumstances that will enhance the experience of the tourist (Mossberg, 2007:60).

2.6.2 Elements of a tourism experience

Despite the growth of literature in the tourist experiences what constitutes the tourism experience remains fundamentally puzzling (Quan & Wang, 2004:297). Quan and Wang (2004:297) question whether the tourist experience is single-dimensional or multi-dimensional because the design of experiences requires an understanding of experiences, their characteristics and elements (Dalton, 2011:13). Oh *et al.* (2007:129) concur with this view and point out that “the experience economy has been introduced to the tourism literature at an introductory conceptual level” and much more research is needed to understand the components and characteristics of touristic experiences (Larsen, 2007:7–18). A mélange of theories have consequently been developed as an attempt to explicate the salient elements in the creation and design of experiences and this is the main subject of the current section.

Cohen (1979:179) observes that tourist experience has been defined by his predecessors under two primary opposing frameworks in which each claim to describe “the tourist” as a general type, while implicitly or explicitly denying the adequacy of the alternative conception. The first one being by Boorstin (1964:77-117); addresses a tourist experience as a search for something virtually superfluous and superficial, an extension of the alienated world or a pseudo-event. The other perspective whose main protagonist is MacCannell (1973:593) views tourist experiences as a serious search for authenticity, an effort to escape from the alienated world. Cohen (1979:179) challenges these two conceptualisations and points out that neither of the two is universally valid though they have contributed valuable insights into the behaviour, motives and experiences of tourists.

Cohen (1979:180) therefore proposes a more astute distinction between five types of tourist experiences. He argues that the resulting continuum of types of tourist experience from his study is both more comprehensive and capable of reconciling and integrating the conflicting interpretations arising from the earlier studies that have been highlighted above. The five modes of tourists experience are the recreational mode, the

diversionary mode, the experiential mode, the experimental mode and the existential mode. Each of the five modes is discussed in the next section.

a) The recreational mode

Cohen (1979:183) identifies that a trip as a recreational experience is a form of entertainment similar in character to other forms of entertainment such as the cinema and theatre. The tourist enjoys the trip because it restores his mental and physical powers and endows him with a general sense of wellbeing (Cohen, 1979:183). It is observed by Lowenthal (1962:124) that tourism as a recreation is in itself not a “serious business” but it is an “idle pleasure”. This form of tourism has gained legitimacy not because it is enjoyable in itself but rather on the strength of its curative powers as a mechanism which recharges the batteries of a weary modern man (Glasser, as cited by Cohen, 1979:185); refreshes and restitutes him so he is able again to return to the wear and tear of “serious” living. Cohen (1979:185) describes such tourism experience as a “pressure valve” for the modern man. Thus when such a person cannot take the pressures of day to day life anymore he embarks on a vacation. It should also be noted that a recreational tourist is not caused to travel by a particular pull in the destination beyond their borders but caused by a push in the tourist’s society. Hence the recreational tourist is mostly “getting away” and if it were not for the pressures generated by the day to day experiences he would stay at home and not travel (Cohen, 1979:185).

b) The diversionary mode

Diversionary tourism is described as the escape from the boredoms and meaninglessness of routine, everyday existence, into the forgetfulness of a vacation, which may heal the body and soothe the spirit but does not recreate (Cohen, 1979:186). The diversionary is almost similar to the recreational except only that it is not “meaningful”. Cohen (1979:186) describes the kind of experience as a meaningless pleasure of a centre less person. Another common observation from these two modes

of touristic experiences (Recreational and Diversionary modes) is that they are characteristic of most mass tourists from the modern industrialised urban societies.

c) Experiential mode

This is the kind of experience characterised by trying to look for meaning in the life of others outside the confines of one's society (MacCannell, as cited by Cohen, 1979:187). The more the individual sinks into everyday life, the more he is reminded of reality and authenticity elsewhere (MacCannell, 1976:160). "Pretension and tackiness generate the belief that somewhere, only not right here, not right now, perhaps just over there some place, in another country, in another lifestyle, in another social class, perhaps there is a genuine society" (MacCannell, as cited by Cohen, 1979:187). Hence the "authentic experiences are believed to be available only to those moderns who try to break the bonds of their everyday existence and begin to "live" (MacCannell, as cited by Cohen, 1979:187).

d) Experimental mode

This type of touristic experience epitomises people who do not stick anymore to the spiritual centre of their society but engage in a quest for an alternative in many different directions. According to Cohen (1979:188) while the traveller in the "experiential mode" derives enjoyment and reassurance from the fact that others live authentically, while he remains "disinherited" (Heller, as cited by Cohen, 1979:188) and content merely to observe the authentic life of others, the traveller in "experimental mode" engages in that authentic life but refuses fully to commit himself to it but rather he samples and compares the different alternatives, hoping eventually to discover one which will suit his particular needs and desires. Cohen (1979:188) elaborates that in a way the "experimental tourist is in search of himself."

e) Existential mode

The existential touristic mode is characteristic of the traveller who is fully committed to an “elective” spiritual centre which is external to one’s mainstream native society and culture. The acceptance of such a centre is paralleled by a religious conversion where one switches worlds (Burger & Luckman, as cited by Cohen, 1979:190). Thus such a centre may be completely extraneous to his culture of origin, the history of his society or his biography. Alternatively it can also be a traditional centre to which his forebears may have been attached before but become alienated to due to the passage of time or change of geographical location (Cohen, 1979:191).

The above tourist experience typology by Cohen (1979:191) is considered by Quan and Wang (2004:298) as a social science approach which focuses on the subjective experiences as from the common-sense standpoint of the naive tourists. This typology is regarded as an experience that is in sharp contrast or opposing to the daily experience that can be labelled “peak experience”. This means those experiences that are regarded as the extension of the everyday experience of the tourist journey, such as the experience of accommodation and transport, are mostly either ignored or taken for granted (Quan & Wang, 2004:298).

However, as McCabe (as cited by Quan & Wang, 2004:298) points out, it is misleading to exclude the daily experience from tourism, for the tourist experience as a whole consists of both the peak experience and the supporting experiences such as eating, sleeping and playing. It is argued that without the latter, the peak experiences simply cannot exist. Additionally it is also important to note that if the supporting experience goes sour, the total tourist experience would be more or less spoiled, no matter how wonderful the peak experience is. Hence it is argued by Quan and Wang (2004:298) that, it is insufficient to equate the whole tourist experience to the peak experience illustrating deficiencies embedded in Cohen’s (1979:179–201) phenomenology of tourist experiences.

These supporting experiences, which are ignored within the social science literature, are encompassed in the marketing/management research (Quan & Wang, 2004:298).

From the marketing/management approach, a tourist is ultimately regarded as a consumer on the premise that she/he is served and engages in a commercial exchange relationship with suppliers of goods or the deliverers of service. In this paradigm the peak experience is also regarded as part of a consumer experience. Consequently, the tourist experience is studied from a consumer behaviour approach. One of the foci within the marketing/management literature on the tourist experience is placed on the service quality experienced by tourists, such as hospitality, accommodation and transportation. The enormous literature on total quality management in tourism and hospitality attests to that effect.

The second typology of tourist experience in this section is the Pine and Gilmore (1999:130) conceptualisation which focused on the emotional, physical, spiritual and intellectual impressions that are felt by individuals during an event. They conceptualised four realms of tourism experiences with fluid boundaries namely education, esthetics, escapism and entertainment as shown in Figure 2.2.

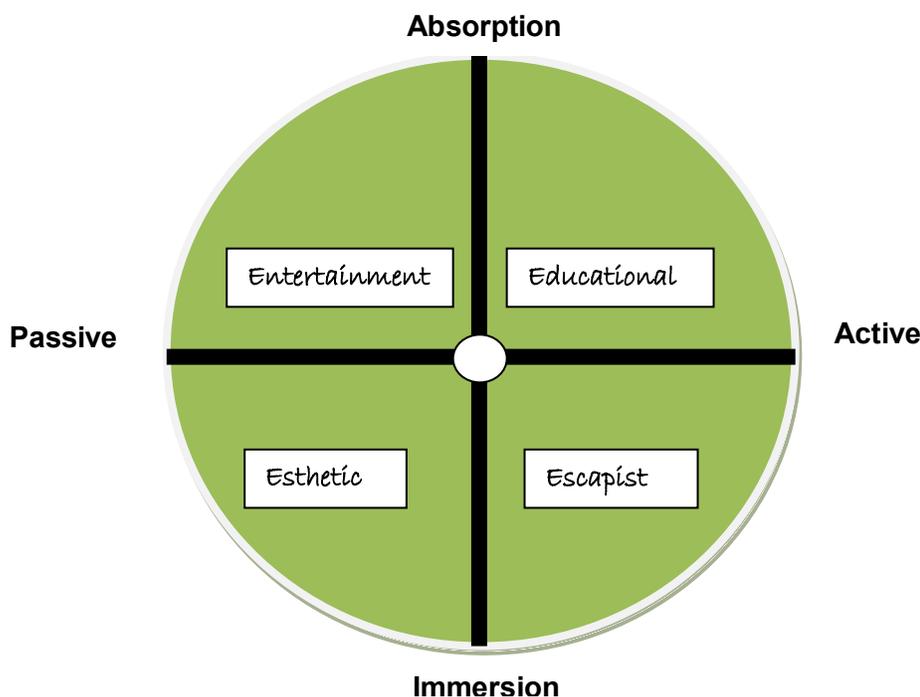


Figure 2.2: Pine and Gilmore's four realms of experience

Source: Adapted from Pine and Gilmore (1999:30)

example visiting art galleries or wineries fall into the education category because visitors may learn about wine and increase their ability to be a connoisseur. On the other hand Pine and Gilmore (1999:35) also identified esthetic experiences or the passive absorption experiences that they identified to be those that appeal to the senses. It was noted that even though the mind is immersed in the environment it is not affected or changed as it is in an educational experience. For instance, visiting a historical site can be classified as esthetic experiences since the visitors are passively appreciating and are not becoming actively involved. Escapism experiences involve active participation and immersion to the point where the tourist has an effect on the performance or experience. Playing golf and camping are examples of activities in which the efforts of the visitor affect the outcome of the experience.

The final realm, entertainment; involves passive absorption experiences where the participant does not affect the occurrence or environment and appreciates or absorbs activities and/or performances such as in attending a concert at a particular event (Pine & Gilmore, 1999:40). There is empirical evidence to suggest that the four realms are valid and that the richest experiences encompass aspects of all four realms (Smith, 2003:233-246). Oh *et al.*'s (2007:127) study on a bed and breakfast experience concluded that the four realms of experiences offered "a conceptual fit and a practical measurement framework for the study of tourist experiences".

Schmitt (1999:53-67) suggested five components of experiences namely SENSE, FEEL, THINK, ACT and RELATE, four of which appear to be comparable to Pine and Gilmore (1999:27-44)'s realms of experiences. These are: SENSE, FEEL, THINK and ACT. Sensory and affective (FEEL) experiences are to some extent similar to entertainment and esthetics while the creative cognitive experiences in the THINK component are closely related to educational experiences. The ACT component seems related to education and escapism. The final part of Schmitt's classification of experience characteristics, RELATE, does not appear to be expressed in Pine and Gilmore's experience realms.

In a slightly differing approach, Murray *et al.* (2010:5) proposed the following dimensions as salient in conceptualising the concept of tourism experience; emotional elements and social inclusion, environment to experience, involvement, social science and marketing management approach as well as experience embedded in long-term memory. Although this list is not exclusive and exhaustive, it also supplies a meaningful basis and scope for outlining operationalisation of the tourist experience concept.

Emotional Elements and Social Inclusion are considered to be one of the most critical aspects in creating a tourism experience. It is argued that tourists by their very nature consume and therefore experience at all times during their journey (Mossberg, 2007:60) and they have an opportunity to interact with others that provide an opportunity for social interaction and inclusion (White & White, 2009:143-153). Observations have also been made to the extent of concluding that when tourists consume services usually their goal is to stimulate emotions (Otto & Ritchie, 1996:165-174). Thus it can be argued that it is always crucial to consider providing emotion triggering activities that also cater for social inclusion if the development of a tourism experience is anything to go by.

Environment to Experience is also regarded to be a salient factor in the creation of a tourism experience and it is vital that a tourism provider know how to provide circumstances that will enhance the experience of the tourist (Mossberg, 2007:60). This is crucial because the tourist provider cannot provide the experience for the tourist but only provide a set of circumstances or environment in which tourists can have experience (Mossberg, 2007:60). Concurring with the above, Anderson (2007:177–191) further pointed out that while tourists create their unique experiences, the industry provides the input for those experiences. Otto and Ritchie (1996:165-174) identified six fundamental dimensions of the tourist experience construct, namely; a hedonic dimension, an interactive/social dimension, novelty seeking/escape dimension, a comfort dimension, a safety dimension, a stimulating/challenge seeking dimension. Those tourism providers seeking to provide a quality experience must consider incorporating all of these dimensions (Murray *et al.*, 2010:6).

Regarding involvement, Urry (as cited by Murray *et al.*, 2010:6) observed that tourism incorporates both landscapes and “sensescapes” which involves various senses as an important component of the tourist experience. Thus a tourist may be more motivated by the “pre-experience” through powerful mental and emotional images of the expected experience rather than the physical characteristics of a destination (Oh *et al.*, 2007:119-132). Thus to enhance tourist involvement in a tourism experience, Aho (2001:33-37) suggested four core elements of the tourist experience namely; emotional experiences; learning; practical experiences; and transformational experiences. These elements should thus be considered by tourism practitioners when they seek to enhance “involvement” during a tourism experience.

To conceptualise the tourist experience, one must also consider both the social science approach and the marketing/management approach (Murray *et al.*, 2010:6). Quan and Wang (2004:297-305) note that the social science approach views the tourist experience as “peak experience” which is regarded as an escape from the routine of everyday life (Cohen, 1979:179-201) and is in sharp contrast to the daily experience of the tourist (Mossberg, 2007:59-74). However, the belief that tourism is an escape from the mundane of everyday life has been challenged by some scholars for example, Uriely (2005:199 – 216); as experiences such as gazing at distant sights and engaging in facets of other cultures are now available through various means in everyday life (Urry, as cited by Murray *et al.*, 2010:6). It is further argued that many tourist related experiences can be acquired without travelling to different destinations in the current era of mass media (Uriely, 2005:199–216). This further compounds the complexity of attempting to conceptualise the tourist experience, as it can occur in an infinite range of places and is not limited to one specific place or encounter (O’Dell, as cited by Murray *et al.*, 2010:7).

From the marketing management lens, tourism experience is viewed as the consumption of the experience with the tourist as consumer (Mossberg, 2007:59-74; Oh *et al.*, 2007:119-132); as tourists are recognised as consumers as they are involved in various service exchange relationships (Mossberg, 2007:59-74) and experiences

necessitate the involvement and participation of the tourist (Brunner-Sperdin & Peters, 2009:171-183). Indeed, tourism service providers must aim to engage all five senses of the tourist to surprise them over and over again (Pine & Gilmore, 1998:97-105).

According to Murray *et al.* (2010:7) Experience Embedded in Long Term Memory is the final among the six components they have identified to explain the tourism experience concept. From a psychological approach Larsen (2007:15) has posited that the tourist experience concept includes, expectations, events and memories and, indeed the following definition is proffered; “a tourist experience is a past personal travel-related event strong enough to have entered long-term memory” (Larsen, 2007:15) meaning a more long term focus is required to understand the tourist experience.

In developing a theory of touristic experiences, Aho (2001:33-37) propounded four core elements of experiences which are the emotional impression, informational effects or learning, practiced capacity building and transformational impacts.

According to Aho (2001:33-37) emotional experience are the universal elements of tourism present in most touristic experiences. Learning or informational experiences were categorised into those that were intentional and learned that was unintentional. Practice experiences were described as consisting of a plethora of forms from hobbies to professional experiences. Transformational experiences referred to those experiences that modify either the body or the mind for instance health and cultural tourism. Aho (2001:33-37) went further to analyse experiences from a different perspective than that previously noted by Dalton (2011:22) in which experiences had been discovered to go through three main stages which are mainly before, during and afterwards. He proposed that these traditional three stages of tourism experiences could be expanded to seven stages:

1. Orientation (awakening interest)
2. Attachment (strengthening interest)
3. Visiting (actual visit)
4. Evaluation (comparisons)

5. Storing (photos, souvenirs, memories)
6. Reflection (repeated presentations)
7. Enrichment (continued contacts with memorabilia and networks, new practice developed during the trip)

Of the seven stages the first two are pre-trip and the last four are post-trip (Aho, 2001:33-37). Those charged with marketing and strategic management responsibilities may find these theoretical perspectives vital and useful since tourism experiences to a large extent define the core of tourism marketing and development. In addition, emphasising the significance of the above experiential stages, Berry and Heckel (2002:85-89) pointed out that in today's competitive marketplace, the most effective marketing strategy manages the consumer's tourism experience through all the stages outlined by Aho (2001:33-37). Another typology by Hayes and MacLeod (2006:45-58) differentiate experiences into real, fun and indulgent experiences. According to these authors real experiences are those that demonstrate connections, belonging and shared experiences. Adventure and active involvement are classified as fun experiences. Those that focus on luxury, relaxation and pleasure are labelled indulgent experiences (Hayes & MacLeod, 2006:45-58).

Arnould and Price (1993:24-35) examined the discipline of experiences from an outcome perspective and observed extraordinary experiences as those that provide high levels of emotional intensity, opportunity for personal growth, renewal and fellowship with co-visitors.

Hover and Mierlo (as cited by Dalton, 2011:15) also undertook further studies on experiences and identified three levels of experiences as follows:

- Basal experience – which they defined as an emotional reaction to a stimulus and as the term suggests; with a short-lived influence on one's memory.
- Memorable experience – where the emotion can be remembered on a later occasion.

- Transforming experience – defined as an experience that leads to a long-lasting change in both attitude and behaviour.

Commenting on the preceding typology, Dalton (2011:15) observes that to achieve economic progression, organisations must seek to produce either memorable or transforming experiences. This is due to the realisation that basal experiences are lower order experiences and as such not well enough. Snel (as cited by Sthapit, 2013:31) provides supporting claim and states that memorable experiences are on a higher impact level. They are more intense than the basic experience and are remembered for a longer time partly because personal engagement is higher, the experience is sufficiently challenging or the experience connects to the personal value system (Sthapit, 2013:31). Creating value for the customer by providing memorable experience is thus becoming an increasingly employed strategy as consumers increasingly strive for experiences that are memorable.

Nonetheless, while previous studies attempting to unlock the constructs of the tourism experience are commendable, Kim (2009:24) observed that most of these researchers seem to have included a number of different construct dimensions, such as hedonics, peace of mind, involvement, recognition, entertainment, escapism, esthetics and education and neglected memory, which is a major factor, in developing conceptual models of tourism experiences. This is ironic as memorable experiences are regarded as the ultimate experience that consumers aim to obtain (Pizam, 2010:343; Tung & Ritchie, 2011:1368) and have become the new benchmark or standard, which destination managers and tourism businesses must now seek to deliver (Kim *et al.*, 2012:13). It is further argued that memory should be incorporated into tourism experience because firstly experiences are valuable only when they are stored and remembered through the recollection phase as individuals recall their experiences when deciding on destination areas (Kim, 2013:4).

Secondly memory is a mediator of consumer behaviour that influences one's future behaviour (Baumgartner, Sujan & Bettman, 1992:53-82). Resultantly destination

managers now need to be concerned with the association of experience with memory (Lehto *et al.*, 2004:801–818; Kim *et al.*, 2012:12–25; Kozak, 2001:784–807; Mazursky, 1989:333–344; Wirtz *et al.*, 2003:520–524) and thus need to view the tourist experience as “not just a trip” but one that incorporates a more “memorable experience” (Gentile, Spiller & Noci, 2007:395-410; Murray *et al.*, 2010:1-26). In the same vein, Ritchie and Crouch (2003:213) arguing from a planning and management perspective, then recommended that a destination should be viewed not only as a place to visit, where one can do enjoyable activities, but also as a provider of pleasantly memorable experiences, to keep them competitive and sustainable. Consistent with the previous discussion, the researcher therefore considers it now only logical to turn our attention to the association between memory and tourism experiences.

2.7 The memorable tourism experience

The preceding section has acknowledged the creation of memorable tourism experiences (MTE) as the key driver of destination competitiveness and sustainability. This position has been supported by several scholars (e.g. Kim, Ritchie & Vincent, 2010:637-648; Kim *et al.*, 2012:12-25; Sthapit, 2013:1-96). Pizam (2010:343) regards the provision of memorable tourism experiences as the essence and reason d’être of the tourism industry. However, despite the importance of memorable experiences (ME) extant tourism research has provided little explanation of the factors that characterise MTE. Relatively few studies have explored the components of the experience that are most likely to be recalled from tourists’ memories (Kim *et al.*, 2012:13). It is thus the purpose of this section to discourse on the properties of memorable tourism experiences as propounded by scholars.

A memorable tourism experience is defined as a tourism experience that is remembered and recalled after the event has occurred (Sthapit, 2013:31). It is selectively constructed from tourism experiences based on the individual’s assessment of the experience (Kim *et al.*, 2012:13). Kim *et al.* (2013:4) supply a closely related definition but which places much emphasis on positive outcomes in which they define

MTE as “a tourism experience positively remembered and recalled after the event has occurred”. This emphasis on the positive is corroborated by Mitchell, Thompson, Peterson and Cronk (1997:421-448) who observed that people will reconstruct their tourism experiences by forgetting disappointment. Kim *et al.* (2012:21) support the above view and point out that individuals tend to recall more easily positive experiences than negative ones. MTEs serve to consolidate and reinforce the recollection of pleasurable memories of the destination experience eliminating undesired scenes and making favoured ones suitable (Langer cited by Lowenthal, 1999). It can thus be noted from the preceding observations, that the desired MTEs are mostly positive in nature.

Nonetheless, Wirtz *et al.* (2003:520-524) seem to disagree with this one-sided approach in describing MTEs as they have pointed out the likelihood of both the negative and positive outcomes in MTEs. According to Wirtz *et al.* (2003:520-524) remembered tourism experiences are exaggerated in intensifying both the positive and negative effects that tourists experience during the onsite stage which means that a remembered tourism experience has both the positive and negative outcomes. Aziz (as cited by Sthapit, 2013:43) articulates that tourists often feel negative emotions during their tourism experience because of accidents or illness. Furthermore Christianson (1992:194) argued that people recall sorts of negative emotional events better than ordinary events that occurred equally long ago. This therefore highlights that memorable tourism experiences can also be centred on the negative outcomes.

However, although several supporting claims can thus be gathered from scholars about the negative outcomes associated with the MTEs; recent empirical studies by Sthapit (2013:76) concluded that the adverse feelings and memorable tourism experience were not positively associated. As a result this pointed out that adverse feelings have less contribution in the conceptualisation of memorable tourism experience and these emotions are usually temporary (Sthapit, 2013:76). Consequently this study adopted the positivist definition of MTEs by Kim *et al.* (2013:4) in which they defined them as “a tourism experience positively remembered and recalled after the event has occurred”.

An in-depth review of literature that discusses the general characteristics of the determinants of memory and memorable experience conducted by Kim *et al.* (2012:12-25) and supported by Sthapit (2013:81) produced seven contributory factors to a MTE which are namely hedonism, novelty, local culture, refreshment, meaningfulness, involvement and knowledge (Kim *et al.*, 2010:784). The researcher however thought it not important to carry out an in depth discussion in these determinants as they were noted to be not so much in tangent with the “competence based” approach of the present study.

2.7.1 Benefits of creating memorable tourism experiences

As has already been noted in earlier sections, the provision of memorable experiences has been identified to be at the heart of what tourism is all about today as tourists now seem to attach more value to them. This is partly because the delivery of memorable tourism experiences has been noticed to result in positive outcomes, for both the supply side and demand side of the tourism industry. From a demand side perspective Csikszentmihalyi (1990:3) noted that memorable experiences may contribute to a “sense of exhilaration, a deep sense of enjoyment that is long cherished and that becomes a landmark in memory for what life should be like’. This view is supported by Murray *et al.* (2010:1-26) who note that if companies succeed in providing memorable experiences to tourists, the tourists benefit as well because they get a special experience as opposed to simply a pleasant trip.

Azevedo (2009:3) argues from a supply side perspective and regards the provision of memorable experiences to be one of the tools tourism operators can use to differentiate themselves from the rest of the crowd and gain a competitive advantage over those who continue to offer the same old products/services. Ultimately the provision of memorable experiences to customers will directly determine a business’s ability to generate revenue (Pine & Gilmore, 1999:22). The Canadian Tourism Commission (2004:1) as well as Ritchie and Crouch (2003:137) concur with the preceding argument by pointing out that in today’s environment that is characterised by ever more sophisticated

consumers, the delivery of memorable customer experiences successfully creates superior value and competitive advantage. The superior value and competitive advantage is seen in heightened customers' future behavioural intention to revisit the same destination or spreading positive word-of-mouth (Woodside *et al.*, 2004:1–7).

In a nutshell, the benefits of staging experiences are varied. They range from happy customers, repeat business, increased sales, enhanced brand identity, free marketing via word-of-mouth referrals and creating an emotional bond with customers. Hence creating experiences for customers will be a way for destinations or producers to survive in the ever more competitive marketplace (Sthapit, 2013:21).

2.7.2 *The co- creation of memorable tourism experiences*

Richards and Wilson (2006:1216) argue that the whole concept of developing experiences is dependent on the tourist as a creative co-producer and consumer of their experiences as well as the creative abilities of the experience creators. It has been observed that customers can now co-create their own unique experience (Prahalad & Ramaswamy, 2004:9) in which the company provides artefacts and contexts to enable the consumer to shape his/her experience (Caru & Cova, 2003:267-286). Prahalad and Ramaswamy (2004:9) indicate that customers gradually prefer to go their way and that the relationship between customers and companies is changing in favour of customers who are increasingly gaining power and control. Resultantly the popular defence against competition, for example, product and company-centric led innovations to increase product variety, is increasingly being taken over by the co-creation experience as a basis for value and as the future of innovation (Prahalad & Ramaswamy, 2004:10).

Ter Borg (as cited by Binkhorst, 2005:5) argues that the experience of the co-creation itself is the basis of a unique value for each. The “first generation experiences” are traced back from the late 1990s and are merely comprised of staged entertainment and fun while the “second generation experiences”, which are based on co-creation, have come up and take the individual as a starting point. This type of experience (the second

generation experience) is directed towards the personal social and cultural values that the individual itself holds (Boswijk, Thijssen & Peelen, 2005:43).

There is therefore now a new paradigm in business in which companies are moving away from a focus on consumers' product use to where consumer experiences have become more valuable than the – taken-for-granted – quality of a product (Quan & Wang, 2004:297-305). The experience is shaped by dreams and emotion, rather than on products or services and the quality of experiences are considered as "the key to success of tourism development" (Wang, 2006:65). Jensen (as cited by Mossberg, 2007:59) further suggests that people do not want to buy the products, but rather the experience of the product. This is because consumers are now seen as participants in the innovation process instead of passive respondents (Bueno & Rameckers, as cited by Binkhorst, 2005:4) as customers are increasingly gaining power and control (Binkhorst, 2005:3). This leads Prahalad and Ramaswamy (2003:12) to suggest that "a new point of view is required; one that allows individual customers to construct actively their consumption experiences through personalised interaction, thereby co-creating unique value for themselves". In the same vein Mossberg (2007:59) observes that customers have become co-producers, which means that the interaction between seller, buyer and the environment creates more value for the customer.

Memorable tourism experiences are therefore a shared outcome between the visitor and the provider. The visitor invests their personal time and money while the provider gains an understanding of the visitor's interests and provides what is required to facilitate the opportunity for a memorable experience. One can thus conclude that the tourism experience is not created but co-created by a network of tourism stakeholders. According to Prahalad and Ramaswamy (2004:10) the co-creation experience results from the interaction of an individual at a specific place and time and within the context of a particular act. Tour guides interact with inbound tourists directly and hourly during the entire itinerary and in this dialogic interaction tourists bring their concerns and interests to the interaction too (Min, 2012:158). Larsen and Meged (2013:89) also regards guides

and tourists as mutual depending co-producers of the guided tour in what Goffman (1959:83–108) terms “teamwork”.

Hence it is the purpose of this study to interrogate the human interactional role of tour guides in the co-creation of memorable tourism experiences.

2.7.3 The role of tour guides in the co-creation of memorable tourism experiences

In this section the researcher provides an overview of tour guides which includes among others, definitions of tour guides, their roles, competences and tour guides and co-creation of memorable tourism experience.

2.7.3.1 What is a tour guide?

A tour guide is defined as “a person who guides groups or individuals on visits to the buildings, sites and landscapes of a city or region and who interprets in the language of the visitor’s choice, the cultural and natural heritage and environment” (Black & Ham, 2005:178). The International Association of Tour Managers and the European Federation of Tourist Guide Associations (EFTGA) define a tour guide as a person who guide groups or individual visitors from abroad or from the home country around the monuments, sites and museums of a city or region; to interpret in an inspiring and entertaining manner, in the language of the visitor's choice, the cultural and natural heritage and environment (EFTGA, 1998:1). Tour guides are also called the shepherds of the industry, as they attempt to herd tourists around safely and try to ensure that they return with fond memories of their holiday (Ang, 1990:167–172). Additionally, there are several synonyms for tourist guides, like a tour guide, city guide, field guide and step-on guide. Other terms with slightly different connotations are tour manager, escort, tour escort, or tour leader, tour administrator, tour conductor, or courier in Europe (Collins, 2000:13; Pond, 1993:17). In this study the term tour guide is used and specific concepts are applied to distinguish particular tasks and functions of guides in the local context.

A tour guide can work as a permanent tour co-ordinator or operate on a freelance basis. Permanent tour guides usually have a monthly basic salary and earn extra money by getting guide fees or allowances on each assignment, tips from tourists and commission on shopping and selling optional tours, while freelance tour guides usually work on tour-by-tour or hour-by-hour basis (Zhang & Chow, 2004:82)

Tour guides are an essential interface between the host destination and its visitors (Ap & Wong, 2001:551). They are front-line employees who are very much responsible for the overall impression and satisfaction with the tour services offered by a destination (Ap & Wong, 2001:551). Despite their critical role mentioned above, tour guide services are usually treated as supporting or ancillary in tourism (Foster, 1985:95). The profession is still “unknown”, depreciated and undervalued profession, which is why Pond (1993:12) aptly named its subjects as “orphans of the travel industry” as they are somewhat hidden within the trade. This problem is compounded by the fact that their work is often of a seasonal, freelance and part-time in nature thus resulting in their visibility, stature and income being low (Ap & Wong, 2001:558). In addition, while the role of the tour guide is recognised as being important in `making or breaking a tour their recognition within society, unfortunately, is also not as highly regarded (Ap & Wong, 2001:558).

Christie and Mason (2003:3) argue that tour guides are the most maligned people in the world of travel as they are blamed for the problems of travel, such as bad weather and traffic jams. Wynn (2010:148) concurs with the preceding view and goes on further to highlight that as a group, guides are informal labourers in a loosely organised sector of the tourism industry (as compared with the travel, accommodations and retail sectors). Thus, consideration ought to be given to heighten awareness of the professional work and enhance the status of tour guiding, especially to eliminate any misunderstanding or the stigmas that currently exist (Ap & Wong, 2001:558).

2.7.3.2 *The roles of a tour guide*

Understanding the roles tour guides are supposed to play, should be the starting point for the discussion on training of guides (Chowdhary & Prakash, 2009:163) as this will enhance better tourist guide training (Weiler & Davis, 1993:91-98). Examining the roles of tour guides has been one of the central themes in tour guide research (e.g. by Cohen, 1985:5–29; Dahles, 2002:783–800; Fine & Speer, 1985:73-95; Holloway, 1981:377–402; Katz, 1985:49-72; Pearce, 1984:226–237; Rabotic, 2011:151-161; Salazar, 2005:833–852; Schmidt, 1979:441–468; Zhang & Chow, 2004:81-91) and there is a remarkable increase in recognition by both the tourism industry and researchers of the important roles played by the tour guides (Ap & Wong, 2001:551–563; Prakash *et al.*, 2011:65-81; Weiler & Ham, 2002:52-69). The growing examination of the subject has led to a more sophisticated appreciation for the tour guiding roles (Huang & Weiler, 2010:848) moreover, it has been widely noted that the contemporary tourist guiding has a complex and multifaceted role consisting of various separate roles and sub-roles (Rabotic, 2010:1). Tour guides act as “buffers” among tourists, the social environment, arranging transportation, interpreting, handling problems, insulating travellers from difficulties and making the environment safe for tourists because they act as “intermediaries” between tourists and the “unknown” environment (Pearce, 1984:226–237; Schmidt, 1979:441–468). According to Cohen’s (1985:5–29) model, the role of a tour guide has four principal components in a tour:

1. The Instrumental Role: focusing on direction-giving, navigation, access to the territory and safety;
2. The Interactional Role: focusing on representation of the area to the followers in a non-threatening manner and organisation;
3. The Social Role: focusing on tension management, social integration and cohesion and using humour and entertainment to maintain and build a group morale;

4. The Communicative Role: focusing on selecting points of interest for the group, dissemination of correct information and the translation of the unfamiliar and fabrication (Cohen, as cited by Randall & Rollins, 2009:359).

The above work by Cohen (1985:5–29) is challenged by Weiler and Davis (1993:91–98) for not incorporating the needs of the natural environment. Weiler and Davis (1993:91–98) argue that when deciphering the role of a tour guide an additional focus must be placed on the natural environment, or what they term “resource management”. They argue that this resource management focus contains two roles: “motivator” (the modification of tourist behaviour and impacts on-site) and “environmental interpreter” (the understanding and appreciation of environmental issues to facilitate responsible tourist behaviours in the long term) (Weiler & Davis, 1993:91–98). While one appreciates the observation by Weiler and Davis (1993:91–98) it can however still be argued that the additional roles as explained by Weiler and Davis (1993:91–98) are already encompassed within Cohen’s (1985:5–29) original model. For example, one can argue that motivator is implicit under the interactional dimension and environmental interpreter is implicit in the communicative dimension.

Nonetheless, the Weiler and Davis (1993:91–98) study indicated that tour operators ranked environmental interpreter and motivator highly among the six identified roles rather than within the four functions identified by Cohen (1985:5–29) further highlighting the saliency of Weiler and Davis’ (1993:91–98) typology. Forestell (1993:267–282) and Kimmel (1999:40–44) support the extended roles of tour guides by Weiler and Davis (1993:91–98). They concur that the tour guide is in a potentially influential position to modify and correct visitor behaviour to ensure that it is environmentally responsible and contributes to environmentally sensitive attitudes. Thus Cohen’s (1985:5–29) model as extended by Weiler and Davis (1993:91–98) can be used to summarise the relative importance and performance of the roles of the guide (Randall & Rollins, 2009:363).

Pond (1993:76) identified five critical roles played by tour guides that she cited as leaders, educators, public relations representatives, hosts and conduits. She noted that

these five may appear as separate roles, but they are in practice “interwoven and synergistic” (1993:76). It can therefore be noted from the above three models (Cohen, 1985:5-29; Pond, 1993:76; Weiler & Davis, 1993:232) that, in practice, tour guide performance is based on the tour guide’s fulfilling several functions (Chang, 2014:222). It is thus important to note that while the above models fittingly capture the roles tour guides play, there are other sub-roles that they undertake. These are explained subsequently. For example by virtue of them being employees of the tour operators, tour guides also function as the “spokespersons” representing the image and reputation of the company and the “salespersons” selling the next tour for the companies they represent (Fine & Speer, 1985:73-95).

From the host destination’s viewpoint, they function as the “interpreters” translating the cultures and values of the host destination (Holloway, 1981:377–402; Katz, 1985:49-72; Ryan & Dewar, 1995:295-303) and as the “mediators” who mediate between the host destination environment and its visitors (Ballantyne & Hughes, 2001:2–9; Weiler & Davis, 1993:91–98). Tour guides also function as the “ambassadors” of the host communities who according to Pond (1993:vii) are entrusted with the public relations missions “to encapsulate the essence of place”. Due to their in-depth knowledge about the local area tour guides also serve as the window to a particular destination (Holloway, 1981:377–402). The tour guide has other important roles, such as pursuing the safety, comfort and health of visitors, all of which require specialised training. Thus, the guide has an important role to play in providing quality service, ensuring customer satisfaction and in orchestrating and delivering the visitors’ experience (Black *et al.*, 2001:150).

Among the many varied roles tour guides play, there has been a strong emphasis on their “mediator” role which according to Dahles (2002:783–800); includes mediation between the tourists and the various stakeholders in the tourism supply chain for example, tour operator, hotels and other tourism suppliers as well as between the tourists and the host community and environment (Weiler & Davis, 1993:91–98; Ballantyne & Hughes, 2001:2–9). In this regard, the guide is portrayed as someone who

builds bridges among different groups of people. Nonetheless, Holloway (1981:377–402) seems to regard the guide’s role as educator as the most important while Cohen (1985:5-29) argues that the communicative component is the most crucial. This shows it may then be debatable to single out a particular function and label it as the most supreme. It is therefore important to treat all the tour guiding roles as equally important.

It has been noted that the harmonious balancing of the benefits of these diverse stakeholders is most ideal; however, as cited by Dahles (2002:783–800); the process of mediation in the actual tourism practice can be problematic and the roles of tour guides are not likely to be harmonious at all times. In fact, Holloway (1981:377–402) observes that the different tour guiding roles are often in conflict with one another. This is exacerbated by the fact that, tour guides have an “entrepreneurship” role to meet, as they have a need to make their encounters with tourists profitable for themselves (Dahles, 2002:783–800). Based on these arguments, one can note an over-idealisation on tour guides’ “mediator” role and an under-awareness on tour guides, “entrepreneur” role (Dahles, 2002:783–800). The different roles of the tour guide as defined by researchers are summarised in Table 2.2.

Table 2.2: Roles of a tour guide

Roles	Researcher Year
Actor	Holloway (1981)
Ambassador	Holloway (1981)
Buffer	Schmidt (1979); Pearce (1982)
Caretaker	Fine and Speer (1985)
Catalyst/ social role	Holloway (1981); Schmidt (1979); Cohen (1985); Almagor (1985); Hughes (1991); Weiler and Davis (1993); Pond (1993); Gurung, Simmons and Devlin (1997); Haig (1997); Ballantyne and Hughes (2001)
Coordinator	Zhang and Chow (2004); Min (2012)
Counsellor-guide	Cohen <i>et al.</i> (2002)

Culture Broker	Holloway (1981); Katz (1985); Weiller and Yu (2007)
Educator	Cohen (1985); El-Sharkawy (2007) Randall and Rollins (2009); Skanavis and Giannoulis (2009)
Entertainer	Holloway (1981)
Information-giver	Holloway (1981); Hughes (1991)
Intermediary	Schmidt (1979); Ryan and Dewar (1995)
Interpreter/Translator	Almagor (1985); Holloway (1981); Katz (1985); Ryan and Dewar (1995); Min (2012)
Leader	Cohen (1985); Geva and Goldman (1991)
Mediator	Schmidt (1979); Holloway (1981); Cohen (1985); Katz (1985)
Organiser	Hughes (1991); Pearce (1982); Schuchat (1983)
Pathfinder	Cohen (1985); Pearce (1984)
Problem and emergency handler	Min (2012)
Publicist, protector and investigator	Min (2012); Huang <i>et al.</i> (2010)
Salesperson	Fine and Speer (1985); Schmidt (1979)
Specialist Information Giver	Black <i>et al.</i> (2001)
Teacher	Holloway (1981); Pearce (1982); Fine and Speer (1985); Mancini (2001)
Transportation, accommodation and meal arranger	Min (2012)

Source: Developed by the researcher from existing literature

As can be noted in Table 2.2, a review of published literature on tour guides reveals that they have at least 23 diverse roles to undertake and therefore, in practice, their

performance is based on the tour guide's fulfilling several functions as noted above. This shows that "they exist not merely as a mouthpiece, mindlessly rattling information or as a merciless shopping sales person" but have multiple roles to undertake which call for "commitment, enthusiasm and integrity as the entire experience of the tourist lies in their hands" (Ang, 1990:71).

It has become undoubtedly clear that tour guides are an imperative and critical element of any tour. Their knowledge, skill and ability to balance group situations along with individual needs are especially essential to group travel (Canadian Tourism Commission, 2004:9). As is discussed in this section of the study, the roles that a guide may be required to perform that have been discoursed above, therefore provide the basis for identifying the attributes and competences required to be a "qualified" or "good" guide (Black & Weiler, 2005:25).

2.7.3.3 *Tour guides as co- creators of memorable tourism experiences*

While tourism practitioners recognise the advent of the experience economy there exists a scant level of understanding of tour guide competences necessary to develop MTEs, despite the competitive value assigned to the delivery of MTEs. While only minimum attempts have been done so far to explain how memorable tourism experiences can be created (e.g. by Kim *et al.*, 2012:12-25; Sthapit, 2013:1-96) these however seem to have been pitched at a global and generic perspective while avoiding a particular focus on the individual units of the tourism value chain which tour guides are a part of. It should be appreciated that tourism is a fragmented industry and visitor value depends on many disparate aspects working together in unity (UNWTO, 2007:9). For example, from the time that the visitor arrives at the destination, until he/she leaves, visitor value is affected by many experiences including a range of public services, private products and community interactions and hospitality. Therefore a one shoe size fits all approach may not be applicable to all the various levels or units of the tourism value chain when one is unravelling the determinants of memorable tourism experiences.

The preceding observations are corroborated by Oh *et al.* (2007:129) who point out that the experience economy has been introduced to the tourism literature only at an introductory conceptual level and requires a more in-depth research to uncover its components and characteristics. This section is therefore an attempt to assess scholars' perspectives on how tour guides as an important cog in the tourism value chain can engender the development of memorable tourism experiences. Despite the widely acknowledged benefits and significant roles they assume in the tourism system it is ironic that the tour guides still represent a largely underrated and underutilised human resource (Dioko & Unakul, as cited by Rabotić, 2010:2).

The study has noted that tour guides, as the front-liners in the tourism industry, are extremely meritorious for tourist experience (Rabotic, 2011:159), with Hsu (2000:223-238) suggesting that an ineffective guide may have adverse effects on tourists' enjoyment of their holiday experience. It is therefore clear that tour guides have a direct impact on tourist experience. Having appreciated a tour guide's potential role in transforming a tour into an experience, it is now only logical that the researcher taps into the study's key research question, namely "What are the key tour guide competences to co-create memorable tourism experiences?"

The role of tour guides in the creation of memorable tourism experiences can be appreciated especially when one understands tourism experience as a function of human interactions (Dalton, 2011:128). Dalton defines tourism experience as "individual encounters designed around a core activity, they are context specific, created through varying levels of human interactions and supported through reinforcing activities with the goal of facilitating uniquely valuable emotional outcomes which can be recalled at a later stage" (Dalton, 2011:128). The above view is also supported by Bharwani and Jauhari (2013:825) who point out that human interaction plays an important role in creating memorable guest experience. Additionally, it has been noted that, in business settings where the host-guest relationship is dominant, frontline employees can be used as operant resources to co-create customer experiences (Bharwani & Jauhari, 2013:824; Lusch, Vargo & O'Brien, 2007:5-18).

The same is therefore true for tour guiding, where human interaction is a dominant feature between the tour guides and tourists. Tour guides have been observed to interact with inbound tourists directly and hourly during the entire itinerary and to assist tourists in having rewarding experiences (Min, 2012:158). As already noted, their performance potentially influences tourist satisfaction and loyalty, the company's image and the tourism experience as a whole (Bowie & Chang, 2005:303-322; Mossberg, 1995:437-445; Zhang & Chow, 2004:81-91). Geva and Goldman (1991:177-185) point out that a tour guide's performance is a primary attribute of a successful tour.

Rabotic (2010:3) concurs with the above observations but goes further to broaden the scope for the interactive competences required for the development of tourist experiences. The author acknowledges that the experience offered by a guided tour includes a tourist guide, participants (tourists) and environment (setting) and it may occur when all three actions interact simultaneously, sharing the identical focus, i.e. the same travelling during certain periods of time. It is an occasion to establish various relationships between audience and setting, the guide and audience, the guide and setting and all three parties respectively (Rabotic, 2010:3). Consistent with the above observation, Pastorelli (2003:3) notes that "guides should manage these relationships with the aim of ensuring a positive experience for the visitor, a sustainable experience for the environment and a rewarding experience for themselves". Thus, the ultimate question that should be explored in this section is "what are the human interaction competences tour guides should possess to co-create memorable tourism experiences?"

2.8 Human interaction

This section explores how human interaction can influence and facilitate experiences. Interaction represents all the visitor interactions which may be interpersonal, incorporating tourist providers and other tourists and/ infer contextual (autonomous and not- personal) interactions with signage, design, places and objects and atmosphere

which in combination offer opportunities for participation and co-creation (Pine & Gilmore, 1998:97-105; Tussyadiah & Fesenmaier, 2009:24-40).

Gupta and Vajic (2000:35-51) argue that it is the interaction of a customer with a service provider that leads to the co-creation of an experience. This view is also supported by Echeverri (2005:199-209) who asserts that a service becomes an experience when visitors interact with a number of specific pre-requisites such as organisational structures, activities, personnel and other customers. Hence the interaction component needs to view tourists as active participants rather than passive consumers by letting them “play key roles in creating the performance or event that yields the “experience” (Pine & Gilmore, 1998:101).

Dalton (2011:33) identified three main types of interactions that stimulate experiences. These are the tourists and organisational personnel interaction, the tourists with other tourists’ interactions and lastly tourists’ interactions with inter contextual elements. While the three types of interaction have been noted above, it is important at this stage to further note that the researcher concentrated mostly on the tourist’s interaction with organisational personnel. Many authors have underscored the importance of employee/customer interaction for successful experiences (Gronroos, 1989:52-59; Grove *et al.*, 1992:91-102; Lovelock, 1999:278-289). It has been suggested that providers can use various cues, triggers and mediators to attract and hold tourist attention and induce emotional experiences (Ooi, 2005:51-68).

Guiding, like many other tourist services, involves an interaction order where there is proximity between tourists and frontline staff who often have to perform at a specific moment to ensure that the service is informative, pleasurable and memorable to those consuming them. According to Larsen and Meged (2013:91) it is these moments of truth that determine whether a service succeeds or fails and as Goffman (1959:243) noticed: “life may not be much of a gamble, but interaction is”. Thus any “moment of truth” is a gamble since even the most fleeting misconduct is likely to be noticed and disturbing to the interaction order (Larsen & Meged, 2013:91). Front-stage workers, such as tour

guides, who have high face-to-face contact with tourists, work under the “tourist gaze” and are highly poised to influence the development of memorable tourism experiences.

It is therefore glaringly noticeable that human interaction has emerged as an important dimension which influences tourist experiences (Bharwani & Jauhari, 2013:825; Dalton, 2011:128; Min, 2012:158) and frontline employees are considered to be key determinants of the customer or tourist experience (Bowie & Chang, 2005:303-322; Geva & Goldman, 1991:177-185; Kusluvan, Kusluvan, Ilhan & Buyruk, 2010:172; Mossberg, 1995:437-445; Zhang & Chow, 2004:81-91). Thus, the customer interaction has to be managed in such a manner so as “to co-create value with customers while addressing customer-specific idiosyncratic needs” (Chathoth, Altinay, Harrington, Okumus & Chan, 2013:13). This view is confirmed by Morgan (2006:305–313) who points out that, to be successful in the experience economy, it is therefore important to train and develop professionals who understand the nuances of social behaviour and are capable of better anticipating and catering to the requirements and wants of their guests.

The results of Ross and Iso-Ahola (cited by Rabotic, 2011:153) also proved from a group interaction tour experience perspective that social interaction represents a significant motivation for choosing the group tour. They observed that customers are not only satisfied with presenting and interpreting attractions, but also expectant about facilitated group interaction. In a study conducted by Hsu (2000:223-238) on the perception of elderly visitors on United States coach tours it was noted that an “interesting” tour guide is one that makes tourists’ experiences more enjoyable for the audience, charged with the vital role of creating a friendly atmosphere among companions. These observations thus bear testimony to the importance of also possessing group interaction competences by tour guides.

Falk and Dierkling (1992:158) consider that the frontline employees must be highly trained and committed to personalising the experience for each tourist. Some best practice examples from employees include the use of drama, storytelling, actions and

activities to capture attention combined with keen understanding of the emotional needs of the tourists (Dalton, 2011:137). Using the metaphor of theatre, stage and performance (Pine & Gilmore, 1999:97-105) suggests that, rather than playing their part by rote and surface acting, service performers need to get under the skin of the character by “intelligently” putting something of themselves into the part. Prahalad and Ramaswamy (2004:11) point out that organisations need to be cognisant and intuitive of the needs of their visitors in order to “identify trends, access customers” desires and preferences” which allows them to design opportunities that garner visitor’s attention (Pine & Gilmore, 1998:97-105). Frontline employees should thus possess critical skills that facilitate interpersonal interaction for example, a high degree of knowledge, an understanding of visitors’ experiential needs, empathy and willingness to initiate conversations which has more to do with the possession of appropriate personality traits.

2.8.1 Personality traits

As theorised earlier on in Chapter one, one cannot be an effective tour guide if he or she does not have a good personality (Phoompanit cited by Laowirojanakul, 1999:20) as personality plays an important role in determining the job performance of the guide (Lim & Aylett, 2007:4). Wong and Lee (2012:15) support the preceding view by observing that tour guides by virtue of being the first point of contact for visitors, their personality traits impact tourists’ satisfaction and how they feel when they leave the destination. Thus according to Pearman (2002:11), personality traits and job performance are interdependent factors, which as further noted by Blyablina (2015:44) leads some organisations to consider personality as a key feature in selecting guides. Hence the study proposes that tour guides need appropriate personality traits to co-create memorable tourism experiences.

According to Hung and Lee (2015:355) “personality”, is derived from the Latin term “persona”, which means “mask” worn by theatre actors, to represent their role and personality in a play. Eysenck (1967) simply describes it as the “outward indication of a

person's character". The concept has been understood in various ways considering the diversity of psychological approaches aroused in the personality studies (Abali, 2006:12). Eysenck (1967) further defines personality as the characteristics and qualities of a person which are seen as a whole and which differentiate him or her from other people. Liao (2005) seems to concur with Eysenck (1967)'s viewpoint by perceiving personality as a combination of unique personal attributes and characteristics. Taking a more summative approach, Preji (2014:34) simply defines personality as a reflection of an individuals' mind.

Plog (1974:55-58) sought to relate personality traits directly with tourist behaviour and classified people up into psychocentrics and allocentrics. According to his typology, he argues that the former were less adventurous, inward-looking people who tend to prefer the familiar and have a preference for resorts that are already popular. Allocentrics, contrastingly, were identified as the outward-looking people who enjoy taking risks and engaging in more adventurous holidays.

While theorists proposed any number between "three, sixteen or even 4000" different personality traits, however, in recent years, there has been a general consensus on five traits, also called the Big Five personality traits or Five-Factor Model (Joose, Lohse, Pérez & Evers, 2013:2134). In this conceptualisation, a number of human personality traits are bunched into the "Big Five Factors" namely openness, experience, conscientiousness, extraversion, agreeableness and neuroticism (OCEAN) (McCrae & Costa, 1996:51-87). Johari and Hee (2013:214) explain that an individual who possess the trait of openness to experience is broadminded and creative, thinking out of the box and are more inclined to think of alternative ways to solve a problem (Mount, Barrick & Stewart, 1998:145-165). The second factor is identified as "conscientiousness" which refers to employees who are hardworking, organised, reliable, thorough, efficient, persistent and attentive to their work (Lin, Chiu & Hsieh, 2001:57-67). Extraversion individuals are described as those who are highly social, affectionate and friendly and often exhibit strong commitment to social interaction and group activities (Judge, Martocchio & Thoresen, 1997:745-755).

Extraverted people are mostly optimistic people who regard challenges as achievable, problems as solvable and strive to make a difference each day. The fourth factor is “agreeable” in which the individual is described as one who always has concern and sympathy for others, a person who is trusting, straightforward, altruistic, tender-minded and modest (Costa & McCrae, 1992). Thus tour guides who display this trait are kind, forgiving, sympathetic and tolerant. Neuroticism refers to a person’s emotional state associated with being depressed, worried, angry and unstable (Lin, Chiu & Hsieh, 2001:57-67). Thus neurotic employees treat emotionally stressful encounters as personal attack and easily bothered (Ehrhart, 2006:193-227) and are less likely to perform customer-oriented behaviour (Johari & Hee, 2013:214).

While the Big Five Factor model may be viewed as one important model in personality studies, the researcher only treated the model as a good starting point for understanding personality dimensions in view of some inherent limitations associated with it. Boyle (2008: 295-312) argues that the model does not explain all of human personality, rendering it a less than optimal account of human personality structure (Boyle, 2008: 295-312). This view resonates well with earlier findings by scholars that the model neglects other pertinent traits in its measurement scale such as education (knowledge); sense of humour and honesty (Paunonan & Jackson, 2000:821-835; Saucier & Goldberg, 2001:847-879) to name but a few. Personality researchers (e.g., Cattell, 1995:1307-1311; Comrey, 1993) are hence on record to have proposed additional trait dimensions, validating concerns about the adequacy of the five factors model (FFM).

In view of the preceding discourse, the researcher concludes that the FFM should therefore not be regarded as the “integrative model of personality” as it lacks “inclusivity” and a wide “breath”. This makes it meritorious for the researcher to expand the model. Further validating this position, is the observation that the FFM is in disregard of the contextual nature of the human experience (McAdams, 1992:329–361) which also warrants the researcher to explore how then the subject of personality traits has been treated within the context of the tour guiding field.

Preji (2014:33) remarks that a pleasing personality is the essence of being a good tour guide and goes on further to identify, humour, charisma, rapport with clients, leadership, passion, enthusiasm and empathy as the key personality traits of a successful guide. The discourse on personality traits of a good guide can be further understood, especially when one considers the seminal definition of personality traits by Eysenck (1967) which associates personality traits with the characteristics and qualities of a person which differentiate him or her from other people (Eysenck, 1967).

Various personality traits, “characteristics” or “qualities” for ideal tour guides have aptly been identified by scholars. These include passion/ enthusiasm; communication effectiveness (Ryan & Dewar, 1995:295-303; Zhang & Chow, 2004:81-91); time management /punctuality (Zhang & Chow, 2004:81-91) ability to solve problems and emergencies (Min, 2012:158; Mossberg, 1995:437-445; Zhang & Chow, 2004:81-91); knowledge of destination and tourism products (Ap & Wong, 2001:551; Chowdhary & Prakash, 2009:164; Zhang & Chow, 2004:81-91) honest and trustworthy and well-trained (Zhang & Chow, 2004:81-91); planning skills, lecturing/teaching skills, patience/tolerance and optimism (Fine & Speer, 1985:73-95; Mancini, 2001:212; Pearce, 1982:129-146).

Other personality competences include appearing neat and tidy; paying attention to detail and possession of a sense of humour (Zhang & Chow, 2004:81-91); multilingual ability (Ap & Wong, 2001:551-563; Chowdhary & Prakash, 2009:164); right attitude with respect to service (Ap & Wong, 2001:551; Wang *et al.*, 2007:361–376; Zhang & Chow, 2004:81-91); empathetic (Yu *et al.*, 2001:75–87); ability to coordinate within group members (Wang *et al.*, 2007:361–376); non-judgmental; sensitive to others’ needs (Chowdhary & Prakash, 2009:164; Yu *et al.*, 2001:75–87); a sense of responsibility (Wang *et al.*, 2007:361–376); commitment to lifelong learning; flexibility and business skills (Chowdhary & Prakash, 2009:169).

The other notable personality qualities of a good guide include the “interpreting skill” (Holloway, 1981:377–402; Katz, 1985:49-72; Ryan & Dewar, 1995:295-303);

counselling (Cohen *et al.*, 2002:919-932); entertaining skills (Holloway, 1981:377-402); organising skills (Hughes, 1991:166-172; Pearce, 1982:129-146; Schuchat, 1983:465-477). Table 2.3 summarises the personality traits of a good tour guide that have been discussed.

Table 2.3: Personality trait competences of a good tour guide

Tour guide personality trait related competence	Author and Year
Passion/ enthusiasm	Ham and Wailer (2005); Chowdhary and Prakash (2009); Pond (1993)
Communication Effectiveness	Ham and Wailer (2005); Zhang and Chow (2004); Ryan and Dewar (1995); Wang <i>et al.</i> (2007)
Time management /Punctuality	Zhang and Chow (2004); Mancini (1996)
Ability to solve problems and emergencies	Zhang and Chow (2004); Mossberg (1995); Min (2012); Mancini (1996)
Knowledge of destination and tourism products	Zhang and Chow (2004); Ap and Wong (2001); Chowdhary and Prakash (2009)
Honest and trustworthy	Zhang and Chow (2004)
Well trained	Zhang and Chow (2004)
Planning skills	Fine and Speer (1985); Mancini (2001); Pearce (1982)
Lecturing/teaching skills	Fine and Speer (1985); Mancini (2001); Pearce (1982)
Patience/tolerance	Fine and Speer (1985); Mancini (2001); Pearce (1982)
Appearing neat and tidy	Zhang and Chow (2004)
Paying attention to detail	Zhang and Chow (2004)
Possession of a sense of humour	Zhang and Chow (2004)

Multilingual ability	Ap and Wong (2001); Chowdhary and Prakash (2009)
Right attitude with respect to service	Ap and Wong (2001); Zhang and Chow (2004); Wang <i>et al.</i> (2007)
Empathetic	Yu <i>et al.</i> (2001); Pond (1993)
Ability to coordinate within group members	Wang <i>et al.</i> (2007)
Non-judgmental	Yu <i>et al.</i> (2001)
Sensitive to others' need	Yu <i>et al.</i> (2001); Chowdhary and Prakash (2009)
A sense of responsibility	Wang <i>et al.</i> (2007)
Commitment to lifelong learning	Chowdhary and Prakash (2009); Pond (1993)
Flexibility	Chowdhary and Prakash (2009); Pond (1993)
Business skills	Chowdhary and Prakash (2009)
Interpreting skills	Holloway (1981); Katz (1985); Ryan and Dewar (1995)
Entertaining skills	Holloway (1981)
Organising skills	Hughes (1991); Pearce (1982)

Source: Developed by the researcher from existing literature

While several tour guide competences have been noted above, the communication competences have been viewed by some scholars as the most important for example, by Goh (2008:10) labelling them as the lifeblood of effective interpretation. Oschell (2009:16) concurs with Goh (2008:10) and point out that the communication competence is essential if the guides are to carry out their duties effectively. This is due to the rapid growth of international tourism in which tour guides now encounter tourists from different nationalities and cultures (Intarakomalyasut, as cited by Kong *et al.*, 2009:74). In their evaluation of the communicative competence of tour guides; Ryan

and Dewar (1995:295-303) conclude that effective communication skills enhance tourist satisfaction and they extended this competence to intercultural communication, to emphasise the importance of language abilities when dealing with different cultures.

Having examined the potential role that tour guides can play in co-creating memorable tourism experiences using their personality traits, the researcher therefore suggest the following hypothesis:

H1: there is a positive and significant relationship between personality traits and memorable tourism experience

2.8.2 Emotional intelligence

Walls, Okumus, Wang & Kwun (2011:166-197), have identified emotional intelligence as the other principal contributor in building the requisite competences which would impact the behaviour of frontline staff and improve their interactions with visitors. They point out that these competences “play crucial roles in enabling frontline employees to elevate guest experience from an ordinary encounter with a memorable one” (Bharwani & Jauhari, 2013:825). Earlier studies by Carvelzani *et al.* (2003:1-24) also confirm the above-mentioned need for emotional intelligence in the tourism industry. They advance the view that “because the tourism industry is characterised by high-contact encounters and considerable interaction with customers, it is especially crucial for professionals in this industry to have the ability to manage, regulate and control their emotions in order to interact with others constructively and effectively’. Hudson and Ritchie (2009:218) reinforce the preceding observation by noting that to meet the demands of the changing tourism marketplace tourism enterprises must change in operational methods and services and engage consumers at a more emotional level for greater competitive advantage (Schmitt, 1999:53-67).

Goleman (1998a:93-102) also observes that frontline staffs with good emotional intelligence skills are more likely to derive positive responses from the people with whom they interact. Thus emotionally intelligent individuals may be more acutely aware

of their feelings as well as the feelings of others and they may be better able to identify and communicate their feelings than less emotionally intelligent individuals (Mayer & Salovey, 1993:433–442). Carvelzani *et al.* (2003:1-24) acknowledge the importance of emotional intelligence by pointing out that “the ability to manage, regulate and control one’s emotions in order to interact with others effectively is one of essential skills in the tourism industry, which involves high contact encounters and significant interaction with customers”.

Thus understanding individuals’ current emotional intelligence levels is an important step because it provides a greater awareness of how individuals think, feel and behave (Nelson & Low, 2003). Emotional intelligence skills should particularly be utilised in jobs that generally contain high levels of emotional demand (Glomb, Kammeyer-Mueller & Rotundo, 2004:700-714) and a great deal of interaction with the customer (Carvelzani *et al.*, 2003:1-24); elements which closely tally the description of a tour guide. As has already been alluded to in the previous sections, tour guides act as intermediaries between tourists and an unfamiliar environment, thus playing an important role in the success or failure of a tour experience and influencing tourists’ perceptions of the host destination (Leclerc & Martin, 2004:181-200; Zhang & Chow, 2004:81-91). Because of their aforementioned mediatory responsibilities, it is therefore suggested that special attention be given to the EI levels of tour guides (Min, 2012:156). Thus in practice, tour guides can utilise emotional intelligence skills to both manage their own performance and also to regulate tourists’ moods (Min, 2012:156).

There are some notable differences in the conceptualisations of emotional intelligence due to varying definitions by scholars with some definitions often describing emotions from one point of view, emphasising just one of the many aspects of the phenomenon. For example, Cavelzani *et al.* (2003:4) simply define emotional intelligence as the knowledge and management of one’s emotions. Salovey and Mayer (1990:185–211) however view emotional intelligence (EI) from a broader perspective and in their conceptualisation embrace issues not only to do with one’s own emotions but also to do with understanding other people’s emotions. Salovey and Mayer (1990:185–211) thus

define emotional intelligence as “the ability to monitor one’s own and others feelings and emotions to discriminate among them and to use information to guide one’s thinking and action” (Salovey & Mayer, 1990:189). To clarify this construct further, Mayer and Salovey (1997:3–31) postulated that emotional intelligence involves the ability to perceive accurately, appraise and express emotion, the ability to access and /or generate emotional knowledge and the ability to regulate emotion to promote emotionally and intellectual growth. Goleman (1998b:317) however seems to concur with Salovey and Mayer’s (1990:189) definition as he defined emotional intelligence as the well managing of emotions both within oneself and in relationships.

Kunnanatt (2004:489-495) resonates well with the preceding definitions but seems to focus more on explaining the purpose of emotional intelligence. He defined emotional intelligence as “the ability of a person to use emotions as guiding tools for interpersonal effectiveness in his or her social environment.” Bar-on, Maree and Elias (2007:1-14) explains it as that aspect of human intelligence that governs our ability to recognise, understand, control and use emotions in solving problems of a personal and interpersonal nature. Boyatzis, Goleman and Rhee (2000:344) observe that when a person demonstrates the competences that constitute self-awareness, self-management, social awareness and social skills at appropriate times and ways in sufficient frequency to be useful in the situation possess emotional intelligence.

While diverse emotional intelligence definitions have been noted above, it should nevertheless be observed that they tend to be complementary rather than contradictory (Ciarrochi, Chan & Caputi, 2000:540). While diverse emotional intelligence definitions have been noted above, it should nevertheless be observed that they tend to be complementary rather than contradictory. They all “share a common desire to understand and measure the abilities and traits related to recognising and regulating emotions in ourselves and others” (Emmerling & Goleman, 2003:12) and “seek to understand how individuals perceive, understand, utilise and manage emotions in an effort to predict and foster personal effectiveness” (Emmerling & Goleman, 2003:12). From the above discourse and among other varied literature studies in emotional

intelligence, there seems to be an existence of basically two modern conceptualisations of emotional intelligence which are namely the ability-based model and the trait-based (or mixed) model (Min, 2012:157). The ability-based model, proposed primarily by Mayer and Salovey (1997:3–31) identify emotional intelligence as an individual's ability comprising four separate dimensions: emotions identification, emotions utilisation, emotions understanding and emotions regulation. On the other hand there is the trait-based model of emotional intelligence which was propounded by Goleman (1998b:1-326). In his definition of emotional intelligence, Goleman (1998b:35) takes a wider perspective and involves abilities that can be categorised as self-awareness, managing emotions, motivating oneself, empathy and handling relationships.

2.8.2.1 *The connection between emotions and intelligence*

While several scholars have been consulted above to explicate the meaning of emotional intelligence it is also interesting to explore how emotion can be connected with intelligence as the two concepts appear to be diametrically opposite and incompatible (Cavelzani *et al.*, 2003:3). According to Cavelzani *et al.* (2003:3) there has always been a separation between intelligence and emotion: intelligence has been related to reason and logical processes and emotion to irrationality and unconsciousness. Additionally, it is amorphous to study emotions since they are personal and idiosyncratic phenomena. Nonetheless it should be appreciated that emotions play an important role as they provide us with vital and potentially profitable information and experiences and they are the primary source of motivation that drives a subject to act in a particular way (Cavelzani *et al.*, 2003:4). It is therefore pointed out by Cavelzani *et al.* (2003:4) that repressing emotions, people prohibit themselves from experiencing their desires.

On the other side, emotions need to be well known and managed by reason because just on their uncontrolled emotions can lead us to wrong and even dangerous choices and decisions. Nelson and Low (2003:5) further described that “emotions are different from thoughts; emotions lead to actions. Without intelligent self-direction and

monitoring, emotions naturally lead to a habit of reactivity”. While it is widely believed that emotions are often private and in some cases, inappropriate and should not be displayed in the work environment; studies have shown that well-managed emotions can be useful in the personal and interpersonal (including professional) realms (Fisher & Ashkanasy, 2000:123-129; Gohm, 2003:594-607).

Aristotle (as cited by Goleman, 1998a:16-17) supports the above observations by acknowledging that “passions, when well-managed, are wise; they drive our thought, values, even our survival”. However, they can quickly become crazy and this often happens. So the point is: how to bring intelligence into our emotions? It is therefore sound and rationale to stop thinking separately about intelligence and emotions (Cherniss, 2000:1-14; Cherniss & Goleman, 1998:3-27; Goleman, 1998b:1-326) but instead as two aspects of the same thing: the human being as the “unitary referent of the experiences” (Di Francesco, as cited by Cavelzani *et al.*, 2003:5).

Among other claims, Goleman (1998b:1-326) conceptualised that emotional intelligence should be regarded as important as or even more important than Intelligence Quotient (IQ) as an important indicator of success in one’s professional and personal life. Watkin (2000:89-92) concurs with Goleman (1998b:1-326) and points out that emotional intelligence has been recently conceived of as a greater indicator of success than Intellectual Intelligence or IQ. This observation is consistent with Goleman (1998b:29)’s findings in which he concluded the superiority of emotional intelligence.

The Goleman (1998b:29) study’s primary objective centred on determining which competences were cognitive and which were emotional and the results indicated that 67 percent of the competences considered essential for each job were emotional. To review these results, Goleman (1998b:29) engaged an outside firm to reanalyse his data. The reanalysis of data concluded that “emotional competences were twice as important in contributing to excellence as were pure intellect and expertise” (Goleman, 1998b:320). In the same vein, it is important for one to appreciate that Goleman’s (1998b:320) findings are not isolated results (Hagen, 2012:29). Hagen (2012:30) argues

that Goleman (1998b:1-326) draws attention to the extensive research of Boyatzis (1982:1-301); which suggests that of the sixteen abilities demonstrated by exceptional managers, fourteen are emotional competences and a study by the Hay/McBer director of research (as cited by Hagen, 2012:30) suggesting that “80 percent of general competences that set apart superior from average performers depend on emotional intelligence” (Hagen, 2012:30).

From the foregoing discussion, Aydin, Leblebici, Arslan, Kilic and Oktem (2005:701-719) therefore propound that Human Resources Management specialists should not only seek to test IQ but also emotional intelligence (EQ) in the hiring process to create a high-performing workforce in the organisation. They suggest that in a high-performance context, the achievement involves not only technical analytical intelligence or educational background and expertise but the capacity of managing oneself and interpersonal relationships which is the emotional intelligence.

While the growing importance of emotional intelligence is being registered globally, studies are clear that emotional intelligence is in no way a replacement for IQ (Mayer, Salovey & Caruso, 2004:197-215). This is because according to Hagen (2012:8) in any profession, there is a baseline level of cognitive capacity essential for performing job functions correctly and IQ likewise fulfils that task, which means both IQ and EI need to be combined. Goleman (1998b:189) observes that when emotional intelligence is combined with IQ the impact will be very high with the top performers in professional domains having both IQ and EI.

Goleman (1998b:14) goes on further to describe IQ as a “threshold competence” which determines which players have access to a given field or profession. Once in the game with other players of similar cognitive ability, emotional intelligence determines which players in that field rises above everyone else all the way to the top. As such, emotional intelligence becomes a predictor of work success within a pool of highly intelligent professionals, who share common technical expertise (Goleman, 1998b:1-326). Thus according Goleman (1998b:1-326) IQ determines which individuals have the cognitive

capacity to join the ranks of a profession. Once a member of this echelon, however, IQ “washes out,” as all the competing members of a field have met identical cognitive and technical requirements. Only at this point, when the playing field has been levelled in terms of capacities related to IQ, does emotional intelligence gain predictive validity in determining which members of this exclusive group will become star players (Emmerling & Goleman, 2003:17). One can thus note as had earlier on been indicated that, emotional and cognitive intelligence are complimentary.

According to Hagen (2012:8) EI can be significantly improved in individuals. It has been observed that IQ tends to remain stable throughout one’s life while emotional intelligence can be increased with commitment and sustained effort and in addition, it is possible to maintain those increases over time.

Goleman (1998b:1-326) classifies emotional intelligence competences into two main categories namely the personal competences and the social competences. According to Goleman (1998b:1-326) individual competences involve dealing with one’s self and social competences are about dealing with others and managing one’s relationships. To a large extent Cavelzani *et al.* (2003:3) concur with the above taxonomy of emotional intelligence although instead of using the social competences tag identified by Goleman (1998b:1-326) they opt to use the Interpersonal Competences construct instead. Robinson (2011:175) agrees with this assessment, calling the inter- and intrapersonal skills which are embodied in the emotional intelligence construct “crucial factors” for workplace productivity, relationship development and leadership. Min (2011:323) observed emotional intelligence variables and categorised them under three dimensions which are namely: interpersonal skills (Assertion); self-management skills (Drive Strength, Time Management, Change Orientation and Commitment Ethic); and intrapersonal skills (Stress Management).

This seems to suggest enormous implications especially for the tour guiding industry which is predominantly a tourist-oriented and experience -based segment.

As has been alluded to earlier on, Aydin *et al.* (2005:701-719) pointed out that Human Resources Management specialists have to test emotional intelligence (EI) in the hiring process to create a high-performing workforce in the organisation. They observed that in a high performance context, the achievement involves not only technical analytical intelligence or educational background and expertise but the capacity of managing oneself (Intrapersonal Intelligence) and the ability of individuals to interact with and work well with other people (Interpersonal Intelligence) which in summation is emotional intelligence.

Cavelzani *et al.* (2003:6) identified that personal (intrapersonal) competence is composed of self-awareness, self-regulation and self-motivation attributes. The self-awareness level is related to both feeling our emotions and knowing that they affect our perceptions, thoughts and actions (Cavelzani *et al.*, 2003:6). In addition, it is associated with being aware that our emotions arouse reactions in the other as well. For instance, during a conversation if we are embarrassed, nervous or angry, the other person will sense and may react to it. To be conscious of one's emotion is not easy, especially when they are bad or overcoming us: feeling sadness, a grudge, or anger may be so mind-unsustainable that emotions are rationalised or refused. To be aware of what aroused an emotion is also important; in this regard (Damasio, as cited by Cavelzani *et al.*, 2003:6) studied problems of people with a low self-awareness level. The self-consciousness is then connected with the self-regulation that is the emotion knowledge and management in order to deal better with these situations. It should be appreciated that self-regulation does not mean to refuse emotions but instead, knowing emotions permits a person to control better their reactions during stressful moments.

Aydin *et al.* (2005:701-719) identified seventeen factors in their study to explain the relationship between pre-eminent achievement in organisations and two different dimensions of intelligence - IQ and EI. They have suggested that with IQ as a base, EI with its interpersonal and intrapersonal dimensions creates pre-eminent achievement in the workplace. The following were identified as the key competences for interpersonal intelligence:

- motivating others;
- influence and persuasion;
- team capabilities;
- communication; and
- collaboration and co-operation.

The competences for intrapersonal intelligence were identified to be:

- optimism and positive thinking;
- honesty and persuasion;
- perseverance;
- commitment;
- tolerance;
- self-confidence; and
- self-consciousness and self-control.

While researchers like Salovey and Mayer (1990:185-211) who propounded the term “Emotional Intelligence” and Goleman (1998b:1-326) who popularised it, included interpersonal intelligence as a facet of emotional intelligence, the various sub-dimensions of interpersonal intelligence were not explored in much depth. Nonetheless, Silberman (2001:266-270) in further studies, proposed different dimensions which enhance the understanding of the underlying facets of the interpersonal intelligence construct namely empathy and understanding, effective communication, emotional resilience, seeking and assimilating feedback, influencing skills, conflict resolution skills, flexibility and team playing. More to the point, Cavelzani *et al.* (2003:6) identified interpersonal competences to include empathy and social skills. According to Cavelzani *et al.* (2003:6) empathy is the ability to understand other’s emotions and it allows us to know other people’s feelings, worries and needs. It affects many relationships, with a partner, parents, friends and also in the business sphere. Additionally, social skills allow us to influence other people’s emotions, to have positive relationships, to communicate

with efficacy, to be a leader, to solve disagreements in the workplace and to promote personal and business improvement (Cavelzani *et al.*, 2003:6).

Carvelzani *et al.* (2003:7) observe that the tourism industry is characterised by high-contact encounters and considerable interaction with customers and that it is especially crucial for professionals in this industry to have the ability to manage, regulate and control their emotions in order to interact with others constructively and effectively. Goleman (1998b:1-326) argues that customer service providers with good EI skills are more capable of getting positive responses from the people with whom they interact.

Since tour guides have such a telling influence on the overall satisfaction and impressions of tourists, the development of EI skills seems crucial for tour guides. In practice, they can use EI skills to both manage their performance and to regulate tourists' moods in order to most appropriately and effectively interact with them (Min 2012:156). Thus understanding individuals' (both tourists and tour guides) current EI levels is a significant first step for EI-related studies, because it provides a greater awareness of how individuals think, feel and behave and this can catapult the frontline employees from being merely a "service provider" to becoming an "experience provider" (Bharwani & Jauhari, 2013:836). Kunnanatt (2004:489-495) supports this notion by pointing out that emotionally intelligent people produce win-win outcomes for themselves by creating a magnetic field of emotional attraction around them. Table 2.4 summarises the key subdimensions of emotional intelligence that have been gleaned from the literature. It is from this summary that the emotional intelligence subdimensions for the survey instrument were derived.

Table 2.4: Sub-dimensions of emotional intelligence

Emotional Intelligence Dimension	Emotional intelligence Sub-dimensions	Author(s)
Intrapersonal Intelligence	Intrapersonal Intelligence Dimensions	Bar-On <i>et al.</i> (2007); Robinson (2011); Min (2011)

	Self-awareness	Goleman (1995); Cavelzani <i>et al.</i> (2003); Goleman (1998b); Langhorn (2004)
	Motivating oneself	Goleman (1995); Aydin <i>et al.</i> (2005); Min (2011); Cavelzani <i>et al.</i> (2003)
	Stress Management	Bar-On <i>et al.</i> (2007); Min (2011)
	Self-regulation	Cavelzani <i>et al.</i> (2003); Goleman (1995); Goleman (1998b)
	Optimism and positive thinking	Aydin <i>et al.</i> (2005); Lashley (2008); Langhorn (2004)
	Honesty and persuasion	Aydin <i>et al.</i> (2005)
	Perseverance	Aydin <i>et al.</i> (2005)
	Commitment	Aydin <i>et al.</i> (2005); Hemmington (2007); Lashley (2008)
	Tolerance	Aydin <i>et al.</i> (2005)
	Self-confidence	Aydin <i>et al.</i> (2005)
	Self-consciousness and Self-control	Aydin <i>et al.</i> (2005)
Interpersonal Intelligence	Interpersonal Intelligence Dimensions	Bar-On <i>et al.</i> (2007); Aydin <i>et al.</i> (2005); Robinson (2011); Min (2011)
	Managing emotions	Goleman (1995); Aydin <i>et al.</i> (2005); Silberman (2001); Cavelzani <i>et al.</i> (2003)
	Empathy and understanding	Goleman (1995); Silberman (2001); Cavelzani <i>et al.</i> (2003)
	Effective Communication	Silberman (2001); Cavelzani <i>et al.</i> (2003); Aydin <i>et al.</i> (2005)
	Handling relationships	Goleman (1995); Aydin <i>et al.</i> (2005)
	Adaptability and Flexibility	Bar-On <i>et al.</i> (2007); Silberman (2001)
	General Mood	Bar-On <i>et al.</i> (2007)
	Motivating others	Aydin <i>et al.</i> (2005)

	Influencing and persuasion skills	Aydin <i>et al.</i> (2005); Silberman (2001); Cavelzani <i>et al.</i> (2003)
	Team capabilities	Aydin <i>et al.</i> (2005); Silberman (2001)
	Seeking and assimilating feedback	Silberman (2001)
	Collaboration and co-operation.	Aydin <i>et al.</i> (2005)
	Conflict resolution skills	Silberman (2001); Cavelzani <i>et al.</i> (2003)

Source: Developed by the researcher from existing literature

Having identified and discussed the emotional intelligence sub-dimensions and its theorised relationship with memorable tourism experiences, the researcher therefore proposes the following hypothesis:

H2: There is a positive and significant relationship between emotional intelligence and memorable tourism experience.

2.8.3 Cultural intelligence

According to Bharwani and Jauhari (2013:825) cultural intelligence is another critical facet of Human Interaction Competences as cultural dimensions play a big role in fostering relationships. Research has shown that guides are of crucial importance in tourism (Bowman, 1992:121–134; Cohen, 1985:5–29; Holloway, 1981:377–402) as they must translate “the strangeness of a foreign culture into a cultural idiom familiar to the visitors” (Cohen, 1985:15). As the experience economy has dramatically reshaped the tourism industry leading to an increased desire of tourists to be immersed in the “local” way of life (Suvantola, as cited by Bryon, 2012:29) thus a “sensitive” way of guiding demands that the guides display a high level of professional skills and an intimate knowledge of local culture (Boswijk *et al.*, 2005:43). Pearce (1984:136) supports this proposition when he points out that “in cross-cultural settings many tourists still need a guide since such visitors frequently break social rules and intrude upon others privacy”.

Boswijk *et al.* (2005:43) further point out that when guests and hosts are from different nationalities, sensitivity to cultures could play an important role in building memorable interactions as cultural underpinnings may impact values, behaviour and quality of communication. Fitzgerald (as cited by Bharwani & Jauhari, 2013:831) sheds more light on this aspect in her study by highlighting how differences in cultures could create situations that would need to be addressed differently in the context of service delivery. For example, she observes that in Japan, Japanese expect at all times, polite, smiling attention from all service personnel and that they think it impolite if staff speak to someone else while attending to their needs. Contrastingly Germans usually expect fast, efficient, “no nonsense service (Fitzgerald, 1998:48). In addition, Bharwani and Jauhari (2013:836) also point out that in Western cultures there is a shorter social distance between guests and frontline employees owing to cultural and experientially proximity. On the other hand, in the context of countries like India the social distance between the front line employees and guest is greater. Thus it is observed that the Western-centric nature of Tourism and Hospitality Industry operations in countries like India which are more remote from the everyday lives of the local people, create a gap in the cultural and experiential exposure of the locally recruited frontline employees and that of their guests.

Culture is defined as “that complex whole which includes knowledge, belief, art, morals, law, custom and any other capabilities and habits acquired by man as a member of society” (Tylor, 1871:1). Fitch (1998:2) concurs with the above definition by defining culture as “a pervasive, generally invisible system of symbolic resources and shared beliefs arising from shared experiences of a group of people that stands outside but still shapes their understanding of how the world works”. It is “the collective programming of the mind, which distinguishes the members of one group or category of people from those of another” (Hofstede, 2011:3). Thus culture has an effect on the relational practices, perceptions, emotional cues and behaviour of individuals. It should also be noted that the ability to understand emotions in the home culture does not mechanically and automatically transfer to unfamiliar cultures as observed by Ang, Van Dyne, Koh, Ng, Templer, Tay & Chandrasekar (2007:335-371).

Consequently, cultural values held by tourists from different cultures affect tourism experiences as tourists' cultural backgrounds lead to diverse interpretations of a single tourism product (Kim, 2013:2). Ashworth (as cited by Kim, 2013:2) supported this notion, namely, that tourists from different cultures perceive and encounter cultural and heritage spaces in different ways. As a result, tourists have different experiences even if the tourists perform the same activities in the same environments, because the tourists "cultural backgrounds affect their interpretations of the experiences (Kim, 2013:2). It then becomes of integral importance for destination managers as well as tourism practitioners to have cultural intelligence in order for them to understand the tourism experiences of visitors from different cultures as well to facilitate effectively for their high levels of satisfaction.

Ang *et al.* (2007:335-371) defined cultural intelligence as "the malleable capabilities of individuals to function and interact effectively in diverse intercultural settings involving different races, ethnicities and nationalities". It explains the difference in abilities of individuals to navigate culturally disparate environments. Cultural intelligence, thus, refers to the capabilities of an individual to intelligently deal with situations marked by cultural diversity (Bharwani & Jauhari, 2013:831). It is the personal ability which causes people to act effectively in different cultural circumstances (Crowne, 2008:394). It is thought that individuals with a high level of cultural intelligence have "a strong mastery and sense of emotional display and physical presence" (Ang *et al.*, 2007:335-371). This view is also supported by Deng and Gibson (2008:184) who remark that "a person, who has a high cultural intelligence, has learning ability in new cultural environment and enjoys encountering new cultures".

In tourist interactions, the frontline employee and the tourist may have very different cultures and orientations. It is therefore important that, employees become sensitive to the values and expectations of global visitors. There might even be a difference of values and perceptions. The degree of cultural empathy and cultural proximity frontline employees share with their visitors influences their ability to deliver on the guest experiences spectrum. When the tourism frontline employees have similar cultural

backgrounds and have had participatory exposure and enjoyed experiences similar to those which they are required to deliver to their guests, they can better “empathise and identify with the expectations and requirements of their customers, based on a shared cultural and experiential profile” (Baum, 2006:133). Thus, they can place themselves culturally and emotionally in the shoes of their guests and thereby deliver on a superior tourist experience.

2.8.3.1 *Metacognitive CQ*

Metacognitive cultural intelligence involves making sense of one’s diverse cultural experiences and is “an individual’s level of conscious cultural awareness during cross-cultural interactions” (Rockstuhl, Seiler, Ang, Van Dyne & Annen, 2011:827). Flavell (1979:906-911) describes it as the process of thinking about thinking. In the context of cultural intelligence, Ang *et al.* (2007:335-371) define Metacognitive CQ as the higher-order mental processes that individuals use to acquire knowledge of and control over individual thought processes relating to culture. Ang *et al.* (2007:335-371) observed that those with well-developed Metacognitive CQ are knowingly mindful of cultural preferences and norms before and during interactions.

2.8.3.2 *Cognitive CQ*

Cognitive CQ deals with general knowledge about the cultural practices and norms of different cultures which is acquired through experience or education (Bharwani & Jauhari, 2013:831). It includes understanding of the outlines of cultural values and the social systems of different cultures and sub-cultures. People with high cognitive CQ have the ability to recognise and predict commonalities and differences across various cultures (Ang *et al.*, 2007:335-371). Besides mental understanding of diverse cultures, cultural intelligence also includes the motivational capability required to deal with ambiguous and culturally unfamiliar situations.

2.8.3.3 *Motivational CQ*

Motivational CQ is defined as an individual's "capability to direct attention and energy toward learning about and functioning in situations characterised by cultural differences" (Ang *et al.*, 2007:338). Rockstuhl *et al.* (2011:827) support the preceding definition by pointing out that "motivational CQ is the capability to direct attention and energy toward learning about and operating in culturally diverse situations". Kanfer and Heggestad (1997:39) argue that these motivational capacities regulate and provide agentic control of emotion, cognition and behaviours that lead to effective intercultural encounters. Ang *et al.* (2004) noted that motivational CQ predicts general adjustment in intercultural environments. They also found that extraverted individuals, who are outgoing by definition, were more intrinsically motivated. Motivational CQ is evidenced in meetings in which, according to Ang and Van Dyne (2008:3-15), when one is excited, enthusiastic he or she may even initiate conversations with those from differing cultures. Thus one can immediately determine if there is an effort and energy on the part of another to remove the cultural barriers and interact in a global community.

2.8.3.4 *Behavioural intelligence*

Behavioural Intelligence refers to outward manifestations or overt expressions in terms of what people do rather than what they think (Sternberg, 1986:3-15). It is an individual's "capability to exhibit appropriate verbal and non-verbal actions when interacting with people from different cultures" (Ang *et al.*, 2007:338). Behavioural CQ focuses on what people do and not what they think or feel. It is noted that behavioural CQ is concerned with whether or not individuals will express the right verbal and non-verbal feedback in cultural situations. This requires a person to be flexible in their verbal and non-verbal cues. Thus, the last facet of CQ acknowledges that cultural understanding (cognition) and interest (motivation) must be accompanied by situation-appropriate behaviour gathered from a broad range of culture-specific verbal and non-verbal actions, while interacting with visitors from varied cultures. Thus for effective interaction to occur, individuals must recognise cultural cues, obtain cultural knowledge,

understand the cultural implications of their interactions and behave effectively in other cultures (Crowne, 2008:391-398).

Table 2.5 provides a summary of the cultural intelligence sub-dimensions. It is from these sub-dimensions that the cultural intelligence items to be included in the survey instrument were derived.

Table 2.5: The sub-dimensions of cultural intelligence

Cultural Intelligence Dimension	Cultural Intelligence Sub Dimension	Author and Year
Metacognitive CQ	Cultural sensitivity and mindfulness of cultural preferences and norms before and during interactions.	Earley <i>et al.</i> (2006); Earley and Peterson (2004); Bharwani and Jauhari (2013)
	Consciousness of cultural knowledge when dealing with people of different backgrounds.	Cultural Intelligence Centre (2005)
	Ability to adjust cultural knowledge when interacting with people of different culture.	Cultural Intelligence Centre (2005)
	Consciousness of cultural knowledge in cross-cultural interactions.	Cultural Intelligence Centre (2005)
	Accuracy of cultural knowledge when interacting with people of different cultures.	Cultural Intelligence Centre (2005)
Cognitive CQ	General knowledge about the cultural practices and norms of different cultures.	Earley <i>et al.</i> (2006); Ang <i>et al.</i> (2007); Earley and Peterson (2004); Bharwani and Jauhari

	<p>Knowledge of the legal systems of other cultures.</p> <p>Knowledge of the rules (e.g. vocabulary and grammar) of other languages.</p> <p>Knowledge of cultural values and religious beliefs of other cultures.</p> <p>Knowledge of marriage systems of other cultures.</p> <p>Knowledge of arts and crafts of other cultures.</p> <p>Knowledge of the rules for expressing non-verbal behaviour in other cultures.</p>	<p>(2013)</p> <p>Cultural Intelligence Centre (2005)</p>
	<p>Ability to deal with ambiguous and cultural unfamiliar situations.</p>	<p>Earley <i>et al.</i> (2006); Ang <i>et al.</i>(2007); Earley and Peterson (2004); Bharwani and Jauhari (2013)</p>
<p>Motivational CQ</p>	<p>Intrinsic desire to successfully engage in cross-cultural encounters despite cultural unfamiliarity and ambiguity.</p> <p>Joy in interacting with people from other cultures.</p> <p>Confidence when socialising with locals of an unfamiliar culture.</p> <p>Ability to deal with stresses of adjusting to a new culture.</p> <p>Joy in living in an unfamiliar culture.</p> <p>Ability to get accustomed to shopping conditions of a different culture.</p>	<p>Earley and Ang (2003); Bharwani and Jauhari (2013); Kanfer and Heggstad (1997); Cultural Intelligence Centre (2005)</p> <p>Cultural Intelligence Centre (2005)</p>

Behavioural Intelligence	Ability to exhibit the appropriate verbal-and non-verbal behaviours while engaging with guests from diverse cultural backgrounds.	Ang <i>et al.</i> (2007); Mkono (2010); Bharwani and Jauhari (2013); Earley <i>et al.</i> (2006); Ang <i>et al.</i> (2007)
	Ability to pause or silence differently to suit different cross-cultural situations.	Cultural Intelligence Centre (2005)
	Ability to vary rate of speaking when a cross cultural situation requires it.	Cultural Intelligence Centre (2005)

Source: Developed by the researcher from existing literature

To summarise from the reviewed literature it can be concluded that cultural intelligence influences the development of memorable tourism experiences, thus the researcher hypothesises that:

H3: There is a positive and significant relationship between cultural intelligence and memorable tourism experience.

Having conceptualised personality traits, emotional and cultural intelligence (PEC) as the key influencers of memorable tourism experiences, it is however important for one to note that these concepts are intricately intertwined and to some extent, it is amorphously difficult to separate them. Bharwani and Jauhari (2013:832) corroborate this notion by arguing out that cultural intelligence is primarily emotional intelligence across a cultural context. Earley and Mosakowski (2004:140) acknowledge that the most important commonality between both concepts is that in both cases individuals tend to have “a propensity to suspend judgment – to think before acting”. Nonetheless the point of division could be drawn to the fact that emotional intelligence focuses on the ability of an individual to perceive and manage emotions in a culture-neutral context while cultural intelligence provides individuals with insights and capabilities to deal with multi-cultural situations and engage in cross-cultural encounters.

Prentice and King (2011:49-66) also note that, in spite of its popularity, EI, is a relatively nascent construct within the domain of personality psychology but however, with an incremental effects over the personality dimensions (Prentice & King, 2011:49-66). Nevertheless, Petrides and Furnham (2001:425-448) have indicated that EI measured through performance-based tests is operationalised as a cognitive ability and classified as “ability EI”. The measurement of EI using self-report questionnaires can lead to the operationalisation of the construct as a personality trait, classified as “trait EI” This study sought to measure the emotional intelligence of tour guides using the performance based or customer based approaches instead of self-reports by guides (i.e. ability EI instead of trait EI). By using the ability EI instead of the trait EI, it shows that the researcher intended not to align the emotional intelligence to the personality traits (Petrides, Furnham & Frederickson, 2004:575).

This study assessed from the tourists’ perspective; the actual display of emotionally and culturally competent behaviours as well as the appropriate personality traits by the tour guides rather than to focus on the potential to display these competences. Traditional tools that have been used to assess employees’ emotional or cultural intelligence were mostly developed to be completed by the person being evaluated (Delcourt, Gremler, van Riel & van Birgelen, 2016:72-87). It is commonplace in service encounter studies that EI would be measured by asking an employee (or his or her supervisor) to report on the employee’s EI which may be liable to several biases (Delcourt *et al.*, 2016:72-87). Firstly these tools to measure EI or CI, focus on the employee’s potential to behave in an emotionally competent way, rather than the actual display of emotionally and culturally competent behaviours during tourist encounters, which is of a greater value. Secondly, employee self-reports are often subject to faking, distortion, or biases (Day & Carroll, 2008:761-784).

Since the conventional measures of emotional intelligence, cultural intelligence, suffer from the aforementioned limitations and biases, the researcher chose to adopt a customer-based conceptualisation (Delcourt *et al.*, 2016:72-87). In this study, this means that the researcher aimed to measure the actual display of emotionally or

culturally competent behaviours (rather than the potential to do so); as perceived by the tourists (rather than the employee) with a focus on interpersonal competences rather than potential intrapersonal abilities, which the customer may not be able to tell. The researcher contends that for evaluations of employee behaviours during tourist encounters the tourist perceptions should be the primary consideration, because they help shape the customer's experience (Delcourt *et al.*, 2016:72-87). Such an approach is in line with studies that capture the viewpoint of the customer to examine the effects of employee behaviours on customers during service encounters (e.g. Groth, Hennig-Thurau & Walsh, 2009:958-974; Salanova, Agut & Peiro, 2005:1217-1227). The quantitative research instrument finally developed (see Appendix 1) thus focussed mostly on those tour guide Personality traits, Emotional Intelligence and Cultural Intelligence (PEC) competences assessable from a tourist's perspective.

To this end, the author proposes a conceptual model for competences required to co-create a memorable experience. Though a memorable experience is influenced by many other aspects (Walls *et al.*, 2011:166-197); the competences of the tour guides play a crucial role in human interactions between the tour guides and the tourists. These competences can be bundled under the domain of Tour Guide Interactional Intelligence (TGII). Thus, Tour Guide Interactional Intelligence (TGII) comprises a set of competences required by tour guides to co-create memorable tourism experiences. The proposed Tour Guide Interactional Intelligence (TGII) comprise of three main dimensions which are the personality traits, emotional intelligence and cultural intelligence (PEC) competences. Emotional intelligence comprises of elements of both Interpersonal Intelligence and Intrapersonal Intelligence. Cultural intelligence includes four facets that are namely the Metacognitive, Cognitive, Motivational and Behavioural Intelligences. To deliver a superior tourist experience, tour guiding organisations have to recognise and bridge this gap by developing the Tour Guide Interactional Intelligence (TGII) of their tour guides through exposure, training and skills and knowledge development which will enhance their personality traits, cultural intelligence and emotional intelligence. See Figure 3.6 in Chapter three.

2.9 Chapter summary

This chapter reviewed scholars' perspectives on the various facets of the topic under study that is focused on assessing the key tour guide competences for co-creating memorable tourism experiences. Firstly the chapter gave an overview of the new experience economy, followed by a definition of experience and the discussion of the experienced product in contrast to a service product. Theories related to experience creation were also interrogated and these included the experience economy theory and the human capital development theory. The chapter also examined scholars' perspectives on the meaning of the tourism experience as well as a look at its components.

The researcher also looked at the benefits of creating memorable tourism experiences, the co-creation of memorable tourism experiences, the role of tour guides in the co-creation of memorable tourism experiences as well as the competences of a good tour guide. The chapter lastly examined the tour guide competences needed in the tour guide tourist interaction matrix in order to co-create memorable tourism experiences. These were identified to be the personality traits, emotional and the cultural intelligences (PEC) which have to be considered in view of the observed intervening factors for development of memorable tourism experiences.

The next chapter, Chapter three, serves as the second literature review section whose purpose is to explore and analyse Zimbabwe's tour guide educational and training systems by means of a literature review.

CHAPTER 3: ANALYSIS OVERVIEW OF EDUCATION AND TRAINING INTERVENTIONS REQUIRED TO DEVELOPE MEMORABLE TOURISM EXPERIENCE COMPETENCES IN TOUR GUIDES

3.1 Introduction

This Chapter is a literature analysis of how the competences to co-create memorable tourism experiences identified in Chapter three can be developed in tour guides. This Chapter will therefore build on the preceding one in order to develop a framework on the key tour guide competences to co-create memorable tourism experiences. The framework will be presented at the end of the Chapter. Topics covered in this Chapter include among others the following: education and training as a form of human capital development, importance of education and training, education and training interventions required for tour guides to co-create memorable tourism experiences. Other topics include personality traits development through education and training, development of emotional intelligence through education and training, development of cultural intelligence through education and training and education and training approaches for the personality traits, emotional intelligence and cultural intelligence.

3.2 Education and training as a form of human capital development

Education and training are regarded to be the paramount strategies for human capital acquisition (Esu, 2012:283; Plummer & Taylor, 2004:427-439) with training identified as the human capital component that workers acquire after schooling and often associated with some set of skills useful for a particular industry (Acemoglu & Autor, 2012:461). In the tour guiding industry, training is argued to be one of the fundamental mechanisms that can assist guides in discharging their roles as well as enhancing their performance (Black & Weiler, 2005:30). This is because this industry, perhaps more than many others, is customer focused and relies heavily on personnel who can deliver a high standard of experiences and have excellent communication and interpersonal skills. Such skills are largely achieved through education and training (Whinney, 1996:222–

229). Training thus functions as a catalyst for inculcating the desirable competences among employees in general and tour guides, in particular, enabling them to increase their productivity by learning new skills and perfecting old ones while on the job.

Guide training varies depending on the level of training, the area of specialisation such as ecotourism or indigenous culture or historic site guiding and the reason for training, for example, training courses are available in tour guiding, heritage guiding and allied fields and at a range of levels from basic to advanced, but untrained guides can be and are employed (Black & Weiler, 2005:30). Also, tour guide training may be provided by professional associations or by the government and non-government training providers (Black & Weiler, 2005:30).

3.3 Importance of education and training

Education and training are essential for any organisation to ensure its success in a changing and the intensely competitive environment (Black *et al.*, 2001:151; Ezeani & Oladele, 2013, Irene, 2009). Its importance is particularly high in the tourism industry, where the quality of experiences continues to be the most important characteristic differentiating a company or a destination from its competitors (Black *et al.*, 2001:151; Whinney, 1996:222-229). From a personal level, training may improve an individual guide's employment prospects and career opportunities and enhance their levels of pay and conditions of work (Black *et al.*, 2001:151 Olusanya, Awotungase & Ohadebere 2012:48-57). At an industry-wide level, training helps to lift standards and improve the quality of the tourism product and thus the competitive advantage of tour companies, regions and destinations (Black *et al.*, 2001:151). This view is supported by (Quartey, 2012:77-88) who observed that the training and development of employees improves both their productivity, which leads the organisation towards gaining a competitive advantage. Bryon (2012:28) identifies increasing the "quality of the guided tour" as the primary reason for tour guide education and training. Nonetheless, the importance of education and training is diverse, wide-ranging and positively associated with quality of customer service, consistency in job performance, employee satisfaction and

commitment to the organisation (Swerdlow & Roehl, 1998:1-11). Training has therefore been linked with improved self-esteem, reduced turnover, better product and service consistency, higher guest satisfaction, reduced business cost and the use of technology (McNamara, 2010; Van Hoof, Collins, Combrink & Verbeeten, 1995:64-69) and greater ability to meet the needs of a target market (Quartey, 2012:77-88; Shaw & Patterson, 1995:34-39). Training may also be a prerequisite for licensing or certification (Whinney, 1996:222-229) which becomes an essential requirement for one to operate in the tourism industry as a tour guide.

Other advantages of education and training include having more qualified employees; increased awareness, improved attitude, more teamwork (Conrade, Woods & Ninemeier, 1994:16-21); greater job satisfaction and greater organisational commitment (Saks, 1996:429-451). This may result in more guides continuing to higher levels of qualifications, thereby improving the overall level of guide performance in the industry (Whinney, 1996:222-229). Thus, training has been recognised as a solution for improving performance (Awoniyi, Griego & Morgan, 2002:25-35).

Gordon (2006:137-138) concurs with the above view by pointing out that employee re-education programme will increase personal performance, better their lifetime careers and in turn give business a high return on invest (ROI). Gordon (2006:137-138) reports that Accenture Consulting Company estimated that for every dollar invested in training, there is a return of \$3.53 in net training benefits. They found that their better-trained employees had a higher number of client billable hours and stayed with the company longer. Consistent with the above, training is linked to the longevity of companies and greater tendency to business and economic growth (Bates, 1990:551-559). One can thus conclude that an educated and competent workforce is an important factor of economic growth given the preceding value attached to training, one can therefore fittingly argue that the workforce's lack of education and training is related to low competitiveness (Green, 1993:103-122) and is thus undesirable.

Despite its importance, there has been limited systematic analysis of guide training which has led to some false conclusions being made about the practice (Welgemoed, 1993:693–695). One can argue that when evaluating the importance of education and training it is crucial to approach the subject with caution. For example Ap and Wong (2001:551-563) found that ineffective tour guide training and monitoring resulted in the low professionalism of tour guides and hence training and follow-up should be religiously followed to check if the desirable results are being attained. Hence, training may aim at but does not guarantee achieving minimum standards and training may not be consistently delivered across educational and training institutions.

Also, as previously mentioned by Dahles (2002:795); the content of the training programme may be controlled by the government to ensure guides deliver a uniform, politically and ideologically correct commentary. Other scholars, for example, Christie and Mason (2003:1–16) have pointed out some shortcomings of training, in particular, the focus on information rather than skills and recommend a greater focus on self-reflection and values in training programmes. Additionally, training opportunities may not be accessible to students and guides living in remote locations and prerequisites may further restrict access to training (Weiler & Black, 2003:21-40). Further concerns have also been raised that guides who have undergone conventional tour guide training are not necessarily considered suitable for employment as guides in the industry (Black & Weiler, 2005:30). Also, it is important to realise that the traditional tour guide training curricula and delivery are not successful in developing the specific competences required for tour guides to co-create memorable tourism experiences, for example emotional intelligence (Dearborn, 2002:523-530). This is because the traditional education and training programmes adopt a "one size fits all" approach that ignores individual complexities while focusing on cognitive learning (Dearborn, 2002:523-530). Given the possible shortcomings of training if not administered very well it is, therefore, important to approach the subject with caution and that appropriate training solutions be applied for its desired outcomes to be attained. The next section, therefore, seeks to explore the specific education and training interventions required by tour guides to co-create memorable tourism experiences.

3.4 Education and training interventions required for tour guides to co-create memorable tourism experiences

As identified in Chapter two, the tourism industry is characterised by high-contact encounters and meaningful interaction with customers in some cross-cultural settings such that human interaction has emerged as an important dimension that influence tourist experiences (Bharwani & Jauhari, 2013:825; Dalton, 2011:128; Min, 2012:158). Tourist interaction should, therefore, be managed in such a manner so as “to co-create value with customers” (Chathoth *et al.*, 2013:13). To be successful in the experience economy, it is, therefore, paramount to train and develop professionals who understand the nuances of social behaviour and related skills (Furunes, 2005:231–248; Morgan, 2006:305–313).

A growing body of scholars have identified competences which have been synthesised in this study as personality traits, emotional intelligence and cultural intelligence (PEC) as the principal constituents of the human interactional competences needed by frontline employees to facilitate the development of memorable tourism experiences (Bharwani & Jauhari, 2013:825; Carvelzani *et al.*, 2003:1-24; Gupta & Vajic, 2000:35-51; Min, 2012:156; Walls *et al.*, 2011:166-197). These competences were noted to “play crucial roles in enabling frontline employees to elevate guest experience from an ordinary encounter to a memorable one” (Bharwani & Jauhari, 2013:825).

Tables 2.3, 2.4 and 2.5 in Chapter two elaborate on the specific personality traits, emotional and cultural intelligence competences that tour guides need to co-create memorable tourism experiences. These competences lay the bedrock upon which the education and training interventions for tour guides to co-create memorable tourism experiences shall be based. While literature theorises the critical competences required by tour guides to facilitate the development of memorable tourism experiences, the development of these competences through education and training seems arguable.

3.4.1 Personality traits development through education and training

The development of personality traits in individuals is one of the contested themes in the field of human capital development. According to the Five-Factor Theory, personality traits are “exclusively biological in origin as it is argued that “traits develop through childhood and reach mature form in adulthood; thereafter they are stable in cognitively intact individuals” (McCrae & Costa, 1999:145). More specifically, traits are said to reach maturity by age 30 (e.g., McCrae, Costa, Ostendorf, Angleitner, Hrebickova & Avia, 2000:173-186). A commonly used metaphor for this pattern of change, is that personality becomes “set like plaster” by age 30 (Costa & McCrae, 1994:21-40). In its original formulation, the plaster hypothesis stated that changes in Big Five traits after age 30 were non-existent or trivial (Costa & McCrae, 1994:21-40).

Nonetheless, later on, the authors of the five-factor theory indicated that the plaster hypothesis was “ripe for minor revision” (McCrae & Costa, 1999:145); as later studies proved that personality traits could change after the age of thirty (30) (McCrae *et al.*, 2000:173-186). Consistent with the revised standpoint, Srivastava, John, Gosling and Potter (2003:1041-1053) established a general lack of support for the plaster hypothesis, but rather, a battery of evidence that directly contradicted it. They noted that the levels of personality traits changed gradually but systematically throughout the life span, sometimes more after the age of thirty (30) than before. Additionally, longitudinal behaviour genetic studies also suggested that change in personality traits is at least as well explained by environments as by genes (Viken, Rose, Kaprio & Koskenvuo, 1994:722-730).

It is therefore notable from the foregoing that, though personality change is heritable, it is but only in partial effect, with over half the variance in personality trait change attributable to the environment (Hudson, 2011:1). Thus, the argument that personality trait change is driven entirely by genetics is untenable (Hudson, 2011:1) as multiple studies have also confirmed that personality traits are not set in stone but are prone to change throughout an individual’s lifespan (Roberts, Wood & Caspi, 2008:375-398).

This means that personality traits are not permanently entrenched at birth but can be changed through education and training with the environmental factors accounting for the largest responsibility for the personality changes (Hanushek, Welch, Machin & Woessmann, 2011:150). Concurring with the above, Jackson (2011:2) points out that the most salient environment is the educational environment, which is likely to contribute to these changes in personality.

To validate the above argument, some studies have analysed the impact of different interventions before or during school on personality traits. Studies based on the randomised Perry Preschool and STAR projects found that smaller classes positively impact personality traits (Dee & West, 2011:23-46). Similarly, from a workplace environment, Bolli and Hof (2014:6) in their study on the impact of apprenticeship training on personality traits, observed that workplace training also led to changes in apprentices' personality traits. For example, they noted that apprentices must report for work on time (punctuality); that they must also cooperate with others (team work, OECD, 2013); including not only students of the same age but adults and professionals who are older and more experienced. Additionally, perseverance and reliability are some of the personality traits that apprentices would also develop in order to be successful in their workplace environment.

Coming to the tour guiding sector, Pond (1993:93) believes that most of the tour guide personality qualities needed like, enthusiasm, commitment, empathy and sensitivity for people, flexibility, pride in serving others and the ability to interpret can be developed through training. Knudson, Cable and Beck (1995:55) support this view by pointing out that that effective interpretation is a result of experience gained over time, along with careful study and continued training.

3.4.2 *Development of emotional intelligence through education and training*

One of the most controversial aspects of emotional intelligence is whether or not it can be developed through education and training (Emmerling & Goleman, 2003:20; Stys & Brown, 2004:53). Several arguments exist supporting the notion that, logically,

emotional intelligence cannot be taught and learnt. These arguments stem from the trait theory as well as the neurological evidence (Stys & Brown, 2004:54). Research has established that emotional traits are strongly influenced by genes (Riemann, Angleitner & Strelau, 1997:449-475) and are extraordinarily persistent from childhood into adulthood, remaining static over time (Costa & McCrae, 1997:269-290; Stys & Brown, 2004:54). Although traits are pervasive and enduring, they do follow a developmental trajectory: between late adolescence and thirty years of age (Stys & Brown, 2004:54).

It is argued that these traits are strongly preserved throughout the entire adult lifespan, although there is a much more gradual shift in this same trend as one ages (McCrae, Costa Jr., de Lima, Simoes, Ostendorf, Angleitner, Marui, Bratko, Caprara, Barbaranelli, Chae & Piedmont, 1999:466-477). Thus, a trait theorist would argue that although it may be possible to give people training in emotional intelligence and change some of their specific attitudes, behaviours, or a policy, creating profound and pervasive changes in personality is difficult. Scholars have also pointed out some neurological arguments regarding the ability to advance one's emotional intelligence. Stys and Brown (2004:54) argue that if emotional intelligence is distinct from cognitive intelligence and not comprised of neocortical connections (which can be developed through learning) then one cannot learn or develop emotional intelligence skills. This neurological observation for emotional intelligence to some degree hence confirms the idea that emotional intelligence is genetically determined and static in nature, rather than dynamic.

Nevertheless, while it is believed that genetics is likely to play an important role in the development of emotional intelligence, it is ironic to note that geneticists themselves challenge as naïve the assumption that nurture does not impact nature (Emmerling & Goleman, 2003:20) as gene expression itself appears to be shaped by the social and emotional experiences of the individual (Meany, 2001:1161-1192). Subsequently, though the development of emotional intelligence is believed to be a natural process as suggested by the preceding arguments, there is nevertheless a growing body of literature confirming that emotional intelligence can be taught and learnt, with training

being discovered to enhance professionals' emotional intelligence as well as the overall professional performance (Chan, 2006:1042–1054; Clarke, 2010:461–468; Hen & Sharabi-Nov, 2014:375–390). This view is also held by several scholars such as Ballou, Bowers, Boyatzis and Kolb (1999:338-354); Cherniss and Goleman (1998:3-27); Thornton and Cleveland (1990:190-199) who noted that the tour guide competences such as emotional intelligence can be learned through education and training. Goleman, Boyatzis and McKee (2002:38) concur with the preceding statement "These emotional intelligence competences are usually not innate talents, but learned abilities, each of which has a unique contribution to making leaders more resonant and, therefore, more effective".

Increasingly, there have been calls for a more rigorous programme of research to examine the potential for developing employees' emotional intelligence (Law, Wong & Song, 2004:483-496). Calls for training in emotional intelligence have subsequently become commonplace in many professions and organisational settings particularly in the human service sectors (Carrothers, Gregory & Gallagher, 2000:456-463) which tour guiding is part of.

Emmerling and Goleman (2003:22) have attempted to clarify the reality to develop emotional intelligence skills. They highlight research findings that support the contention that emotional intelligence can be taught and developed, basing on findings from a longitudinal evaluation of the Weatherhead MBA programme in which emotional intelligence was discovered to be improved by 50% seven years after programme completion (Boyatzis, Cowen & Kolb, 1995:228-247). Emmerling and Goleman (2003:6) also point out a neurological research supporting the contention that the brain centres for emotion (the amygdala and pre-frontal cortex among others) may indeed be plastic and capable of change (Davidson, Jackson & Kalin, 2000:890-909).

A study reporting the effects of an emotional intelligence training programme by Sala (2001:1-6), on behalf of the Haygroup has also suggested that education and training can have positive effects on emotional intelligence, using the emotional competences

identified by Goleman (1998b:133-198). The study notes two groups of participants (20 Brazilian managers and consultants and 19 participants from a large United States accounting organisation), who attended two 5-day workshops where pre- and post-test measures were taken using the emotional intelligence Inventory (ECI), a multi-rater instrument that provides self, manager, direct report and peer ratings on a series of behavioural indicators. The time between pre- and post-test was eight months and 14 months for the first and second groups respectively. According to Sala (2001:1-6), this pre- and post-test evaluation design (although no control group was included) using paired *t*-tests demonstrated improvements in 8 of the 20 variables comprising the ECI for the first group and 19 of the 20 variables for the second group. Sala (2001:1-6) concludes that education and training interventions are effective at improving emotional intelligence.

More other scholars contend that emotional intelligence can be increased through training (Crombie & Noakes, 2011, 69-86; Groves, McEnrue & Shen, 2008:225-250; Kotsou, Nelis, Grégoire & Mikolajczak, 2011:827-839). Schutte, Malouff and Thorsteinsson (2013:56-72) provide a review of research in a number of fields, including organisations, education, mental health and sports which seem to indicate that through training, not only can emotional intelligence increase, but there is an increase in positive outcomes in work, school, life satisfaction, mental and physical health and personal relationships. Also, Boyatzis and Saatcioglu (2008:92-108) suggest that emotional competences can be developed through graduate education provided a holistic approach to developing knowledge, competences and values is used. The preceding findings from the literature, therefore, confirm observations that education and training can be positively applied to enhance the emotional intelligence of employees. Having analysed the amenability of emotional intelligence to education and training, the scholar now seeks to examine whether cultural intelligence can also be taught and learnt.

3.4.3 *Development of cultural intelligence through education and training*

Though cultural intelligence is regarded to be unique in its own right (Brislin, Worthley & MacNab, 2006:40-55; Earley & Ang, 2003:261; Thomas, 2006:78-99) its associated competences can as well be taught and developed (Earley & Ang, 2003:262; Brislin *et al.*, 2006:40-55). Benton and Lynch (2009:6) concur with the above observations by pointing out that cultural intelligence is not an innate sensibility, but rather a set of psycho-social and mental strategies and not instincts which can thus be taught and learned. The above argument is corroborated by Ang, Van Dyne, Koh and Ng (2004:16); who explain cultural intelligence as a malleable state that may change based on cultural exposure, training, modelling, mentoring, socialisation and other experiences. The Bethel College – GE-Seniors report (2014:8) also buttress the transferability of cultural intelligence through education and training by pointing out that “cultural intelligence is a set of capabilities that can be enhanced by experience, education and training”.

Having analysed the suitability of education and training on inculcating personality traits, emotional intelligence and cultural intelligence, it is now only logical for the next section to look at the particular education and training approaches that can be applied for one to develop these competences.

3.5 Education and training approaches for the personality traits, emotional intelligence and cultural intelligence

This section specifically examines the various approaches through which personality traits, the emotional intelligence and cultural intelligence competences may be developed in trainees who in the study context are tour guides.

3.5.1 *Education and training approaches for developing personality traits*

Though the positive effect of training on personality has already been confirmed by literature, it is important for one to appreciate that not everyone undergoes changes in

personality traits during the same period (Jackson, 2011:10). For example Jackson (2011:10) notes that late adolescence and early adulthood is the time when personality traits tend to change the most. It is further argued that it is during this period that individuals tend to increase in the personality traits of social dominance (a facet of extraversion); conscientiousness, agreeableness, emotional stability and openness during that adolescence period (Donnellan, Trzesniewski, Conger & Conger, 2007:453-472; Roberts *et al.*, 2008:375-398;).

Implications from these observations are therefore that it would also be ideal if most of the personality trait training is inculcated during the late adolescent to young adult period. The justification is that this will be the critical and sensitive periods when personality traits will still be very fluid compared to adulthood (Roberts & Mroczek, 2008:31-35; Roberts *et al.*, 2008:375-398). Therefore, it is important to understand how personality traits can change, in particular and to assess the extent to which education influences the development of personality traits.

Accordingly, the learning environment, for example, the teacher's characteristics, seems to be crucial for the development of personality traits as well. Earlier findings by Cherem (1977:3-16) stress the importance of skill of delivery over actual knowledge when he claims that all guides are interpreters first and subject specialists second. Cherniss and Goleman (1998:7) proposed a model that can be applied during training to influence the development of desirable personality competences in employees such as team work, leadership, conflict and stress management, as well as the enhancement of customer and buyer relations. The model is comprised of four key phases namely preparation, training, maintenance and evaluation, with each of them being further sub-divided (Cherniss & Goleman, 1998:7).

Preparing for Changes. This initial period in the competence-developing process consists of preparations for changes. The preparations are done on both levels, namely the personal and organisational levels. The argument here is that the motivation of participants will hold the key to the success of the education and training efforts. It is

acknowledged at this stage that adult people generally have deep rooted behavioural patterns, thus without motivating them, altering these patterns will be a rather difficult task.

Training. The second phase, according to Cherniss and Goleman (1998:7), involves all the activities which allow for the introduction of changes. It is pointed out that the trainers must be aware of obstacles at all times and actively contribute to the reduction of their negative impacts on motivation of the trainees. Some of the obstacles include potential fear of change by the trainees.

Maintenance and Transfer. At this stage, Cherniss and Goleman (1998:7) argue that maintenance and transfer relates to the post training period and is meant to ensure that the acquired and trained competences will be transferred into all desired spheres of activities. This stage is important considering that when the training participant goes back to his/her old working environment, he/she will most likely encounter numerous factors that will encourage or discourage the application of those former behavioural patterns which were meant to be replaced during the training process.

Evaluation. Evaluation is the final phase of the training process and it must at all times be an inherent part of the training process, since it is only in this way that the effectiveness of performed activities can be measured (Cherniss & Goleman, 1998:7).

Figure 3.1 illustrates the process for the development of competences in organisations as propounded by Cherniss and Goleman (1998:7) and as has already been discussed.

Preparing for changes

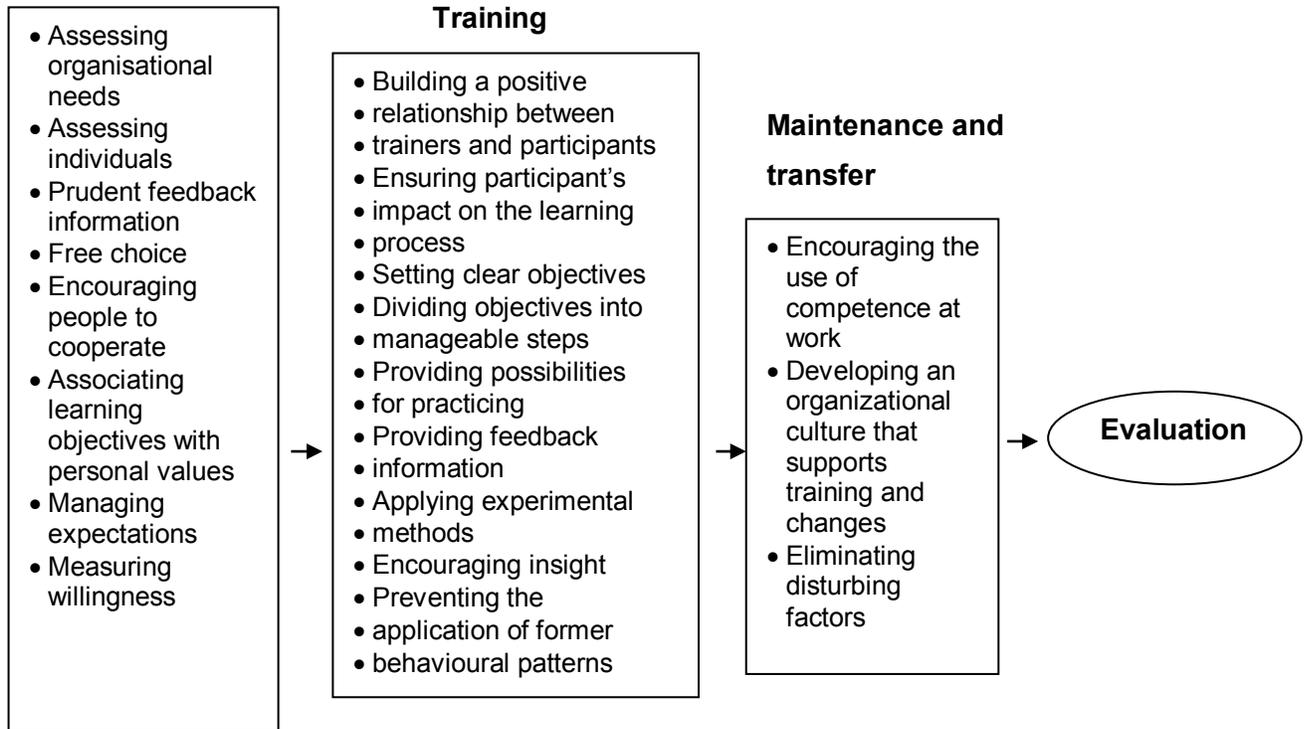


Figure 3.1: Optimum process for the development of competences in organisations

Source: Adapted from Cherniss and Goleman (1998:7)

Apart from the traditional education and training models like the Cherniss and Goleman (1998:7) propounded above, multiple informal learning approaches have also arisen, for example, Knowles (1975:14) claimed that self-directed learning can be a better way to cope with the new direction of education and meet the needs of future society. It is argued that an individual need to have the abilities required for self-education in order to achieve an object of lifelong learning (Cropley, 1980:189). Brockett and Hiemstra (1991:122) mentioned that students who have higher self-direction can benefit from their learning process and recommended to regard self-directed learning as alternative training method. Thus, teaching approaches might be blended with the both factors in order to reach a best learning effect (Merriam & Caffarella, 1991:79-189).

3.5.2 Emotional intelligence education and training approaches

There is a plethora of suggestions regarding education and training in emotional intelligence for example, by scholars such as Bar-on *et al.* (2007:1-14); Goleman (1995:305); Lynn (2006:48); Singh (2006:60); Sparrow and Knight (2006:10) and Stein and Book (2006:35-53) to name but a few. Du Preez (2012:44) observes that most of these scholars' suggestions are all fundamentally the same with slight variations in focus and process.

3.5.2.1 The self-coaching approach

Stein and Book (2006:35-53) propose a self-coaching approach to emotional intelligence education and training applying what they term the A,B,C,D,E principle which is illustrated in Figure 3.2. The self-coaching approach to emotional intelligence development by Stein and Book (2006:35-53) suggests that a person should record the A, B, C, D and E of his /her emotional experiences whereas A = the activating event, B = the individuals beliefs about a particular event or situation, C = the consequence of the reaction caused by B, D = to actively debate, dispute and discard untruths about B, E = noting the effects of D, this being a form of reinforcement. According to Du Preez (2012:45) this approach seems logical and necessary however, its success would be subject to the resistance to change.

Figure 3.2 depict the processes involved in the self-coaching approach to personal EI development as propounded by Du Preez (2012:44).

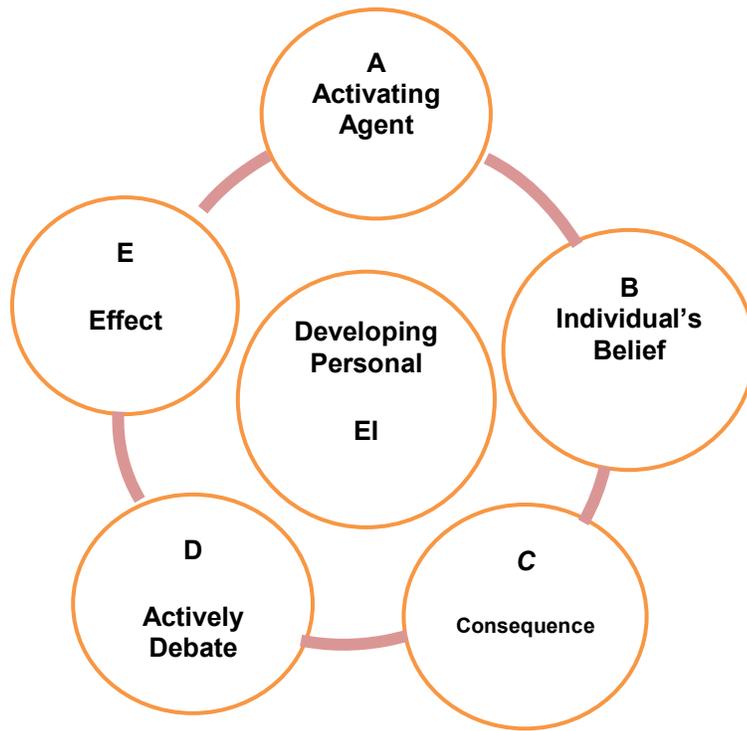


Figure 3.2 Self-coaching approach to personal EI development

Source: Adapted from Du Preez (2012:44)

Figure 3.3 reflects a resistance model that can be associated with the following formula $(V,D,S > R)$ (Stein & Book, 2006:35-53).

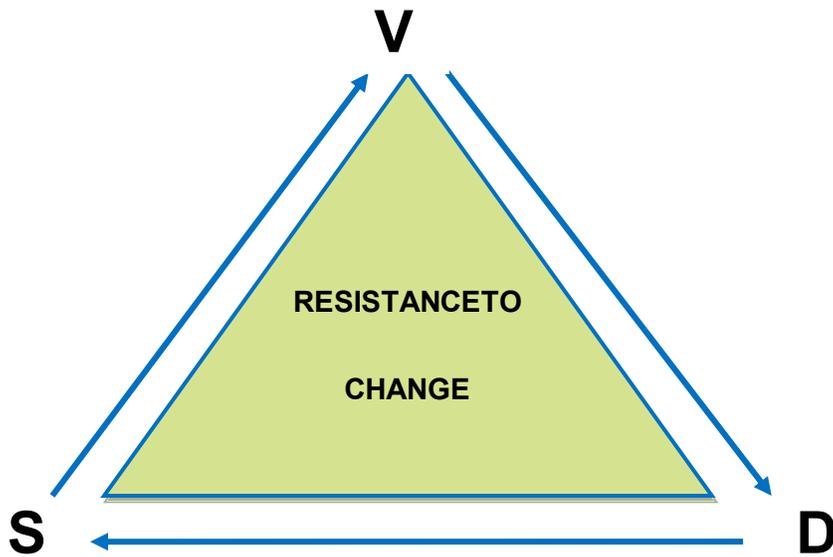


Figure 3.3: Resistance to emotional change

Source: Adapted from Du Preez (2012:45)

According to Stein and Book (2006:35-53) the symbols on the diagram denote the following:

The V = vision of the future, D= dissatisfaction and S = first steps.

The model postulates that for emotional change to take place it would be necessary for the trainee to have a clear vision of what he/she would like to be. This would be closely linked to the emotional intelligence realm of self-awareness which is regarded as the first step in the change process. A vision alone would arguably not suffice to motivate the effort required in order to effect meaningful and sustainable change, Stein and Book (2006:35-53) here point out that an individual would also have to become dissatisfied (D= dissatisfaction) with his/her present emotional situation or reactions. Finally (S = first steps) an individual must take the first steps towards change and education and training is expected to play a crucial role should assist in this process. Du Preez (2012:46) notes that this stage could best be associated with the emotional intelligence domain of self-management as it is an assertive step in taking control over one's emotions.

3.5.2.2 *The seven step approach*

While Stein and Book (2006:35-53) proposed the three step self-coaching approach to emotional intelligence development Lynn (2006:48) suggests a seven-step one. Du Preez (2012:46) observes that this seven-step approach encompasses most of the emotional intelligence development suggestions offered by Bar-on *et al.* (2007:1-14); Goleman (1995:305); Lynn (2006:48); Singh (2006:60); Sparrow and Knight (2006:10) and Stein and Book (2006:35-53).

This seven step approach is reflected in Figure 3.4.

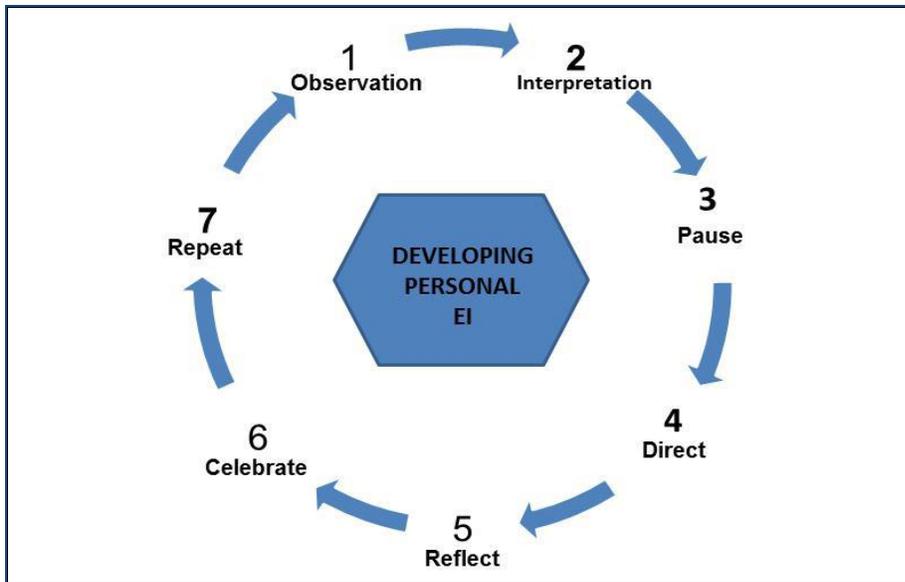


Figure 3.4: The seven step approach to developing EI

Source: Adapted from Du Preez (2012:46)

As noted from Figure 3.4, the model comprises of seven stages that are discussed further on in the paper.

Step 1: Observation

Lynn (2006:48) notes that the power of observation is the first essential skill that the trainee needs to gain knowledge and insight of emotional behaviour so as to build an observation database that may prove to be useful during the reflection stage. Goleman (1998b:1-326) resonates well with the above view by pointing out that individuals can improve their levels of emotional intelligence by personally recognising areas of strength and weakness and then going through a process of emotional learning. The devotion of time and effort to understand and improve on areas of weakness is rapidly becoming a priority for personal growth (Goleman, 1998b:1-236).

Hence this step is regarded to be related to the self-awareness domain which shows that an observation of one's strengths and weaknesses before the start training is an important step.

Step 2: Interpretation

According to Lynn (2006:48); this step deals with the interpretation of the database to take necessary steps to rectify weaknesses and to strengthen one's overall emotional intelligence. This step will be necessary as the participants must understand and be aware of their competences before they can learn to improve them (Carrick, 2010:24). Mayer and Salovey (1997) also argue that the ability to understand emotions is a powerful tool in changing behaviour. Hence this interpretation step will be necessary as sustainable changes are those that are intentional and self-directed (Boyatzis *et al.*, 2000:343-362).

Step 3: Pause

This step is regarded by Lynn (2006:48); as a cooling-down period that allows one to put on the brakes, shift gears and eventually, regroup. This step associates with the emotional intelligence domains of self-awareness and emotional self-management. Neale, Spencer-Arnell and Wilson (2009:27) argue that "our personalities are relatively fixed, whereas all aspects of EI can be changed. EI is about how we choose to manage the personalities we have". They go on further to illustrate that both an extrovert and an introvert may have low levels of personal power, regularly putting themselves into the victim role and blaming others. They however recommend that it would be beneficial for both of these personality types to develop their personal power implying that the focus here is on changing attitudes and behaviours, not on changing one's personality.

Step 4: Direct

Here Lynn (2006:48) points out that this step fundamentally concerns itself with directing one's emotional impact to gain the desired results. It also applies the ABCD model as discussed earlier on. Directing emotions is at this moment regarded to be best associated with the emotional intelligence domain of self-management as it addresses how one chooses to react to emotions.

Step 5: Reflect

This step denotes the rain and the sunshine and the fertiliser that can turn life experience into wisdom. Without reflection, our promising seeds of wisdom will die. This step can also be seen to associate with the emotional intelligence domain of self-awareness as it allows for the opportunity to reflect on how one reacts to emotional situations with the view of improving emotional response.

Step 6: Celebrate

Some of the life's other achievements truly represent milestones that have taken considerable effort hence the need for celebration.

Step 7: Repeat

Affirm the direction and then let go and follow the path. Life is a great teacher. It will provide the lessons if one is open to the learning.

As already been pointed out earlier on, Du Preez (2012:44) observes that Bar-on *et al.* (2007:1-14); Goleman (1995:305); Lynn (2006:48); Singh (2006:61); Sparrow and Knight (2006:10) and Stein and Book (2006:35-53) among others, all offer similar training solutions for improving an individual's emotional intelligence. Thus, a synthesis of these two models could be essential to enhance the success of emotional intelligence training development.

3.5.2.3 *Integrated EI development approach*

Du Preez (2012:50) provides a synthesis of the two primary approaches to emotional intelligence education and training discussed in section 3.5.2.3 above and suggests that they can be integrated into one composite model comprising of three main components namely adaptation, observation and interpretation. This synthesis is reflected in Figure 3.5.

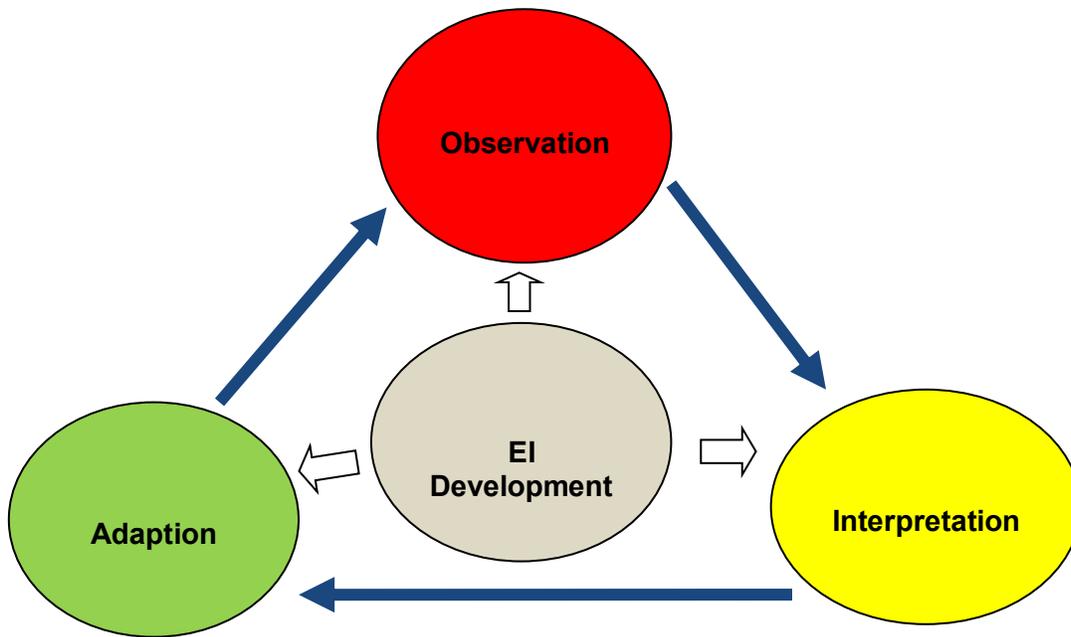


Figure 3.5: Integrated emotional intelligence development approach

Source: Du Preez (2012:49)

The integrated approach reflected in Figure 3.5 above identifies three primary components or phases of emotional intelligence development which are as discussed below:

3.5.2.3.1 Observation

The model proposes the observation phase that describes the process by which an individual would become aware of his/her emotional triggers and related response. It is suggested that this phase in the emotional intelligence development process associates strongly with the emotional intelligence self-awareness domain and to a lesser degree, the social awareness domain (Du Preez, 2012:49).

Du Preez (2012:49) further notes that observation should be the first step in any emotional intelligence development programme as adults need to be emotionally self-aware before they can learn to accept and commit to improvement of their emotional intelligence status. Goleman (1989b:1-326) argues that people with a strong self-awareness have the ability to realise their strengths and weaknesses. As such, adults

must realise the consequences of their emotional behaviour for both themselves and others for example, if an individual behaves badly e.g. in traffic, he/she is increasing personal risk and in all probability causing stress to other road users. Nelson and Low (2003:81) concur with the preceding views by pointing out that self-assessment methods can be utilised in the initial stages of EI training in order to provide trainees with a greater awareness of how they think, feel and behave. Du Preez (2012:50) hence argues that most of the time and effort afforded to any EI education and training programme should be committed to observation (by the trainees) as this forms the foundation for all future emotional intelligence development initiatives. In addition, another essential goal of the observation phase should also be to generate a sense of discontent amongst the adult learners for dysfunctional emotional behaviours and in so doing, create the desire to change.

3.5.2.3.2 Interpretation

Once adults have achieved a fundamental working level of emotional intelligence self-awareness Du Preez (2012:50) argues that they will continually need to interpret emotional messages and triggers which will naturally transpire from normal relations and expectations. The trainee will need to update his/her database of situations and events that trigger emotional responses and what typical behaviour responses transpire from such emotions. This phase is suggested to be more closely associated with the emotional intelligence domain of self-management as it is primarily a maintenance and reinforcement activity that follows self-awareness and would encompass steps 2, 3, 5 and 7 of the training interventions proposed by Lynn (2006:48).

3.5.2.3.3 Adaption

Du Preez (2012:50) proposes the adaptation phases which he describes as the change process of the emotional intelligence development programme. It is noted that success in the adaptation phase would probably be reliant on effectiveness of the observation phase. Thus, if the trainee is not sufficiently discontented with his/her current emotional reactions to situations given the emotional intelligence theories already discussed, then

it would be highly improbable that any meaningful change would take place. The adaptability phase could best be associated with the emotional intelligence domains of self-management and social awareness. In addition to the three dimension synthesis model discussed above, it is also recommended that the adult learning theories of sensory stimulation, cognitive, reinforcement, facilitation and andragogy be integrated into any emotional intelligence development approach.

In the conclusion of the discussions made in this section, it would be difficult to claim that anyone emotional intelligence domain is more important than the other hence developing an individual's emotional intelligence should embrace a process of mastering one's interpersonal and intrapersonal management skills. Logic would suggest that mastering intrapersonal management could be the first step in addressing the tour guide emotional intelligence phenomenon.

3.5.3 Cultural intelligence education and training approaches

Cultural Intelligence education is the process of developing the competences and capacities, including cognitive/metacognitive, motivation and behaviour, required for effective cultural interaction (MacNab, 2012:68). Education and training in cultural intelligence should not be viewed as a one-off event, but rather as an ongoing commitment and a process-oriented approach consisting of several levels ranging from basic to advanced (Earley & Mosakowski, 2004:139-146; Thomas, 2006:78-99).

3.5.3.1 The three-part model

Earley and Ang (2003:261) developed a three-part model with cognitive/ metacognitive, motivation and behaviour components. In this model Earley and Ang (2003:261) adopt the position that all three elements that combine to define culturally intelligent individuals are amenable to training and development.

In their model, Earley and Ang (2003:262) identify the cognitive component and refer to it as the "head". This component resembles awareness, self-awareness and knowledge.

Thomas (2006:78-99) acknowledges this component and goes on to suggest that it should be the first tentative step in training, an observation that is also supported by MacNab (2012:69). It is further noted that the cognitive component also includes a metacognitive aspect that relates to thinking about thinking (Earley & Peterson, 2004:100-115) or cognitive control (Ang *et al.*, 2007:335-371). MacNab (2012:69) defines metacognition as related to an individual's process of gaining and using cultural knowledge. MacNab (2012:69) further elucidates on metacognition by pointing out that it includes aspects such as questioning cultural assumptions when operating in new cultural environments or questioning one's stereotypes; it involves applied self-awareness.

Earley and Ang (2003:273) identify "motivation" component as the "heart" of their model and point out that it denotes perseverance and appropriate goal setting related to cultural interaction. MacNab (2012:69) further explains this component by arguing that it is usually signified by one who is not giving up too soon about increased challenges and stress associated with the intercultural activity. Although it is sometimes stressful to interact with people from one's culture group, it is often significantly more stressful and challenging to interact with people from different cultural groups, often requiring heightened levels of motivation and perseverance (MacNab, 2012:69). The motivation aspect of cultural intelligence is thus often considered a bridging stage between cognitive/metacognitive and behaviour.

The third component of Earley and Ang (2003:274)'s model is entitled "behaviour". The behaviour component refers to "action" which signifies the ability to adjust or adapt behaviours suitable to the cultural environment. This component is also considered to include an aptitude to determine where new behaviours are needed and how to execute these new behaviours effectively. Behaviour is viewed by (Earley & Ang, 2003:274) as requiring effective cognitive/metacognitive insight and motivation engagement. Adjusting one's specific manner of communicating to more efficiently interact with host nationals is provided as one of the examples.

In addition to the above typology, literature also supports an experiential as well as social process approach to cultural intelligence education that will have a positive influence on all areas of cultural intelligence development (Thomas, 2006:78-99); including metacognitive, motivation and behaviour components.

3.5.3.2 *Experiential learning approach*

Kolb (1984:4) proposes experiential learning as another method that can be applied when developing cultural intelligence. According to Kolb (1984:4) experiential learning is regarded as a process that establishes the effectiveness of direct experience and reflection on building knowledge compared with information-only approaches.

The theory of experiential learning according to MacNab (2012:70) requires that the following be addressed and fulfilled:

- a) Learner is engaged in a relevant experience.
- b) Learner reflects on this experience.
- c) Learner uses analytical skills to frame the experience.
- d) Learner applies lessons from the experience to other contexts and future actions.

Although experiential learning provides an excellent popular platform, it can be extended and improved on (MacNab, 2012:70). MacNab (2012:70) further argues that experiential education provides a useful perspective for extending this platform as it infuses a teacher engaged feedback aspect to the student–participant's experience (Kraft & Sakofs, 1988:136-290). MacNab (2012:70) argues that experiential education allows for moderation and feedback with:

- i. Purposeful engagement in a direct experience,
- ii. Educators engaged with learners,
- iii. Focused reflection and,
- iv. A design to increase knowledge, skills and clarify values.

MacNab (2012:70) further notes that in experiential education, the probability of misapplying theory or misinterpreting an event is reduced because the teacher provides feedback. This feedback then helps ensure continuity, direction and interaction. Education scholars have identified the value of linking content with the process (Hazen, Cavanagh & Bossman, 2004:373-386); and this link is observed to be important in cross-cultural training (Cushner & Brislin, 1996:29).

3.5.3.3 *The social learning theory and processes*

The social learning theory and processes (e.g. Baker, Jensen & Kolb, 2009:411-427; Bandura, 1977b:11-12; Cushner & Brislin, 1996:26) have also been discovered to add to an experiential education platform, providing social and communication dimensions of richness (MacNab, 2012:70). It is argued that this process not only add richness but also further reinforces continuity and interaction. For example, by engaging in the post-experience group discussion trainees can communicate to understand further important concepts and be introduced to good role model behaviour in potentially challenging cross-cultural situations (MacNab, 2012:70).

3.5.3.4 *The seven stage experiential approach*

In addition to the methods mentioned above MacNab (2012:72) proposes the seven stage experiential approach to cultural intelligence education and training framework that is explained below:

Stage 1: Awareness development

Participants are at this stage provided with basic “awareness-level” knowledge related to key concepts associated with the intended training for example, culture and cultural intelligence. This type of basic, awareness-level training has been suggested as a key first step in cross-cultural types of training (Cushner & Brislin, 1996:23) and is more specifically considered the first step in recommended processes of teaching cultural intelligence (Thomas, 2006:78-99).

Stage 2: Experiential instructions provided

During this stage, participants are provided instructions in seeking a cultural experience that will allow for experimentation in applying key aspects of cultural intelligence. For example, the cultural group must be relatively new and the target activity should provide personal contact.

Stage 3: Pre-experience check

MacNab (2012:72) proposes that a “pre-experience check” is provided at this stage to help ensure participants are reasonably within the training parameters for selecting their target experience and group.

Stage 4: New cultural experience

Participants engage in the intended experience during a particular time frame and about general training instructions. Educators maintain open lines of communication to address any questions or concerns trainees might have during this time.

Stage 5: Post-experience and Internalisation

A “post-experience” write-up is then assigned, encouraging participants to describe the experience and reflect on the interaction as specifically related to cultural intelligence, the components of cultural intelligence and cultural intelligence development. Understanding errors in training experiences can have longer term benefits and students are encouraged to provide an honest account of their success and errors in applying cultural intelligence.

Stage 6: Feedback and communication

Trainees are then provided written feedback that tends to be structured on concept clarification/correction, application recommendations and experience validation.

Stage 7: Group discussion and social sharing

Finally, participants are placed into small groups of three to five and encouraged to discuss their experience with others. Once small group discussion has occurred a larger forum for discussion is opened and each group is asked to report on any interesting outcomes of their small group discussion.

This section has managed to look at the different education and training approaches that can be applied to develop both the Emotional and cultural intelligence competences among trainees. The next subsection provides the conclusion of the chapter and the revised proposed conceptual model or framework.

3.6 Conclusion

To conclude on this chapter, it has been noted that all the theorised TGII competences namely the Personality traits, Emotional Intelligence and Cultural Intelligence (PEC) competences are trainable. Several training approaches have been linked with the development of these competences. These training approaches include instruction, counselling, positive thinking exercises, coaching sessions or practising of new behaviours (Min, 2012:155-167) the self-directed learning (Brockett & Hiemstra, 1991:122); self-coaching approaches (Bar-on *et al.*, 2007:1-14; Goleman, 1995:305; Lynn, 2006:48; Singh, 2006:60; Sparrow & Knight, 2006:10; Stein & Book, 2006:35-53), experiential learning approaches (Kolb, 1984:4; MacNab, 2012:70) and social learning approaches (e.g. Baker *et al.*, 2009:411-427; Cushner & Brislin, 1996:26; MacNab, 2012:70). Once the training has been done, literature has proposed that it should be followed by the maintenance and transfer process to ensure that the acquired and trained competences will be transferred by the participants into all desired spheres of activities (Cherniss & Goleman, 1998:7). Evaluation is considered to be the final phase of the training process since it is only in this way that the effectiveness of training can be measured (Cherniss & Goleman, 1998:7).

In view of the hypothesised Tour Guide Interactional Intelligence to co-create memorable tourism experiences thus noted (in Chapter 2), the role of education and training interventions in its development and the positive outcome factors of a

memorable experience such as customer loyalty and spreading positive word-of-mouth (in Chapter 1), a revised conceptual framework is thereby proposed in Figure 3.6.

Figure 3.6 denotes the proposed conceptual framework for the tour guide competences required to co-create a memorable tourism experience. The figure shows that the identified competences to co-create Memorable Tourism Experience are the Personality Traits, Emotional Intelligence and Cultural Intelligence (PEC) which when brought together under one domain are known as the Tour Guide Interactional Intelligence (TGII). The framework further shows that education and training is an essential process for the development of these competences in tour guides and that the interaction between a tour guide and a tourist prefixes the co-creation of a memorable tourism experience. The framework also points out the positive outcomes of a memorable tourism experience namely customer loyalty, word of mouth recommendations and revenue generation. Revenue generated can in turn be invested into the education and training of the guides to further equip them with the right competences to continuously co-create the memorable tourism experiences. Thus the whole framework becomes cyclical in nature.

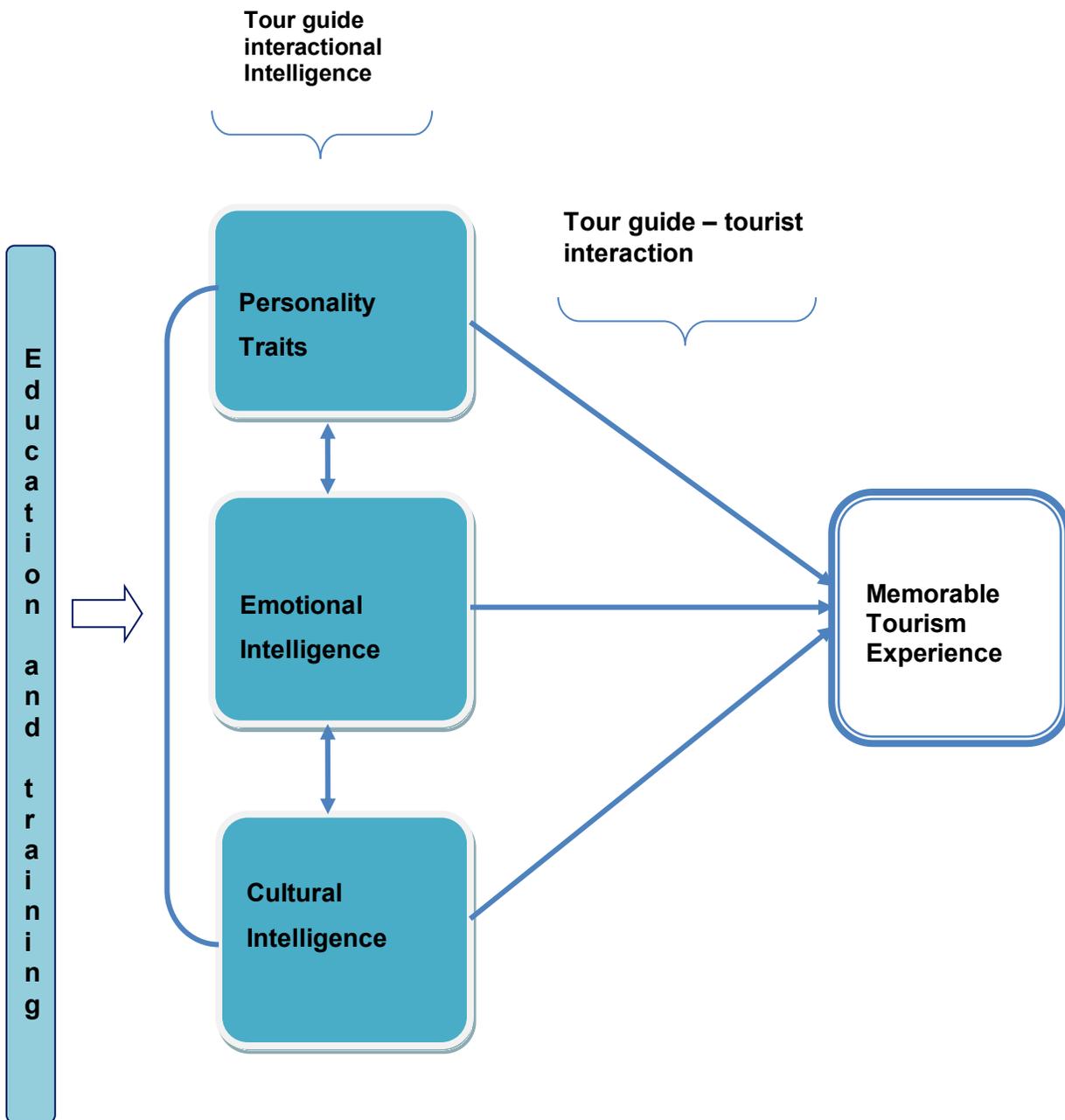


Figure 3.6: A revised proposed conceptual model of competences required by tour guides to co-create memorable tourism experiences.

Source: Authors' framework based on existing literature

While the author has proposed a framework of competences required to co-create memorable tourism experiences, the study does not suggest that only these identified individual aspects would influence the nature of the tourist experience. The study acknowledges that there are mediating factors that impact on tourist experiences. These include the physical surroundings (Wakefield & Blodgett, 1996:45-46); the social surroundings i.e. the personnel (Arnould & Price, 1993:24-45); other customers (Silkpit & Fisk, as cited by Walls *et al.*, 2011:179); ambience, signs, symbols and artefacts (Bitner, 1992:96-110). Additional mediating factors are noted to include policies, organisational culture, well chosen, trained and motivated staff. Since the study treated the intervening variables as a constant and not empirically measured the contribution thereof, the researcher therefore decided not to reflect them diagrammatically in the revised model or framework that has been proposed (see Figure 3.6).

The next chapter, Chapter four, serves as the third literature review section whose purpose is to explore and analyse Zimbabwe's tour guide educational and training systems by means of a literature review. The preceding sections have so far focused on tour guide education and training issues from a global perspective with very little references to Zimbabwe due to the scarcity of information. Nonetheless, despite this dearth of information, the next sections analyse tour guide education and training in Zimbabwe by firstly looking at the existing tour guide training institutions.

CHAPTER 4: A LITERATURE ANALYSIS OF ZIMBABWE'S TOUR GUIDE EDUCATION AND TRAINING SYSTEMS

4.1 Introduction

This chapter focuses on a literature analysis of Zimbabwe's tour guide education and training systems. It is important for one to note from the onset that the area of study is characterised by an acute shortage of scholarly attention with only a very basic body through empirical research (Nyahunzvi & Njerekai, 2013:3). To counteract this challenge, the researcher adopted the "funnel approach" in which the analyses would start from a global dimension and then narrow down onto the Zimbabwean context to enable a better understanding of the issues at stake.

In view of the dearth of literature on Zimbabwe's tour guide education and training systems (Nyahunzvi & Njerekai, 2013:3), this chapter, however, discusses, among others, the following topics: education and training as a form of human capital development; the importance of education and training; education and training interventions required for tour guides to co-create memorable tourism experiences; can the personality traits; emotional intelligence; and cultural intelligence competences be trained? The other topics covered include education and training approaches for the emotional intelligence and cultural intelligence competences, tour guide training institutions in Zimbabwe, Zimbabwe's tour guide training curriculum as well as the challenges of tour guide training in Zimbabwe.

In Zimbabwe, tour guide training is provided by government departments in collaboration with professional associations and academic institutions (Nyahunzvi & Njerekai, 2013:4). These key tour guide training institutions include the Zimbabwe Tourism Authority (ZTA) which trains in partnership with one local university (University of Zimbabwe); the Zimbabwe Parks and Wildlife Management Authority (ZPWMA) in collaboration with the Zimbabwe Professional Hunters and Guides Association (ZPGHA) (Nyahunzvi & Njerekai, 2013:4).

4.2 Types of guides in Zimbabwe

There are two main types of guides in Zimbabwe, namely tour guides (ZTA, 2014) and field guides, who are formally known as professional guides (Ndlovu, 2012:12). In Zimbabwe, tour guides tend to deal mostly with visitors who are usually taken across attraction centres in a bus or tour vehicles. In some cases, the tour guides double their roles by playing both the tour guide and driver roles. On the other hand, field guides mostly deal with tourists in the wilderness environments where they mainly interpret nature. The differences between these two types of guides are reflected by the differences in training and licensing institutions responsible for them. The differences in the training curricula currently being administered to each of them, serve to demonstrate the variance in the training and development approaches for the two types of guides in Zimbabwe. Though these professions could be treated differently, scholarly work that has so far been conducted in the area, for example by Nyahunzvi and Njerekai (2013:3-7), tends to bunch together the two professions (field and tour guides) under the umbrella name of tour guides. The researcher in most cases also adopted the same approach for ease of reference and consistency.

4.3 Tour guide training institutions in Zimbabwe

Different countries have different institutional mechanisms to handle tour guide training. Tour guide training is sometimes handled directly by the ministry responsible or its agencies. In other cases it could be the trade association or the approved institutions while in some instances universities and colleges can offer this training independently (Chowdhary & Prakash, 2009:167).

In Zimbabwe, there is a paucity of information on the tour guiding profession (Nyahunzvi & Njerekai, 2013:4) and as such this exploration and analysis of tour guide education and training largely focused on those institutions whose information could be readily obtained from literature and other sources of secondary data. The key tour guide training institutions in Zimbabwe according to Nyahunzvi and Njerekai (2013:4) include firstly, the Zimbabwe Tourism Authority (ZTA) which collaborates with the University of

Zimbabwe and secondly the Zimbabwe Parks and Wildlife Management Authority (ZPWMA) which trains professional guides in partnership with the Zimbabwe Professional Hunters and Guides Association (ZPGHA). The researcher only concentrated on the above-mentioned training institutions as they are the ones mandated by the government to administer the national tour guide training programmes in Zimbabwe as shall be noted in sections 4.4.1 and 4.4.2.

4.3.1 The Zimbabwe Tourism Authority (ZTA)

The Zimbabwe Tourism Authority is an implementing arm that falls under the Ministry of Tourism and Hospitality Industry. It is a body corporate that was established through the Tourism Act Chapter 14.20 of 1996. Its major functions include the following:

- i. To market Destination Zimbabwe locally, regionally and internationally.
- ii. To register, grade, inspect and license tourism operators, set standards and regulate the tourism industry.
- iii. To promote tourism planning and investment.
- iv. To undertake tourism market research.

It is under the auspices of its second role mentioned above that the ZTA becomes among other factors, involved with the training, registration and licensing of tour guides. The ZTA is currently training tour guides in collaboration with one of the local universities (University of Zimbabwe) to whom they have delegated the responsibility. In this arrangement, the University conducts the lessons, sets, administers and marks the examinations and provides certificates to the successful candidates. The training is currently three (3) months long and the current training programme's nomenclature is Tour Guiding and Guest Relationship Management. The successful candidates will in turn be referred by the University to the Zimbabwe Tourism Authority for licensing and registration as tour guides.

4.3.1.1 ZTA's tour guide registration and licensing requirements

The Zimbabwe Tourism Authority has set the following minimum requirements for one to be registered and licensed as a tour guide:

- i. One should have undergone and passed a tour guide training course from an approved training institution (which is namely the University of Zimbabwe in the current set up).
- ii. The candidate should submit a copy of the tour guide training course transcript or certificate.
- iii. Candidates should have a valid first aid certificate from approved medical practitioners (the certificate should be valid for at least a year)
- iv. A copy of the national identity card
- v. An annual registration fee of fifty dollars (\$50)
- vi. A filled application form

After that, the graduates could work in any part of the country as tour guides (Nyahunzvi & Njerekai, 2013:5).

4.3.2 The ZPWMA/ ZPGHA guide training programme

The roles of ZPWMA and ZPGHA are concurrently discussed under this section as both institutions undertake joint training of Zimbabwe's professional guides who are also known as field guides. The ZPWMA handles the country's national parks estate and provides the syllabi and sets the examinations for professional guides and professional hunters (Nyahunzvi & Njerekai, 2013:4). The ZPWMA is also responsible for the certification, licensing and registration of the successful professional guides and hunters.

ZPHGA is the private sector association that assists ZPWMA in the training and examining of professional hunters and professional guides by providing the course

material also known as the Study Pack (Nyahunzvi & Njerekai, 2013:5). The study pack contains the following list of learning materials:

- i. Ballistics in perspectives by L. A Grange
- ii. Safari Club International Manual Edition X11
- iii. The Zimbabwe Professional Hunters” and Guides Association Log Book
- iv. Trapping and control of animals Act
- v. Parks and Wildlife Act – 1996 Edition
- vi. Forestry Act -1996
- vii. Firearms Act – 1996
- viii. Tourism Act - 1996
- ix. Learners Professional Guides and Hunters Syllabus
- x. Statutory Instrument 11 of 1998
- xi. Statutory Instrument 26 of 1998
- xii. Statutory Instrument 48 of 1998
- xiii. Statutory Instrument 362 of 1990
- xiv. Statutory Instrument 108 of 1998
- xv. Statutory Instrument 76 of 1998

The Zimbabwe Professional Hunters” and Guides Association also provide the co-examiners to ZPWMA during the continuous assessments and examinations of the professional guides. Zimbabwe’s procedures for obtaining a professional guides license through the ZPWMA and ZPGHA are known to be one of the most difficult, extensive and well respected throughout Africa (Ndlovu, 2012:12). According to Mashiri (2014:1) aspirants for the professional guides’ license have to satisfy the following minimum requirements to become a fully accredited professional guide:

- i. The applicant must be a Zimbabwean citizen or permanent resident, be eighteen years of age or over and a holder of a first aid certificate from an approved medical practitioner.

- ii. It is not a ZPWMA requirement for the applicant to have a driving license, but for practical reasons it is strongly advisable since all operators are in the bush and if one does not have a license they will find it difficult to provide their guiding services.
- iii. ZPWMA holds learner license examinations two times a year in about February and September and one must register with them about a month before. In this learner's theory examination candidates will be tested on their knowledge of the environment, the ecology, vegetation, geography, birds and wildlife, first aid, firearms and ballistics, as well as environmental and tourism laws are tested among others.
- iv. The ZPGHA provides course material for the first phase of the professional hunting/ guiding course. The Association sells a Study Pack costing \$70.00 which contains the legislation, old exam papers, SCI Measurements, ballistics in perspective, logbook, etc. Trainees are recommended to obtain the study pack and their collection of wildlife books such as the Bundu Book Series, Roberts Birds, Coates Palgrave Trees, etc. to enhance their understanding. A syllabus is issued by ZPWMA and is also included in the study pack.
- v. Candidates may also have to write a canoe paper at the same time as the Learner Exam if they intend to be a River Guide. The candidate will also be required to acquire 250 hours of experience on the river before undergoing the Canoe, Kayak or Whitewater proficiency test held during the year.
- vi. After passing the learner exam, a candidate must obtain work as an apprentice. With an operator under the guidance of a fully qualified professional hunter/guide who will be a holder of a full license from ZPWMA. This apprenticeship lasts for two years during which time the candidate is required to shoot at least four dangerous games, including buffalo or elephant and some cats. Under the tutorship, learner guides will gain extensive experience of working in the bush and guiding clients through their shadowing of other professional guides. The apprenticeship also includes fulfilling a certain number of hours conducting walking safaris, game drives and hunting safaris.

- vii. Before attending the license proficiency test, the candidate is required to obtain an advanced first aid certificate from an accredited medical house and attend a shooting test held by ZPWMA and the Zimbabwe Sport Shooting Federation, in several centres. Also, the candidate is also expected to participate in an oral interview in Harare or Bulawayo, held by ZPWMA.
- viii. The candidate will then attend a Proficiency Test held by ZPWMA. Once the two year apprenticeship is complete, the learner guide then has to go through an extensive week-long examination to ensure his/her guiding, knowledge and firearm skill to provide security of any guests whom he/she will guide in the future. Upon passing the practical test, he/she will then be issued with a full professional hunter or guide license.
- ix. On attainment of a full license, it is not a requirement for the candidate to join the Zimbabwe Professional Hunters and Guides Association, but will not be supported by the Association if not a member. The ZPGHA keeps members informed by e-mail bulletins of the current developments. There is also a Trophy Award Competition held annually with acknowledgement to the winners.

As can be noted from the preceding discussion, the training of field guides and professional hunters is bunched together in the solitary ZPWMA- ZPGHA's training curriculum that raises questions about the quality of the final product as the two professions are related but not identical. It therefore, appears more logical from the perspective of the researcher, if the training curriculum would be split to address the human capital developmental needs for each of the two various professions optimally. This observation is supported by Nyahunzvi and Njerekai (2013:5) who observed that the syllabi being used to train these field guides did not offer much content and direction in terms of assisting one in providing guided interpretation and thus produced "tour guides by default" who are ill-prepared for guided interpretation in such places as museums, city tours and so forth. This observation is further examined in the next section that deals with Zimbabwe's tour guide training curriculum.

4.4 The tour guide training curriculum

There is no agreed definition of the term “curriculum,” but the word derives from a Latin word, “current”, referring to the running of a course, as in a chariot race (Marsh & Willis, 2007:8-15; Hewitt, 2006:24). According to Hewitt (2006:24) curriculum is commonly considered as a course of study of a school or simply what is taught. Tanner and Tanner (1980:43) defined a curriculum as a planned and guided learning experiences and intended outcomes, formulated through the systematic reconstruction of knowledge and experiences under the auspices of the school, for the learner’s continuous and wilful growth in personal competence. The curriculum has many other meanings, such as “an interrelated set of plans and experiences that a student undertakes under the guidance of the school” (Marsh & Willis, 2007:15). This definition highlights two key features of the curriculum: firstly, learning is planned and guided (namely, by the organisation of learning); secondly, the definition refers to schooling.

Depending on how broadly educators may want to define the term, curriculum can thus be summarised as a term referring to the knowledge and skills students are expected to learn, which includes the learning standards or learning objectives they are supposed to meet; the units and lessons that teachers or trainers teach; the assignments and projects given to students; the books, materials, presentations and readings used in a course; and the tests, assessments and other methods used to evaluate student learning. One can, therefore, note from the previous definitions that curriculum is one of the foundational elements, essential in effective education or training. Though there is no worldwide tour guiding curriculum, there are standards that are in place that all tour guides should be exposed to during training (Weiler & Ham, 2002:52-69). Most of the key components of tour guide curricula’s are similar with the differences mostly noted in that trainee tour guides learn according to their country of origin and destination of interest. Common are courses like communication skills and leadership skills, general information, history and culture, the legal framework that are a common feature in most tour guide training curricula (Salazar, 2006:833–852). The next section examines the key components of a tour guide training curriculum.

4.4.1 Key components/ courses of a tour guide training curriculum

The components that a curriculum contains determine the quality and skills of the tour guides to be produced (Salazar, 2006:833–852). Salazar (2006:833–852) believes that it is the curriculum courses that help trainee tour guides to become recognised professionals. Nyahunzvi and Njerekai (2013:7) also acknowledged that it is the content of training curriculum that improves the skills of tour guides. Thus the courses that a tour guide training curriculum contains have a significant impact on the level of professionalism and expertise on the tour guides.

Before looking at Zimbabwe's tour guide training curricula, it is important for one to familiarise with the nature of the tour guide training curricula at a global level first and then lastly zero in on the local one. The researcher shall therefore in this section attempt to decipher the key components or courses of the various tour guide training curricula as recorded in literature. According to Weiler and Ham (2002:52-69) guides should be trained in three aspects: guiding, products or resources and tourists. First, tour guides must be trained to become interpreters who can plan, design and present personal and non-personal interpretation to provide quality guiding services. The interpreter is the most predominant role that tour guides play (Black & Weiler, 2005:26). Second, tour guides need to understand the sites, resources and products accurately to protect them as well as foster tourists' understanding of them. This information may be site-specific and can be taught locally. Third, tour guides must understand tourists regarding their needs and desires, languages and cross-cultural differences to satisfy them as a return for money the tourists have paid (Salazar, 2007:23–30). Table 4.1 summarises the main courses of a tour guide training curriculum as gleaned from the literature.

Table 4.1: Main tour guide training curriculum courses from an international perspective

Main tour guide training curriculum courses	Author and Year
Foreign languages	Collins (2000); Pond (1993); Prakash <i>et al.</i> (2011); Salazar (2006)
Communication skills	Ap and Wang (2001); Chowdhary and Prakash (2008); Collins (2000); Holloway (1981); Pond (1993); Salazar (2006); Zhang and Chow (2004).
Customer Relations	Black <i>et al.</i> (2001); Weiler and Ham (2002)
Wildlife and ecology	Salazar (2006); Collins (2000); Prakash <i>et al.</i> (2011)
Knowledge of tourism products (e.g. fauna, flora religion, general information, history and culture)	Black <i>et al.</i> (2001); Chowdhary and Prakash (2008); Collins (2000); Dioko and Unakul (2005); Prakash <i>et al.</i> (2011); Salazar (2006)
Professional tour guiding and leadership	Ap and Wang (2001); Jonasson and Scherle (2012)
Medical and first aid preparations	Collins (2000); Salazar (2006)
Tour guiding techniques, duties and responsibilities	Ap and Wang (2001); Armstrong (2009); Collins (2000); Ham and Weiler (2002); Hughes (1991); Nyahunzvi and Njerekai (2013); Salazar (2006)
Wildlife and survival skills	Salazar (2006)
Local tour guiding	Black <i>et al.</i> (2001); Collins (2000); Dioko and Unakul (2005); Salazar (2006)
Research Project	Salazar (2006)
Service marketing	Ap and Wang (2001)
Tour guiding and tour packaging	Collins (2000)
Legal framework	Collins (2000); Prakash <i>et al.</i> (2011); Salazar (2006)
Group and camp management	Salazar (2006)

Business/ management (organising a guiding business)	Chowdhary and Prakash (2008); Collins (2000)
Interpersonal/ behavioural skills	Chowdhary and Prakash (2008)
Information, technology and computers	Salazar (2006)
Sustainable tour guiding	Black <i>et al.</i> (2001); Collins (2001); Dioko and Unakul (2005); Prakash <i>et al.</i> (2011); Salazar (2006)
Adventure and recreation activities	Collins (2000); Prakash <i>et al.</i> (2011); Salazar (2006)

Source: Developed by the researcher from existing literature

It is of paramount importance to note that the above main courses of tour guide training curricula are mostly being identified at the certificate level of tour guide training (Collins, 2000:33; Salazar, 2006:833–852) while there are some pockets and splinters of training at diploma and undergraduate degree levels. This study is therefore mostly informed by literature dwelling on the certificate level training of the profession. While this section has attempted to look at the key components of tour guide training curricula, in general, the next section narrows in on Zimbabwe by analysing the training curricula of Zimbabwe’s extant key tour guide training institutions that have already been identified in Section 4.3

4.4.2 Key components or courses of Zimbabwe’s tour guide training curricula

This section first analyses the courses of the ZTA-UZ tour guide training curriculum and then lastly but not least the ZPWMA-ZPGHA training curriculum.

4.4.2.1 *The ZTA-UZ Tour guide and guest relationship management training curriculum*

The three months long ZTA-UZ tour guide and guest relationship management training programme comprises of the following courses in its curriculum: Overview of Zimbabwe and Southern Africa tourist attractions and resources, green tourism and efficient management of the environment, legislative and policy issues in tourism development, business ethics and corporate social responsibility, marketing and customer relationship management, business communication and public relations, principles of financial management and bookkeeping, itinerary development and practical approaches to tour guiding and a practical project (ZTA-UZ tour guide and guest relationship management training curriculum, 2015:1). These key components or courses of the ZTA-UZ tour guide and guest relationship management training curriculum are shown in Table 4.2.

Table 4.2: Main courses of the ZTA-UZ tour guide and guest relationship management training curriculum

Course	Course Title
1	Overview of Zimbabwe and Southern Africa tourist attractions and resources
2	Green tourism and efficient management of the environment
3	Legislative and policy issue in tourism development
4	Business ethics and corporate social responsibility
5	Marketing and customer relationship management
6	Business communication and public relations
7	Principles of financial management and bookkeeping
8	Itinerary development and practical approaches to tour guiding
Practical project	A focus group research project focusing on an aspect of tour operations to be conducted at the workplace under supervision from training experts, to be presented before a panel of examiners using Ms PowerPoint.

Source: Adapted from ZTA-UZ tour guide and guest relationship management training curriculum (2015:1)

An examination of Table 4.2 above against scholarly research on the subject under study shows that there are some similarities and dissimilarities between the components of the ZTA-UZ Tour guide training syllabus and those obtained from the body of literature. Similarities can be drawn for instance in subject areas such as local tour guiding, general information, history and culture, sustainable tour guiding, legal framework, service marketing, communication skills, tour guiding techniques, duties and responsibilities, medical and first aid preparations (Black *et al.*, 2001:147–156).

A further comparison of the ZTA-UZ Tour guide training syllabus and the body of literature on tour guide training curricula reveals that ZTA-UZ Tour guide training syllabus is deficient in the following subject areas contained in literature: adventure and recreation activities, information and technology computers, tour guiding management, wildlife and survival skills, professional tour guiding and leadership, wildlife and ecology, foreign languages (Ap & Wong, 2001:551–563; Collins, 2000:13; Jonasson & Scherle, 2012:55-73; Pond, 1993:18; Prakash *et al.*, 2011:65-81; Salazar, 2006:833–852). While some trainers and trainees feel that language training should be conducted separately from technical training there is widespread agreement that guides need to acquire at least some ability to speak and understand the language of their target markets (Weiler & Ham, 2002:56) so that they will have the capacity to communicate in cross-cultural situations (Christie & Mason, 2003:7). Table 4.3 provides a tabular comparison of the current ZTA-UZ tour guide training curriculum components or courses against those obtained from the literature. Please note that the researcher used his discretion during the comparisons in cases where the nomenclatures of these courses would not be worded exactly the same in verbatim but yet bearing the same meaning regarding content.

Table 4:3 A comparison of the ZTA-UZ tour guide training curriculum and the tour guide training curriculum courses identified from literature

ZTA-UZ tour guides training courses	Tour guide training courses identified from literature
Overview of Zimbabwe and Southern Africa tourist attractions and resources	Knowledge of tourism products (e.g. fauna, flora religion, general information, history and culture) (Black <i>et al.</i> , 2001; Chowdhary & Prakash, 2008; Collins, 2000; Dioko & Unakul, 2005; Prakash <i>et al.</i> , 2011; Salazar, 2006)
Green tourism and efficient management of the environment	Sustainable tour guiding (Black <i>et al.</i> , 2001; Collins, 2001; Dioko & Unakul, 2005; Salazar, 2006; Swabrooke & Horner, 1999)
Legislative and policy issue in tourism development	Legal framework (Collins, 2000; Prakash <i>et al.</i> , 2011; Salazar, 2006)
Business ethics and corporate social responsibility	-
Marketing and customer relationship management	Service Marketing/ Customer Relations (Ap & Wang, 2001; Black <i>et al.</i> , 2001; Weiler & Ham, 2002)
Business communication and public relations	Communication skills (Ap & Wang, 2001; Chowdhary & Prakash, 2008; Collins, 2000; Holloway, 1981; Pond, 1993; Salazar, 2006; Zhang & Chow, 2004).
Principles of financial management and bookkeeping	Tour guiding techniques, duties and responsibilities (Ap & Wang, 2001; Armstrong, 2009; Collins, 2000; Ham & Weiler, 2002; Hughes, 1991; Nyahunzvi & Njerekai, 2013; Salazar, 2006)
Itinerary development and practical approaches to tour guiding	Tour guiding and tour packaging (Collins, 2000)
Practical Project	Research Project (Salazar, 2006)

-	Foreign languages (Collins, 2000; Pond, 1993; Prakash <i>et al.</i> , 2011; Salazar, 2006).
-	Wildlife and ecology (Salazar, 2006; Collins, 2000; Prakash <i>et al.</i> , 2011).
-	Professional tour guiding and leadership (Ap & Wang, 2001; Chan, 2010; Chow, 2004; Jonasson & Scherle, 2012)
First aid certificate requirement	Medical and first aid preparations (Collins, 2000; Salazar, 2006)
-	Wildlife and survival skills (Salazar, 2006)
-	Tour guiding and tour packaging (Collins, 2000)
-	Legal framework (Collins, 2000; Salazar, 2006)
-	Group and camp management (Salazar, 2006)
-	The roles of resort representatives and tour guiding management (Collins, 2000)
-	Information, Technology and Computers (Salazar, 2006)
-	Adventure and recreation activities (Collins, 2000; Prakash <i>et al.</i> , 2011; Salazar, 2006)

Source: Developed by the researcher from existing literature

Table 4.3 above compares and contrasts components of the ZTA-UZ tour guide training curriculum against those identified and suggested from literature. From the analysis of the above table, one can conclude that the current ZTA-UZ tour guide training curriculum only provides about fifty percent of the tour guide training curricula components identified from the literature. This shows that there is vast room for improvement for the current ZTA-UZ tour guide training curriculum if Zimbabwe is to

attain world-class standards in tour guide training. However of critical importance is the observation that the ZTA-UZ Tour guide training curriculum seems to be silent on the subjects of emotional intelligence and cultural intelligence, which have since been discovered to be salient in the production of memorable tourism experiences. This exposes serious deficiencies in this tour guide training curriculum that need to be urgently addressed if the creation of memorable tourism experiences by tour guides in Zimbabwe will be anything to go by.

Apart from the three months long ZTA-UZ tour guide training, Zimbabwe also provides a three-year long professional guide training through the Zimbabwe Parks and Wildlife Management Authority (ZPWMA) in collaboration with the Zimbabwe Professional Hunters and Guides Association (ZPGHA).

4.4.2.2 The Zimbabwe Parks and Wildlife Management Authority (ZPWMA) and Zimbabwe Professional Hunters and Guides Association (ZPGHA) Professional guide training curriculum

Table 4.4 denotes the professional guide training curriculum being currently used to train professional guides and hunters in Zimbabwe by the Zimbabwe Parks and Wildlife Management Authority (ZPWMA) in collaboration with the Zimbabwe Professional Hunters and Guides Association (ZPGHA). As has already been pointed out in earlier sections, the two professions are trained from the same curriculum. Their separation is made at the final stage of the training when candidates would choose to either sit for the professional hunter or the professional guide proficiency test. The successful candidate is then awarded the respective certificate or license upon successful passing of the final examination.

Table 4.4: Key courses of the ZPWMA and the ZPGHA professional guides and hunters training curriculum

Course	Key course components
Law	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Parks and Wildlife Act, 1996 revised edition • Trapping of Animals Control Act Chapter 134 • Parks and Wildlife General Regulations (Statutory Instrument 362 of 1990) • Parks and Wildlife Import and Export Wildlife Regulations (Statutory Instrument 76 of 1998) • Firearms Act Chapter 10: 09 Revised Edition 1996 • Development of Tourism Act • Statutory Instrument 26 • Forest Act
Habits and Habitats	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Trees of Southern Africa (Palgrave) • Roberts Birds of Southern Africa • Mammals of Southern Africa sub-region (Skinners and Smithers) • Mammals of Zimbabwe (Bundu series by Kenmuir) • Common trees of the Highveld (Drummond and Palgrave) • Range Management (Stoddart and Smith) • The behaviour guide to African mammals (Estes) • The safari companion • The fishes of Zimbabwe (Bell-Cross and Minshull)
Veld management	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Animal behaviour and distribution • Feeding habits • Reproduction • Vegetation • Insects • Reptiles • Fish
Two-year practical apprenticeship	<p>This apprenticeship lasts for two years during which time the candidate is required to shoot at least four dangerous game, including buffalo or elephant and some cats. Under the tutorship, learner guides will gain extensive experience of working in the bush and guiding clients through their shadowing of other professional guides. The apprenticeship also includes fulfilling a certain number of hours conducting walking safaris, game drives and hunting safaris.</p>

Source: Adapted from the ZPWMA and the ZPGHA professional guides and hunters training curriculum (2015:1-11)

One can observe that the above curriculum (Table 4.4) is mostly biased towards developing guides meant to work only in nature or wilderness environment thereby neglecting other specific tourist nugget areas like museums and other cultural centres situated in a non-wildlife zone, a gap that the current ZTA –UZ Training curriculum also fails to fulfil. Nonetheless, this bias towards nature-based interpretation can be justified mostly by the fact that Zimbabwe's tourism had for a long time been hinged on wildlife tourism (Manwa, 2007:465). Nevertheless with the new tourism development thrust in Zimbabwe in which tourism is being diversified from wildlife to other new niche forms of tourism such as cultural tourism, business tourism, medical (health tourism); industrial tourism, shopping tourism, agro-tourism, sports tourism, religious tourism and historical and heritage-based tourism products (National Tourism Policy, 2011:16) it is also crucial that the development of tour guides be deliberately tailored to deal with these newly emerging tourism niche sectors, which the extant training curricula seem to fall short on.

The ZPWMA and the ZPGHA professional guide training curriculum also seems to be silent on subjects which the body of literature has confirmed to be the profession's critical human capital development areas such as marketing (Ap & Wong, 2001:551–563) communication skills (Chowdhary & Prakash, 2008:288-299; Collins, 2000:14; Pond, 1993:74; Salazar, 2006:833–852) group and camp management (Salazar, 2006:833–852). It should be clear that tour guides need to be aware of the needs of their group and this is frequently cited as an important aspect of guiding (Christie & Mason, 2003:11). The next section further looks at the challenges faced in tour guide training in Zimbabwe.

Also, the ZPWMA and the ZPGHA professional guide training curriculum presented above seem to be more focused on the legal aspects of wildlife management while ignoring the host-tourist man interaction dimensions critical in the development of memorable tourist experiences. Hence, graduates of the ZPWMA and the ZPGHA professional guide training curriculum may have all the legal know-how of the nature-based guiding but too often lack the skill to guide the tourists culturally and emotionally intelligently. It is thus important that the subjects of emotional intelligence and cultural

intelligence of tour guides currently missing in this training curriculum be factored to equip the guides with competences to co-create memorable tourism experiences.

4.5 Challenges of tour guide training in Zimbabwe

Due to the scarcity of scholarly research on Zimbabwe's tour guiding sector, the study will mostly base the literature discussion on earlier work by Nyahunzvi and Njerekai (2013:3-7). It is not easy for tour guides to finish their course without facing challenges (Salazar, 2006:833–852). This point of view was also supported by Nyahunzvi and Njerekai (2013:5) when they argued that trainee tour guides in Zimbabwe face many challenges during their training “without anyone helping them out”. This section shall review some of the problems encountered in tour guide training in Zimbabwe.

4.5.1 The lack of coordination and standardisation of the training curricula and industry's input in the setting up of the syllabi

As has already been identified in Section 4.4 tour guide training in Zimbabwe is fragmented with the Zimbabwe Tourism Authority doing their training on one end of the tour guide training continuum in collaboration with the University of Zimbabwe and with the Zimbabwe Parks and Wildlife Authority on the other end of the continuum in cooperation with the ZPHGA. Hence, there is a lack of an integrated and standardised national training curriculum for the local tour guides' course.

4.5.2 A deficient and generalised training content

A review of the syllabus and past examination papers by Nyahunzvi and Njerekai (2013:5) showed that emphasis in tour guide training is placed on the acquisition of general knowledge about the country's flora and fauna, key attractions, firearms and generic codes of ethics for the tour guide. Nyahunzvi and Njerekai (2013:5) then further questioned how this training material could be used to offer guided interpretation for bird watching tours, for example Nyahunzvi and Njerekai (2013:5) also observed that the

curriculum was too general yet guided interpretation concerns specialised interests such as cultural tours to specific tourist nuggets.

4.5.3 *Lack of a tier tour guides training system*

According to Nyahunzvi and Njerekai (2013:5) tour guides' training in Zimbabwe does not have a tier system where one moved progressively from being a local to a provincial or national guide as one acquired more training. This is in contrast to countries like India (Prakash & Chowdhary, 2010:53–65) and South Africa (De Beer, 2011:67) which have these tier tour guide training models that tend to facilitate the efficient training of guides.

4.5.4 *Inexperienced and under qualified tour guide trainers*

Nyahunzvi and Njerekai (2013:5) further observed that the majority of lecturers for the tour guiding course did not have either any formal tour guiding qualifications or practical experience as tour guides and hence cannot effectively train and produce tour guides of the best fit.

4.5.5 *Very high tour guide training costs*

The tour guide training tuition costs are perceived to be high. In the words of one trainee tour guide in the study of Nyahunzvi and Njerekai (2013:5) the trainee pointed out that “the tuition fees are not in line with our low salaries, so for one to save about US\$400 for the fees and exams is a great challenge, if not impossible...” (Nyahunzvi & Njerekai, 2013:5).

4.5.6 *The lack of practical training opportunities for trainee tour guides*

Njerekai and Nyahunzvi (2013:5) noted that there is a lack of opportunities for trainee tour guides to learn practically in Zimbabwe. Since trainee field guides are required to undergo a two-year practical attachment before completing their training, it is noted that sometimes it is difficult for them to secure that attachment. If the field guides trainees do

not have an industrial attachment it means that they cannot graduate because they would have still not yet completed the required courses.

4.5.7 *The failure of the responsible Boards to hear the voices of trainee tour guides*

Nyahunzvi and Njerekai (2013:5) noted that the tour guiding boards are not doing enough to protect the training of tour guides. The guides believe that the governing boards are letting the training institutions rob them money through high fees being charged. The tour guides also feel that they are being abused by the tour operators during their attachment as they are not paid but made to work for free.

4.5.8 *Long training periods*

The two-year long practical apprenticeship training period by the ZPWMA is considered by trainees to be unnecessarily too long given that the candidates would have spent a year on theoretical learning (Nyahunzvi & Njerekai, 2013:6).

4.6 Chapter summary

This chapter focused on a literature analysis of Zimbabwe's tour guide education and training systems. As noted in the chapter, the field of study is characterised by a dearth of scholarly research with only a very minimal body of literature available on Zimbabwe. The researcher feels more data on the area could be tapped through empirical research as very minimal scholarly efforts have so far been done to document information on Zimbabwe's tour guide education and training systems.

Nevertheless, despite the paucity of information on Zimbabwe's tour guide education and training systems, several conclusions can be made from the chapter. The study noted that for tour guides to be in a position to co-create memorable tourism experiences they need to possess the tour guiding interactional intelligence (TGII) comprising of appropriate personality traits, emotional intelligence and cultural intelligence (PEC). These competences were observed to be developable through

education and training. The relevant education and training approaches were noted to include the traditional classroom approaches which include preparation, training, maintenance and transfer process and evaluation. Other identified training approaches include the self-directed learning, self-coaching, experiential learning and the social learning approaches. While the identified competences to co-create memorable tourism experiences have been noted to be trainable, it is ironic that, a content analysis of the current tour guide training curricula by Zimbabwe's key tour guide training institutions has revealed that these critical competences are not being sufficiently addressed in the training curricula. This observation, therefore, brings to the fore the extant gap in Zimbabwe's current tour guide education and training interventions which this study attempts to fill. The next chapter focuses on the study's research methodology.

CHAPTER 5: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

5.1 Introduction

This chapter outlines the philosophical and methodological stance of the study along with issues regarding sampling, instrumentation, data collection and methods of data analysis. More specifically the chapter can be said to have adopted a pragmatic stance to philosophy characterised by the use of concurrent triangulation design by the symbol QUAN + QUAL as the research area is heavily under-researched. Triangulation approaches are a common practice in tour guide studies, for example, Black and Ham (2005:181); Manwa and Boemah (2012:46); Wang *et al.* (2007:364-366) and Zhang and Chow (2004:83). The study's research methodology was primarily based on semi-structured interviews and structured questionnaires, interpreted from an intermediate perspective.

This chapter also provides the background of mixed methods, rationales for adopting mixed methods, the scale development procedures, sampling techniques, data collection procedures and data analysis methods that were used for both qualitative and quantitative portions of the mixed methods study.

5.2 Philosophical assumptions

The choice of the research method is not made in a philosophical void (Barbour, 1999:39-43) but the researcher's choice of methods is considered to be chiefly determined by the philosophical assumptions that shape the study (Brannen, 2005:173-185). These philosophical assumptions might be called paradigms (Lincoln & Guba, 2000:163-188; Mertens, 1998:6); epistemologies and ontologies (Crotty, 1998:18); or broadly conceived research methodologies (Neuman, 2000:121). Therefore, for a successful research work, researchers should consider what kind of knowledge they seek to generate to determine the philosophical assumptions under which to operate.

There are at least four philosophical assumptions or knowledge claims namely the post positivism, social constructivism (interpretivism); advocacy /participatory and pragmatism (Creswell, 2003:7).

5.2.1 Post positivism

Post positivism is sometimes called the "scientific method" or doing "science" research, positivist/post positivist research, empirical science and is commonly associated with quantitative research. In the scientific method or post-positivism a researcher individual begins with a theory, collects data that either supports or refutes the theory and then makes necessary revisions before additional tests are conducted (Creswell, 2003:7).

5.2.2 Social constructivism

Rather than starting with a theory (as in post positivism) in social constructivism (usually combined with interpretivism; Mertens, 1998:11) inquirers inductively develop a theory or pattern of meaning. The researcher looks for the complexity of views rather than narrowing meanings into a few categories or ideas. The goal of the research, then, is to rely as much as possible on the participants' views of the situation being studied (Creswell, 2003:8). This philosophical assumption is thus largely related to the process of qualitative research which is largely inductive, with the Inquirer generating meaning from the data collected in the field.

5.2.3 Advocacy/ participatory

Another group of researchers claim knowledge through an advocacy/ participatory approach. This position arose when inquirers felt that the social constructivist stance did not go far enough in advocating for an action agenda to help marginalised peoples (Creswell, 2003:10). In this philosophy researchers seek to embrace a political agenda in which the specific important social issues are addressed such as empowerment, inequality, oppression, domination, suppression and alienation (Creswell, 2003:10). The advocacy researcher hence often begins with one of these matters as the focal point of

research. This research also assumes that the inquirer will proceed collaboratively so as to not further marginalise the participants as a result of the inquiry. In this sense, the participants may help design questions, collect data, analyse information, or receive rewards for participating in the research. Therefore, within these knowledge claims are stances for groups and individuals in society that may be marginalised or disenfranchised (Creswell, 2003:10)

5.2.4 Pragmatism

Another position about claims on knowledge comes from the pragmatists in which pragmatism is viewed as a philosophical underpinning for mixed methods studies. Tashakkori and Teddlie (1998:20-40) convey the importance for focusing attention on the research problem in social science research and then using pluralistic approaches to derive knowledge about the problem. Thus in this knowledge claim, instead of methods being important, the problem is most important and researchers use all approaches to understanding the problem (Creswell, 2003:11). Pragmatism, therefore, opens the door to multiple methods, different worldviews and different assumptions, as well as to different forms of data collection and analysis in the study for the mixed methods researcher. Inquirers draw liberally from both quantitative and qualitative assumptions when they engage in their research rather than subscribing to only one way (e.g., quantitative or qualitative).

Having provided an overview of the four philosophical assumptions, it is important for one to note that the author adopted the pragmatic stance to philosophy as it underlies the mixed methods research approach (Brannen, 2005:173-185) which the author sought to pursue. The concern of the pragmatist is more to open up the world to social enquiry and hence to be less purist regarding methods and preconceptions (about theory and method) (Brannen, 2005:173-185). As a pragmatist, it was felt that this rationality will more readily embrace a mix of methods which the author wished to use to explore the key tour guide competences to co-create memorable tourism experiences.

5.3 Research design

Parahoo (1997:142) describes a research design as “a plan that describes how, when and where data are to be collected and analysed”. Creswell (2009:3) concurs with Parahoo (1997:142) by defining it as “plans and procedures for research that span the decision from broad assumptions to detailed methods of data collection and analysis”. The research design provides researchers with a framework to follow throughout the entire research process so that they avoid gathering irrelevant information that has no fundamental pertinence to the research inquiry (Sthapit, 2013:49). According to Creswell (2009:3); there are three types of designs namely qualitative, quantitative and mixed methods. In this study, the mixed methods research design was applied and such approaches are a common practice in tour guide studies, for example, Black and Ham (2005:181); Manwa and Boemah (2012:46); Wang *et al.* (2007:364-366) and Zhang and Chow (2004:83).

5.4 Mixed methods research design

As already pointed out above, this study applied the mixed method research approach, which is increasingly gaining enormous popularity among social and behaviour al sciences (Creswell, 2003:4; Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004:14-26; Onwuegbuzie & Leech, 2005:375-385), wherein the tourism field is part of (Woosnam, 2008:98).

Mixed methods research is defined as the type of research in which a researcher or team of researchers combine elements of qualitative and quantitative research approaches (for example, use of qualitative and quantitative viewpoints, data collection, analysis, inference techniques) for the purposes of breadth and depth of understanding and corroboration (Johnson, Onwuegbuzie & Turner, 2007:123).

Mixed methods research has also been referred to as “integrated” or “combined,” in the sense that two forms of data are blended (Steckler, McLeroy, Goodman, Bird & McCormick, 1992:4); “hybrids” (Ragin, Nagel & White, 2004:14); “methodological triangulation” (Morse, 2003:189-203); which recognises the convergence of quantitative

and qualitative data (Creswell & Plano-Clark, 2007:6); and “mixed methodology” (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 1998:5). Today, the most frequently used name is “mixed methods research” (Creswell, 2006:6) which the study adopted.

Mixed methods research is identified as the "third methodological movement" (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2003:804; Gorard & Taylor, 2004:1) or the “third research paradigm” (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004:14-26) following quantitatively and qualitatively oriented approaches (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2003:804). Terrell (2012:255) argues that mixed methods research has derived all these preceding labels from the fact that it has emerged from the paradigm wars between qualitative and quantitative research approaches to become a widely used mode of inquiry.

In definition terms the mixed methods research is regarded as a study that involves the collection or analysis of both quantitative and/or qualitative data in a single study in which the data are collected concurrently or sequentially, are given a priority and involve the integration of the data at one or more stages in the process of research (Creswell, Plano-Clark, Gutmann & Hanson, 2003:212). The integration or mixing can occur during the methods, collection, analysis and/or the reporting stages of research (Igo, as cited by Woosman, 2008:95).

Drawing upon Morse (2003:189-208); the possible permutations of the mixed research designs may be presented regarding both the sequencing and dominance of qualitative and quantitative methods. As in Morse (2003:189-208); the arrows below indicate sequencing of methods and the plus signs (+) indicate simultaneity. The dominance of a method is indicated in CAPITAL letters.

Simultaneous designs

- | | |
|-------------------|----------------|
| 1. QUAL + quan or | 2. QUAL + QUAN |
| 3. QUAN + quan or | 4. QUAN + QUAN |
| 5. QUAL + qual or | 6. QUAL + QUAL |

Sequential designs

1	QUAL → qual or	2	Qual → QUAL or	3	QUAL → QUAL
4	QUAN → quan	5	Quan → QUAN or	6	QUAN → QUAN
7	QUAL → quan or	8	Qual → QUAN or	9	QUAL → QUAN
10	QUAN → qual or	11	Quan → QUAL or	12	QUAN → QUAL

In discussing mixed methods research, it is also important to be mindful of the fact that methods may be combined with either the quantitative or qualitative paradigm. Similarly, it is also possible for qualitative studies to combine different qualitative methods (Brannen, 2005:173-185). The study applied the QUAN + QUAL mixed method design as the research area is under-researched (Hammond, 2005:241). The qualitative dimension of the research design would thus help to unlock the indepth opinions of the respondent tour guides. As shall be noted in the study, relatively a few tour guides are operating in Zimbabwe which would not justify administering a quantitative research design as the numbers are limited. On the other hand the researcher decided to combine the qualitative method and the quantitative strand, since the study also targetted the tourists, who in most cases have limited time to engage in indepth interviews. Mixed method design was therefore chosen since the study sought to assess opinions from both the supply and demand side of the destination.

5.5 Rationale for the mixed methods research design

The rationale for adopting the mixed methods research in this study, which has partially been explained in the preceding section, is multifaceted because of the numerous advantages to be accrued. Mixed methods research provides strengths that offset the weaknesses of quantitative and qualitative research when conducted alone (Creswell, 2006:9). Quantitative research is weak in understanding the context or setting in which people talk and the voices of participants are not directly heard in quantitative research (Creswell, 2006:9). Further, it is argued that a purely quantitative methodology “rarely

captures the subtleties of the tourism experience” (McIntosh, 1998:121). This claim is validated especially by the nature of responses the researcher gathered from the interviews which were very rich and more informative than from the quantitative data alone. Hence through quantitative analysis, “the subtleties of the nature of tourism as a subjective and personal experience of place and events are lost” (McIntosh, 1998:123) as in-depth experiences cannot be explored. Nevertheless, qualitative research makes up for these weaknesses.

On the other hand, qualitative research is seen as deficient because of the personal interpretations made by the researcher, the ensuing bias created by this and the difficulty in generalising findings to a large group because of the limited number of participants studied (Creswell, 2006:9). Contrastingly, quantitative research is argued not to possess these weaknesses thus suggesting that the combination of both approaches can complete and reinforce each other through offsetting the weaknesses of either approach used by itself (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2003:10). Johnson and Turner (2003:299) hold similar views and point out that “all methods have specific limitations and strengths and that qualitative and quantitative methods should be combined to compensate for their mutual and overlapping weaknesses”. This combination, therefore, allowed for more credible and trustworthy findings (Phillimore & Goodson, 2004:163) as “no single method ever adequately solves the problem of rival causal factors... because each method reveals different aspects of empirical reality” (Denzin, 1978:28).

Thus the researcher ultimately chose the mixed method research which is deemed to be a more “practical” methodology as it provides the researcher with the discretion to use all of the tools of data collection available, including the inductive and deductive thinking, rather than being restricted to the types of data collection typically associated with qualitative research or quantitative research alone (Creswell, 2006:10). Hence this allowed the researcher to simultaneously deal with a range of exploratory and confirmatory questions using quantitative and qualitative strategies. Such a combination is epistemologically coherent and useful for verification as well as for generation of credible findings as it rigorously integrates statistical and thematic data to expand and

enhance the findings (Jack & Raturi, 2006:345-57; Pansiri, 2009:83-9); and to better understand a research problem (Gubi, Arlbjorn & Johansen, 2003:854-85). Lastly, the application of mixed method research allowed for the convergence of the findings through triangulation which serves to enhance the validity of the research.

For these reasons, the study, therefore, opted to apply the mixed method research approach. It was hoped that by applying this rationale to the study, the author would be able to uncover fully the perceptions on key tour guide competences to co-creating memorable tourism experiences with some statistical relevance that is generalisable to the population.

While much advocacy has been made above for the mixed methods designs the integration of the two methods has been questioned with scholars arguing that in practice there is no real integration as the different elements are kept separate, thus allowing each element to be true to its own paradigmatic and design requirements. Bryman (2007: 8-22) asserts that quantitative and qualitative approaches are separate paradigms with fixed epistemological assumptions and, therefore, suggests that any combination of qualitative and quantitative research methods only occurs at a “superficial level and within a single paradigm” and will prove contradictory with each other. This therefore raises the question if these would constitute a mixed methods study or rather are just two separate studies that happen to be about the same topic.

Bazeley (2002:229-243) however acknowledges that this could be aggravated by the fact that the technology for managing integrated analyses is still in development. Opperman (2000:142) further challenges the use of mixed methods by pointing out that combining methodologies does not necessarily result in increased validity of results but “only allows researchers to be more confident about their results”. These observations, therefore, attest that methods should not be mixed for the sake of it but that any combination of methods should be combined with purpose and thought with the end goal of achieving a more in-depth set of results. In this study, the researcher tried as much as he could to synthesise the findings from both methodologies during the data

analysis phase so as to formulate the basis for providing reasonable conclusions and recommendations from the study.

Mixed methods research is also noted to be time-consuming and takes more resources to collect and analyse both quantitative and qualitative data (Creswell, 2006:10). The researcher however strove to economise on time by adopting time conscious sampling methods like the purposive sampling for the qualitative study and random sampling for the quantitative strand. The researcher also considered the use of specific software in the analysis of the data such as the SPSS in order to promote an efficient and cost effective use of resources. Though its weaknesses have been cited above, one should, however, appreciate that the value of mixed methods research seems to outweigh the potential difficulty of this approach (Creswell, 2006:10). Conversely the pragmatic position (as is the case in the current study); which underlines mixed methods research (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004:14-26) explains that the integration of two research methodologies can be beneficial in corroborating, elaborating (providing richness and detail) or initiating findings (offering new interpretations) from the other methods” (Rossman & Wilson, 1985:627).

5.6 Strategies of inquiry for the mixed methods research design

The mixed methods research uses sequential, concurrent and transformative inquiry strategies that combine into six commonly accepted mixed-methods designs (Terrell, 2012:261) explained below.

5.6.1 *Sequential explanatory strategy*

Explanatory mixed methods designs are characterised by an initial and extensive quantitative phase built upon by a subsequent qualitative phase (Borrego, Douglas & Amelink, 2009:59). The primary focus of the method is to explain quantitative results by exploring certain results in more detail or helping explain unexpected results, for example using follow-up interviews to understand better the results of a quantitative study. In a nutshell, the qualitative results serve to explain the quantitative results.

Integration occurs between phases, as the quantitative results often inform the questions or sampling in the second phase (Creswell *et al.*, 2003:209-240). The sequential explanatory strategy is diagrammatically illustrated in Figure 5.1.

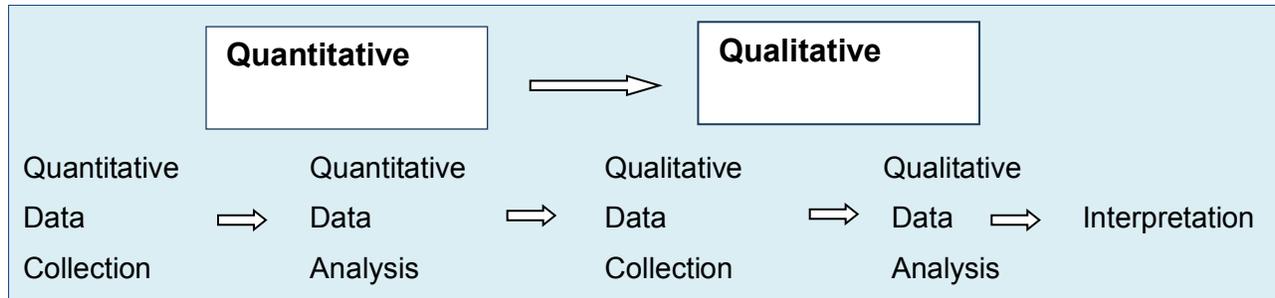
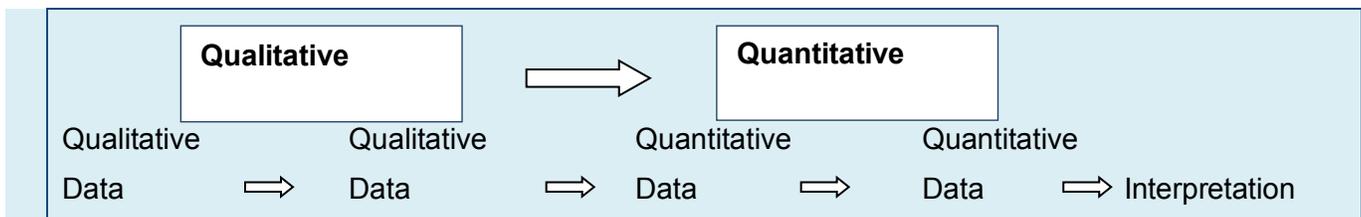


Figure 5.1: Sequential explanatory strategy

Source: Adapted from Terrell (2012:261)

5.6.2 Sequential exploratory strategy

Sequential mixed methods data collection strategies involve collecting data in an iterative process whereby the data collected in one phase contribute to the data collected in the next with the results of the first method (qualitative) helping to develop the second method (quantitative) (Greene, Caracelli & Graham, 1989:255-274). This view is supported by Creswell and Plano-Clark (2011:71) who also describe it as a design that consists of exploring a phenomenon with qualitative methods to formulate a testable instrument to measure the phenomenon across either the same or additional populations. This approach is usually employed to develop a standardised (quantitative) instrument in a relatively unstudied area (Borrego *et al.*, 2009:58). The qualitative phase identifies important factors while the quantitative phase applies them to a larger and/or more diverse population (Creswell & Plano-Clark, 2011:9). Figure 5.2 diagrammatically illustrates the sequential exploratory strategy.



Collection

Analysis

Collection

Analysis

Figure 5.2: Sequential exploratory strategy

Source: Adapted from Terrell (2012:263)

5.6.3 Sequential transformative strategy

According to Terrell (2012:265); there are two distinct data collection phases and either type can be collected first. Priority can be given to either qualitative or quantitative or both data types. Data are integrated during interpretation. A theoretical perspective such as advocacy, a specific ideology or a conceptual framework guides the study. The perspective is more important in guiding the study than the two types of data collection. Primarily the purpose is to “employ the methods that will best serve the theoretical perspective of the researcher... (it) maybe be able to give voice to diverse perspectives, to better advocate for participants or to better understand a phenomenon or process that is changing as a result of being studied” (Creswell, 2003:216). Figure 5.3 illustrates the sequential transformative strategy diagrammatically.

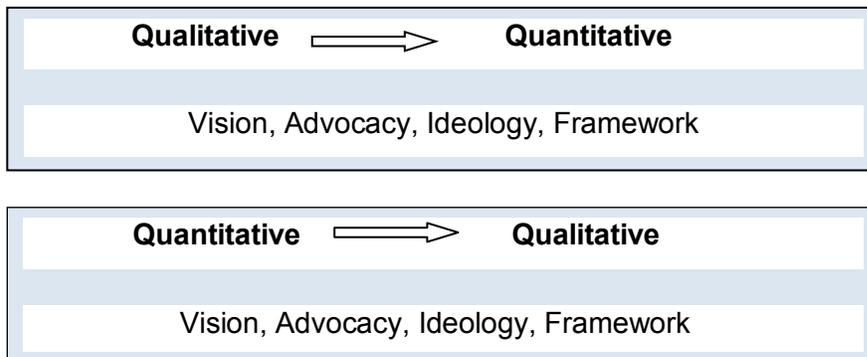


Figure 5.3: Sequential transformative strategy

Source: Adapted from Terrell (2012:265)

5.6.4 Concurrent triangulation strategy

The researcher converges quantitative and qualitative data to provide a comprehensive analysis of the research problem (Terrell, 2012:267). Triangulation is a process of verification that increases validity by incorporating several viewpoints and methods (Yeasmin & Rahman, 2012:156). In the social sciences, it refers to the combination of two or more theories, data sources, methods or investigators in one study of a single phenomenon to converge on a single construct and can be employed in both quantitative (validation) and qualitative (inquiry) studies (Yeasmin & Rahman, 2012:156). Thus, in the concurrent triangulation strategy data are collected concurrently in one phase and interpretation involves comparing the results of each to best understand the research question (Terrell, 2012:268). The method is primarily conducted for confirmation, corroboration or cross-validation within a single study as the interpretation notes either a lack of convergence or convergence that strengthens knowledge claims (Terrell, 2012:268). Figure 5.4 serves to illustrate the concurrent triangulation strategy in a diagrammatic form.

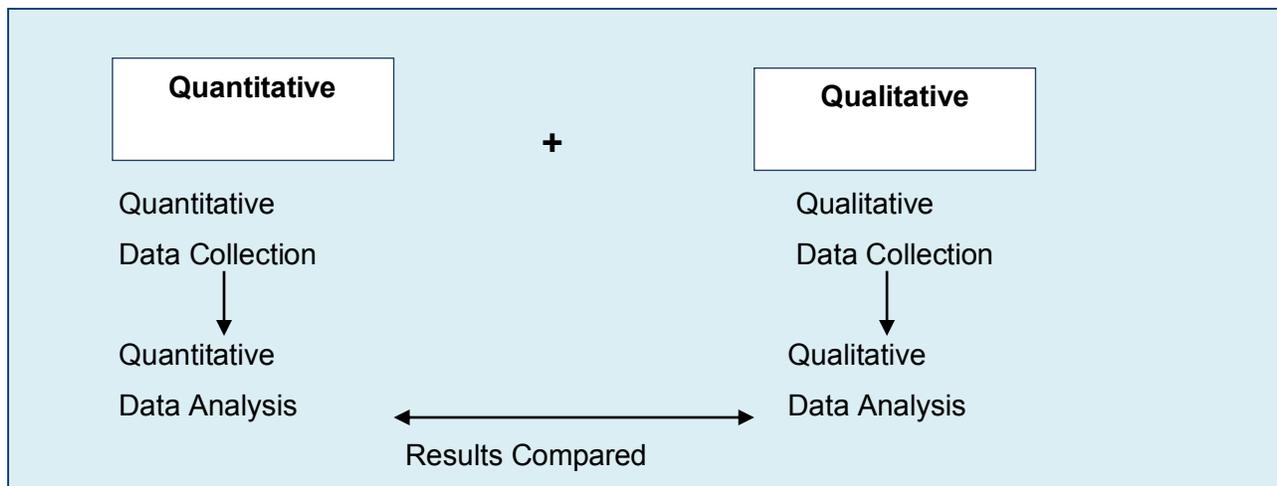


Figure 5.4: Concurrent Triangulation Strategy

Source: Adapted from Terrell (2012:267)

5.6.5 *Concurrent nested strategy*

Nested or embedded designs are not distinguished by the concurrent or sequential nature of data collection (either is allowed). Rather, one type of data takes a supplemental role to the other (Borrego *et al.*, 2009:58). According to Terrell (2012:269); this strategy is characterised by two data collection methods; one is embedded or nested within the other. Priority is given to the primary data collection approach with less emphasis placed on the nested approach. Data are mixed during the analysis phase. A theoretical perspective may or may not guide the design. The primary purpose of this method is for gaining a broader perspective than could be gained from using only the predominant data collection method. The secondary purpose of using this method is to address different research questions or garner information from different groups or levels within an organisation. Figure 5.5 provides a diagrammatical representation of the concurrent nested strategy.

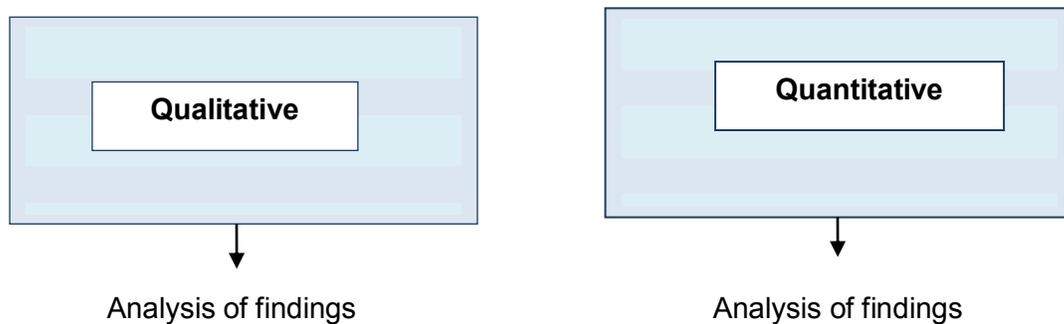


Figure 5.5: Concurrent Nested Strategy

Source: Adapted from Terrell (2012:269)

5.6.7 Concurrent transformative strategy

This method comprises of two concurrent data collection phases as shown in Figure 5.6. Priority may be given to either qualitative or quantitative phase, or there may be an equal priority. Data are integrated during analysis or possibly during interpretation phase. The research method is guided by a specific theoretical perspective (e.g., critical theory, advocacy, participatory research or theoretical framework). Like the sequential model, the purpose is to allow the researcher to employ methods that will best serve their theoretical perspectives (Borrego *et al.*, 2009:59).

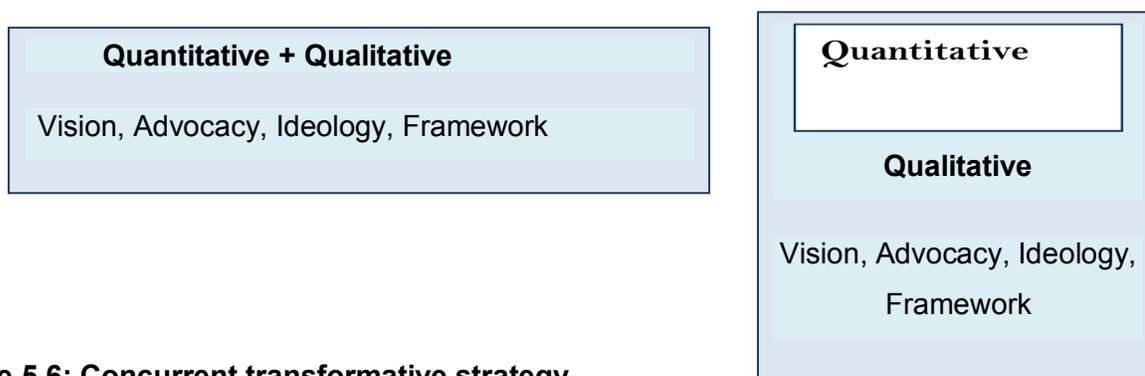


Figure 5.6: Concurrent transformative strategy

Source: Adapted from Terrell (2012, 271)

5.7 The mixed methods research strategy for the study

The researcher chose to conduct the concurrent triangulation strategy as the method was deemed to be the most appropriate considering the characteristics of the study's research objectives and the time limits for data collection. It is argued that the design of a study should be determined above all by its goals and the research questions or objectives involved (Babbie, 2001:438-451). The goal of this study was to assess the key tour guide competences to co-create memorable tourism experiences and the researcher noted that most of the study's objectives could be studied concurrently rather than sequentially. For example, it was felt that the study's research sub-objective 3.3 "To determine education and training interventions required to develop memorable tourism experience competences in tour guides by means of an empirical analysis" and

objective 3.1 “To assess tourists’ and tour guides’ perceptions on the nature of tour guiding experience being offered in Zimbabwe’s tour guiding sector by means of an empirical analysis” could be researched separately in parallel with the findings being integrated at the discussion stage and with the conclusions being drawn.

Therefore as the area of study is relatively new and heavily understudied (Bharwani & Jauhari, 2013:823-843; Kim *et al.*, 2012:12-25; Tung & Ritchie, 2011:1367) the researcher decided to use the concurrent triangulation strategy as supported by Otto and Ritchie (1996:168) who concluded that “the best measurement of service experiences employ both quantitative and qualitative components” as the mixed-method approach yields richer data.

5.8 The qualitative method

The qualitative method is generally regarded to be effective at being able to deeply pry into “the deeper meanings people attribute to tourism and tourism experiences” (Jennings, 2001:55) and thus was considered by the researcher.

The qualitative method is defined by Van Maanen (1983:9) as “an array of interpretative techniques which seek to describe, decode, translate and otherwise come to terms with the meaning, not the frequency of certain more or less naturally occurring phenomena”. It provides in-depth, non-numeric information and is mainly descriptive. Qualitative research mostly focuses on the collection of detailed amounts of primary data from relatively small samples of subjects by asking questions or observing behaviour (Hair, Bush & Ortinau, 2000:216). In this method, researchers normally use open-ended questions that allow for in-depth probing of the subject’s initial responses or specific observational techniques that allow for analysis of behaviour.

According to McDaniel and Gates (2001:109) qualitative research is usually much cheaper than quantitative research (see section 5.9 for an explanation and definition); which makes it a popular option to consider. McDaniel and Gates (2001:110) go on further to observe that qualitative research can also improve the efficiency of

quantitative research by combining quantitative and qualitative research into a single study or series of studies.

A common weakness of the qualitative research method is that it does not necessarily represent the population that is of interest to the researcher. The researcher's ability to generalise qualitative data into larger segments is extremely limited since the information is non-structured and the sample sizes are small (McDaniel & Gates 2001:216).

The most common forms of data collection for the purpose of qualitative studies are personal interviews (in-depth or one-on-one interviews); observation and focus groups. The researcher chose to use interviews as the prime method of data collection for the qualitative strand of the study.

5.8.1 Interviews

The qualitative phase of the research design applied interviews for data collection. Kvale (1996:14) regarded interviews as "an interchange of views between two or more people on a topic of mutual interest, sees the centrality of human interaction for knowledge production, and emphasises the social situatedness of research data. Bryman (2007:8-22) asserts that the interview is the most widely employed qualitative technique because they are largely flexible in nature in comparison to that of observation that is the other main method of qualitative research. It is also notable that while interviews are time-consuming (constructing, recording and transcribing); they are not so demanding as compared with observational or other ethnographic techniques (Bryman, 2007:8-22). Interviews can, therefore, be regarded to be one of the most cost-effective methods of qualitative research. The author, therefore, chose the interviews as the data collection method for the qualitative phase of the study on the basis of the cited reasons.

Having provided a general background on the interview method, it is now important for the author to indicate the specific type of interview adopted in the study to ensure that

the research objectives would be met. Some of the study's objectives were to do with assessing tourists' and tour guides' perceptions on the nature of tour guiding experience being offered in Zimbabwe's tour guiding sector by means of an empirical analysis, examining the performance of tour guides on the identified memorable tourism experience competences by means of an empirical analysis and to determine education and training interventions required to develop memorable tourism experience competences in tour guides by means of an empirical analysis.

5.8.1.2 *The study's interview type*

The semi-structured interviewing technique was adopted for use in the study mostly because of its flexible nature as compared to the other interviewing methods (see Table 5.1).

Table 5.1: Interview types

Type	Method	Description
Structured/ standardised interview	Use of interview schedule is offering a range of questions that are often closed, pre-coded with fixed choices.	Structured interviews are formal and are described by Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill (2003) as incorporating the use of a predetermined questionnaire, which is set and standard; it may even include pre-coded answers. Structured interviews include a high degree of formality and are rigid in structure (Robson, 1997).
Semi- structured interview	Use of an interview guide, where questions can be varied in wording and position. Also further questions may be added and interviewees are encouraged to answer the questions freely.	The semi-structured interview allows for questions that are non-directive and allows the respondents to relate to the topic in their way. Semi-structured interviews are outlined by Robson (1993) as the process where the interviewer has a set of predetermined questions but is free to modify the order based on what the interviewer deems appropriate in the context of the conversation. Semi-structured interviews also allow the interviewer to

		leave out certain questions, change the way questions are worded, give explanations and include additional questions if deemed suitable (Robson, 1993).
Unstructured Interview (has also been referred to as intensive/ qualitative)	The interviewer has only a list of topics to be covered and the style of asking questions about these topics may vary between interviews.	Unstructured interviews are informal by nature. According to Saunders <i>et al.</i> (2003); these interviews are used to explore an in-depth area in which the researcher has a specific interest. However there are some disadvantages to this approach; <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - One weakness of the informal, conversational interview is that it takes more time to gather required data. - Is more susceptible to leading questions and biases. - Greater interview skills are required (rapid insights, formulation of questions on the spot). - Data is difficult to collate and to analyse. - Different questions and different answers in each interview makes it difficult to analyse and collate themes (Patton, 2002)
In-depth Interview: Similar in nature, to that of a qualitative interview but can refer to both semi-structured and unstructured forms of interviewing.		
Focused Interview: This form of interview involves open questioning regarding a specific situation or event that is relevant to the interviewee and of interest to the interviewer.		
Focus Group /Group Interview: Similar to that of a focused interview, however, it involves a group of participants and is also concerned with the dynamics of the group behaviour distinct to that of an individual interview. Regarding a group interview, topics may not be focused and are quite often unrelated.		

Source: Adapted from Matthews (2009:104)

Semi-structured interviews are defined as the type of interviews where a set of questions are established in advance, but interviewers are free to modify the question order, or leave out questions that seem inappropriate with a particular interviewee, or

include additional questions (Matthews, 2009:121). “It could be argued that the semi-structured interview is the most important way of conducting a research interview because of its flexibility balanced by structure and the quality of the data so obtained” (Gillham, 2005:70). A semi-structured interviewing style is therefore recommended in studies similar to the current one in which researchers would seek to explore subjective elements such as tourists’ experiences (Wilson, 2006:39). This is because they provide an invaluable flexibility to tourism researchers that can be regarded as an asset since it gives the chance to react to individual circumstances and, as such, extremely rich information can be collected” (Kumar, 1996:109). The semi-structured interview design was conducted using open-ended and generalist questions to allow for some themes to emerge more importantly from respondents themselves (Wilson, 2006:39). (See Appendix 2 for the copy of the semi-structured interview schedule for the tour guides).

5.8.2 Sampling

Mixed methods research sampling strategies involve the selection of units or cases for a research study using both probability sampling (to increase external validity) and purposive sampling strategies (to increase transferability) (Teddlie & Yu, 2007:78). During the qualitative phase, the research utilised a combination of purposive and snowball sampling techniques to tap data from the supply side of Zimbabwe’s tour guiding sector. The less time demanding sampling techniques chosen by the researcher were meant to counteract the time consuming character of interview methods.

Maxwell (1997:87) defined purposive sampling as a type of sampling in which, “particular settings, persons, or events are deliberately selected for the important information they can provide that cannot be gotten as well from other choices”. This definition is also supported by Teddlie and Yu (2007:77) who describes it as selecting units (e.g., individuals, groups of individuals, institutions) based on specific purposes associated with answering a research study’s questions. Purposive sampling is recommended by Strauus and Corbin (as cited in Nyahunzvi & Njerekai, 2013:4) for

studies of this nature where some subjects have intimate knowledge and experience of the phenomenon under investigation than others.

Tour guides were chosen for the interviews using a mix of the two above mentioned sampling techniques. The researcher obtained a contact list for the registered tour guides in Zimbabwe from ZTA which is the training and licensing authority for tour guides in Zimbabwe. It was noted from the list that at least ninety percent (90%) of the registered tour guides in Zimbabwe are based in the Victoria Falls region. This observation, therefore influenced the geographic delimitation of the study as it was felt to be more logical and cost effective to thus situate the study in this region. Tour guides were then purposively booked for the interviews using telephone calls. The snowball technique was mostly applied for getting the field guides who were somewhat difficult to locate. The researcher was not successful in securing the professional (field) guides contact list from the ZNPWMA/ZPGHA, save only for the fact that the ZPGHA had delivered a notice to their membership, encouraging those willing to participate in the interviews to contact the researcher. Thus, the researcher applied the snowball technique to tap into this class of guides. Under the snowball technique, the surveyed tour/field guides were thus asked to provide contact information for up to three other tour guides whom they thought would be interested in the interviews. The advantages of using this snowball sampling technique included penetration into a random population that was difficult to access and avoidance of researcher's selection bias and easiness of gathering data (Jackson *et al.*, 1996:798-810).

5.8.3 Sample size

According to Patton (2002:244) "there are no rules for sample size in qualitative enquiry". As Patton (2002:244) noted, qualitative sampling is more concerned with information richness and typically focuses on relatively small samples or even a single case, purposively selected. The researcher was therefore guided by the principle of saturation in determining the sample size for the qualitative phase of the study. Saturation is a term used to describe the point when one has had the range of ideas

and is not getting new information (Krueger & Casey, 2000:26). Saturation of information is an important sample size determinant in qualitative research (e.g., Glaser & Strauss, 1967:62; Corbin & Strauss, 2008:325). New information gained from conducting another interview session typically decreases as more sessions are held (Teddlie & Yu, 2007:87) and a rule of thumb is for the researcher to determine if he or she has not reached saturation level and should after that put a ceiling on the sample size. The semi-structured interviews were therefore conducted until data saturation occurred. Thus data saturation for the study was noted to have been reached on the 46th interview. This sample size is comparable to a number of other studies of experiences or autobiographical memories utilising interviews, for example Falk and Dierking (1990:94-104) with 12 respondents and McIntosh and Siggs (2005:74-81) with 42 respondents. Thus, the obtained sample size was deemed sufficient for the development of key themes required.

5.8.4 *Qualitative data collection procedures*

The source of data for this qualitative phase of the study consisted of audio-recorded semi-structured interviews. This means that when conducting the interviews, a recording device was used to capture all comments. This device was deemed essential as the researcher would not possibly write fast enough to record everything that was said by the participants.

Data were collected from the subjects in the supply side of the tour guiding sector namely comprising of tour guides and field guides. The study also included field guides as they constitute an important class of guides that are also operating in Zimbabwe and also have a synonymous role with the conventional tour guides in the co-creation of memorable tourism experiences. All the semi-structured interviews were conducted by the researcher with the aid of a research assistant. For consistency in the interview processes and procedures, the researcher coached the research assistant on how the interviews would be conducted. In some instances the research assistant was made to learn by observation as the researcher was practically conducting the interviews with

the guides. For the formally employed guides, the researcher also sought the permission of the respective tour operating organisations to conduct the interviews with their guides (See Appendix 3 for the research confirmation letters) The interviews were thus either administered on the tour operating company premises or in public places (for the free-lance guides) to ensure the safety and comfort of respondents. The approximate length of time required by respondents was agreed with the respondents before the beginning of the interview and averagely the interviews lasted for 25 to 30 minutes per interviewee. Data collection would only proceed after getting the consent of the interviewee and the interview site authorities that is for example, management of the targeted tour operating companies.

Since the study dealt with memory based issues, the participants were not emailed with the interview schedule prior to the interview.

To aid the flow of the interview before each interview commenced, the interviewer observed the following steps that also to some extent addressed the ethical issues in data collection:

1. The introduction of the researcher from the North-West University (See Appendices 3 & 4). Participants were offered a research introductory letter before data collection guaranteeing that the study results are being used for academic purposes only. The letter also communicated the researcher's name, email and home postal to enable interviewees the possibility to regain contact with the researcher should they so wish).
2. A description of the research project and its goal.
3. Obtaining the agreement to ask a set of questions for example, through verbal consent by interviewees. Interviewees were informed that all participation was voluntary and that they could willingly withdraw their comments from the research at any time.

4. Assuring the interviewee of confidentiality and anonymity. The research instruments did not include areas where respondents would be asked to supply their names or contact details.

The interviewer ensured that the questions were asked in a specific order as an answer to a previous question could affect the response of the next (Tung & Ritchie, 2011:1376). For example, during the beginning stages of the interviews, interviewees were asked to provide in detail an account of their memorable tour guiding experience in one of their previous trips.

Next, they were invited to identify the role they played as well as the competences they applied to make the tourists' experience memorable. Tung and Ritchie (2011:1376) argue that if respondents are requested to define a memorable experience first and then to describe their memory of it, their recollections may be biased to fit the definition they just provided. In addition to the open-ended questions, respondents were also be asked to provide general demographic information (e.g. age, gender, nationality and marital status).

5.8.5 Qualitative data analysis

The thematic content analysis was carried out in the semi-structured interviews Creswell's six steps of analysing and interpreting data were employed (Creswell, 2009:185-189). According to Braun and Clarke (2006:79) thematic content analysis is a method used for 'identifying, analysing, and reporting patterns (themes) within the data'. Thematic analysis was used in this study as it is the most widely used qualitative approach to analysing interviews (Jugder, 2016:2) and 'can produce an insightful analysis that answers particular research questions' (Braun and Clarke, 2006:97). The thematic content analysis also allows for results to be shaped from respondents themselves, which is necessary for inductive analysis (Wilson, 2006:37).

Since a recording device was used during data collection, the first step in data analysis was comprised of a process called transcribing, which involved the researcher actively

listening to the recorded data and typing every single word heard into an MS Word document (Matthews, 2009:133). This was done individually for each of the interviews. The process of transcribing allowed the researcher to become more familiar with the main issues that arose (Matthews, 2009:133). All of the transcribed data were then organised and stored into a suitable format for thematic analysis. The open coding technique was then used.

According to Creswell's (2009:185-189) six steps of analysing and interpreting data, Step 1 entails organising and preparing the data while Step 2 involves reading through all the data. Step 3 represents the beginning of a detailed data analysis with a coding process while Step 4 entails the application of the coding process to generate a description of the setting or people as well as the groups or themes for analysis. In Step 5, one advances to how the description and themes will be presented in the qualitative narrative and Step 6 involves making meaning out of the data, which is data interpretation.

5.9 The quantitative method

Quantitative research involves data collection methods that emphasise the use of formalised, standard, structured questioning practices in which the response options have been predetermined by the researcher and administered to significantly large numbers of respondents (Hair *et al.*, 2000:661). Aliaga and Gunderson (2002:11) corroborate the preceding views of Hair *et al.* (2000:661) by defining quantitative research as "explaining phenomena by collecting numerical data that are analysed by mathematical based methods". It examines the relationships among variables, the statistical variables can be measured by means of instruments and numbers can be analysed statistically. Quantitative data not necessarily has to be numeric, but, text or words could also be counted, summarised and concluded in the findings.

Quantitative research methods are more directly related to descriptive and causal research designs as compared to the qualitative methods which are more in the framework of exploratory designs. The success of the researcher in collecting primary

data is largely a function of how he/she will correctly design and administer the survey instrument than of the communication and interpretive skills of an interviewer or observer as experienced in the qualitative research method. The key purpose of quantitative research is to provide specific facts that decision makers can use to make accurate predictions and gain meaningful insights or verify and validate existing relationships. In this regard, researchers should therefore be trained in construct development, scale measurement, questionnaire design, sampling and statistical data analysis (Hair *et al.*, 2000:216) and must also have the ability to translate numerical data structures into meaningful narrative information. The most popular quantitative technique is the survey, which is normally conducted, where a broad overview of a market is required. Surveys can be administered in the field through face to face observation or the questionnaire methods (McGown, 1979:65). The study employed the survey questionnaire. The advantage of surveys is that they usually take lesser time for the respondents to complete them as they most often require choosing between several responses rather than long verbal responses involved in qualitative research.

5.9.1 Questionnaire development

A questionnaire is defined as a document containing questions and other types of items designed to solicit information appropriate to analysis (Babbie, 1990:377). The study's questionnaire was constructed using themes that emerged from the literature review and expert opinion (research supervisors) to ensure the comprehensiveness of each item.

Determining whether a questionnaire is well designed can be a difficult issue. However, there are three criteria against which to appraise the effectiveness of a questionnaire that include reliability, validity and representativeness (Matthews, 2009:120). Other criteria include the length, layout and wording (Dillman & Christian, 2005:35). The researcher ensured that the above criteria are adhered to before the questionnaire was finalised, through the process of expert review (by research supervisors) and pilot testing. In the design of questionnaires, researchers consider two primary issues

namely whether the questions asked in the questionnaire adequately cover the various aspects of the research problem(s) and if they do so with sufficient detail (Bryman, 2007:8-22). Consequently, four interrelated themes therefore need to be taken into consideration when designing a questionnaire so as to ensure that these two issues are addressed. These themes include questionnaire focus, questionnaire phraseology, the form of response and lastly question sequencing and overall presentation (Matthews, 2009:118).

Asking sets of questions in a manner that is intelligible to respondents is another important skill that researchers should incorporate in questionnaire design and, in addition, it is crucial that the respondents provide data in a form that is suitable for the researcher to apply statistical techniques (Matthews, 2009:117). Burgess (2001:7) argues that questionnaires that have a natural and logical order which when combined with the good overall presentation can improve the response rate. Thus, the design of the questionnaire took cognisance of the identified issues. For example, the questionnaire aimed to avoid respondent fatigue by not being excessively long (Bryman, 2007:8-22) and followed a simple format to ensure questions are not overlooked. There were more closed questions as compared to open-ended questions (Tourangeau, Rips & Rasinski, 2000:26-40) and questions were pre-coded to ensure efficient computer analysis of results. Most of the closed questions were applied using the Likert scale, so called after Mr Rensis Likert who devised them in 1932 (Matthews, 2009:124).

Using a closed question approach has advantages for both the researcher and the respondent. According to (Matthews, 2009:124) the respondent applies less effort in answering the question in so far as it is less time consuming and they do not have to articulate lengthy answers to open questions. Closed questions also enhance the comparability of answers among respondents. However, there are disadvantages to closed questions in so far as the respondent has to make a forced choice answer thus losing the spontaneity in respondents' answers. It is also difficult to establish a mutually exclusive and exhaustive set of categories in which respondents can place themselves, causing issues with insufficient or missing data (Bryman, 2007:8-22).

The questionnaire items were checked regarding language, simplicity and readability to avoid the use of ambiguous, double-barrelled (one question that asks two things) or biased items that the respondents could fail to relate to (Matthews, 2009:124). Efforts were also made to ensure that the language used would not be too “academic” in nature. Thus, the author strove to stick to the recommended rules when designing questions as outlined by Bryman (2007:8-22) which include avoiding:

- Long questions; avoid very general questions (these can lack a frame of reference).
- Leading questions.
- Questions that include negatives (aim to ask questions in a positive format as negative terms such as “Not”, can be missed).
- Terms that are too technical.

The researcher also paid particular attention to the time required for completion of the questionnaire as participants were mostly transitory tourists who by their very nature are time constrained. In the same measure, some of the tour guides who were surveyed were at work which meant the questionnaire length had to be time conscious as well.

Bryman and Bell (2007:244) suggest that full and comprehensive explanation of the research is likely to encourage people to participate and that the appearance of the questionnaire and the cover letter are also important factors for consideration. Thus, a cover letter was attached to each questionnaire and distributed as a means of introduction, encouragement and an effort to reduce the non-response rate. As already been observed, the appearance of the questionnaire was regarded to be an important issue. The questionnaire was sectioned to ensure that the overall appearance of the document would be as clear and user-friendly as possible. All questions were in bold with clear instructions on how to respond. All the aforementioned questionnaire design strategies are meant to increase the response rate, content validity and to gain greater levels of information. These questionnaire design observations, therefore, necessitated

pre-test of the research instrument so as to ensure that the issues mentioned above are appropriately addressed.

5.9.2 Pre-testing the questionnaire

The survey instrument was piloted to ensure that the instrument is adequately developed, measures the concepts intended and minimises the “questionnaire effect” of measurement errors (Sthapit, 2013:55). Pilot surveys are small-scale “trial runs” of a larger survey and it is always advisable to carry out one or more pilot surveys before embarking on the main data collection exercise (Sthapit, 2013:55). The pilot is used to test all aspects of the survey, not just question wording and it should not confine to one’s supervisor and few fellow friends for it to be effective (Sthapit, 2013:55).

The survey instrument was thus piloted once due to time and budgetary limitations. The questionnaire was pre-tested with a sample of respondents (N=40) to ensure that all the questions were clear and understandable and to uncover any potential problems . A final version of the questionnaire was developed after factoring in the feedback from the pre-test sample. According to Rea and Parker (cited by Woosnam, 2008:113), a pilot study must have at least 40 participants to ensure greater reliability of findings.

5.9.3 Reliability and validity

Reliability refers to the extent to which results are consistent over time and an accurate representation of the total population under study. Bryman and Bell (2007:163) define reliability as referring to “the consistency of a measure of a concept’. Reliability analysis is a necessary contributor for data accuracy and consistency (Cooper & Schindler 2014:260). Bryman and Bell (2007:163) however go on further to point out that reliability includes three prominent factors to be considered namely stability, internal reliability and inter-observer consistency. Easterby-Smith, Thorpe and Lowe (2002:53) state that by posing the following questions one could assess reliability:

1. Will the measures yield the same results on other occasions?

2. Will similar observations be reached by other observers?
3. Is there transparency in how sense was made from the raw data?

Quantitative research is principally concerned with the issue of reliability (Matthews, 2009:92). Appropriate design and implementation of the specific data collection methods can reduce the threat to reliability. Reliability refers to whether or not the indicators that make up the scale or index are consistent. This can be measured using Cronbach alpha. Cronbach alpha is a measure of internal reliability or consistency of items in an instrument scale or index (Vogt, 2005:206-242). Cronbach's alpha was used to inspect the internal consistency of test items. According to Nunnally (as cited in Rothbard & Edwards, 2003:713), the Cronbach's alpha value should be > 0.7 to be considered acceptable.

The study thus made efforts to ensure that measures used in the construction of the questionnaire are consistent in this regard. Inter-observer consistency arises from cases where more than one observer is involved, resulting in the possibility of lack of consistency in their decisions (Matthews, 2009:93). This form of reliability does not concern this particular research project as most of the primary data collection was done by the author. However for questionnaires that were distributed to tourists by the tour leaders or the hotel guest relations officers on behalf of the researcher, best efforts were made by the researcher to educate the respective assistants on the recommended data collection procedures. Also, the researcher did his best to inform tour guides that the survey intended to evaluate competences of tour guides in Zimbabwe in general rather than the competences of them personally. Therefore, the tour guides who would administer the questionnaires to their clients would not need to worry that tourists' answers could influence their personal image and/or performance evaluation in their respective organisations. This clarification was necessary so as to avoid their possible attempt to manipulate the survey process and possibly bias the results (Chang, 2014:229; Leclerc & Martin, 2004:187; Rabolic, 2011:154). Please find Appendix 4 for information on the organisations that administered the survey instrument on behalf of the researcher.

Validity is defined by the extent to which any measuring instrument measures what it is intended to measure (Thatcher, 2010:5). In other words, validity concerns the relationship between what is being measured and nature and use to which the measurement is being applied (Thatcher, 2010:5). Saunders *et al.* (2003:57) observe that validity is concerned with the integrity of the findings; whether the findings are really about what they appear to be about “simply put, validity refers to whether or not the tool devised to measure a certain concept actually measured that concept” (Bryman & Bell, 2007:163). There are three different types of validity: 1. Content validity also called “face validity”, 2. Construct validity and 3. Criterion-related validity also called “Predictive Validity” (Thatcher, 2010:5).

Face validity simply means the validity at face value (Parsian & Dunning, 2009:3). It is the extent to which the measuring instrument provides adequate coverage of the investigative questions guiding the study (Cooper & Schindler, 2014:257). Assessing face validity might involve simply showing the survey to use a panel of persons to judge how well the instrument meets the standards. The panel independently assesses the test items for an instrument as essential, useful but not essential, or not necessary (Cooper & Schindler, 2014:258). In this study, face validity was done by inviting experts in the area (research supervisors) to determine whether or not at face value “the measure seems to reflect the concept concerned” (i.e. be valid). Thus, study experts (research supervisors) were asked to review the questionnaire to confirm if the instrument represents a good measure of key tour guide competences to co-create memorable tourism experience.

Construct validity of the research instrument was provided by the results of exploratory factor analysis (EFA) using SPSS and confirmatory factor analysis in Chapter six (6).

5.9.4 Tourists' survey questionnaire

The questionnaire thus comprised of the following sections (See Appendix 1).

- An introductory letter indicating the interviewer's research identity and purpose of the research to ensure that the respondents participate willingly.
- **Section A** - The demographic section, in which the respondent had to complete their demographic characteristics such as age, gender, marital status, status of employment, annual income, highest qualification, work experience, nationality and country of origin.
- **Sections B, C, D and E** constituted the major part of the questionnaire. For example, Section B was based on the study's research sub-objective 3.1 and involved asking respondents to assess the nature of experiences encountered in Zimbabwe's tour guiding industry.
- **Section C**, based on the study's research objective 3.2, required tourists to rate on a five (5) point Likert scale from 1 representing Extremely Not Important to 5 representing Extremely Important, the importance of identified Tour Guide competences in general.
- **Section D**, based on sub-objective number 3.4, requested respondents to evaluate the performance of tour guides against the identified memorable tourism experience competences also on a five (5) point Likert scale where 1 = Extremely Poor and 5 = Extremely Good.
- **Section E**, based on sub-objective 3.3, requested respondents to assess the extent to which particular tour guide competences facilitated the development of their memorable tourism experiences on a five (5) point Likert scale where 1 = strongly disagree and 5 = strongly agree.

5.9.5 Population of study

The survey targeted the population of tourists departing the Victoria Falls International Airport, the country's main tourism gateway; to ensure that the tourists may correctly answer questions dealing with the assessment of their travel experiences (Leclerc & Martin, 2004:186). These departing tourists registered a population size of 301239 tourists during the year 2012 (see Table 5.2) and the sample size was therefore, calculated based on that total.

Table 5.2: Top three most visited attractions in Zimbabwe

Station	Visitor numbers		Totals
	Local	International	
Hwange Main camp	17921	14 562	32483
Zambezi National Park	20769	50 211	70980
Victoria Falls Rainforest	60796	136 980	197776
TOTAL	99486	201753	301239

Source: Adapted from the ZTA Tourism Trends and Statistics Report (2012)

5.9.6 Sampling

The researcher applied probability sampling techniques for the quantitative phase of the study because they are by their nature primarily used in quantitatively oriented studies (Teddlie & Yu, 2007:77). Probability sampling techniques involve “selecting a relatively large number of units from a population, or from specific sub-groups (strata) of a population, in a random manner where the probability of inclusion of every member of the population is determinable” (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2003:713). Five main types of random sampling exist which are simple random, systematic sampling, stratified sampling, cluster sampling and double sampling (Cooper & Schindler, 2014:349-350). This study used simple random sampling technique during the administration of the survey questionnaire.

5.9.7 Sample size for the quantitative method

The target sample size for the demand side survey questionnaire is calculated at 384 tourists out of a population of 301239 (ZTA, 2012:49) using the Krejcie and Morgan (1970:607-610) formula where:

$$n = \frac{X^2 * N * P * (1 - P)}{ME^2 * (N - 1) + (X^2 * P * (1 - P))}$$

$$(ME^2 * (N - 1) + (X^2 * P * (1 - P))).$$

Where:

n = required sample size.

X^2 = the table value of chi-square for 1 degree of freedom at the desired confidence level (3.841).

N = the population size.

P = the population proportion (assumed to be .50 since this would provide the maximum sample size).

ME_2 = the desired margin of error of 5%

The tourist sample size of 384 is also corroborated by Comfrey and Lee (1992:217) who suggest that “the adequacy of sample size might be evaluated very roughly on the following scale: 50 – very poor; 100 – poor; 200 – fair; 300 – good; 500 – very good”. Thus, as attested by their observations, the study’s target sample size of 384 is considered to be good by the researcher.

5.9.8 Quantitative data collection procedures

Before carrying out the tourists surveys, the researcher had to first seek permission from the airport authorities (the Civil Aviation Authority of Zimbabwe management) where the bulk of the survey was meant to take place. Having been granted permission to conduct research (see Appendix 5) the researcher personally distributed and collected the questionnaires from tourists who were leaving Zimbabwe through the Victoria Falls International Airport, the country’s main tourism gateway. The tourists were approached while they were seated in the departure lounge whilst waiting for their flights. Most of the tourists were very much willing to participate in the survey because they had on average, from one to two hours waiting time for their flights. Domestic tourists were also surveyed in the departure lounge of the domestic flights terminal.

To widen the target population, the researcher also sought permission to administer the survey at the relevant accommodation establishments as well as at some tour companies. Having secured their consent the researcher left some questionnaires to these establishments for administration to tourists on behalf of the researcher. Thus in some instances, questionnaires were handed to tourists and collected by tour coordinators or hotel guest relations officers at appropriate times at the end of tour arrangements (Min, 2012:159; Zhang & Chow, 2004:84).

5.9.9 Data analysis

The final stage of the quantitative survey method was concerned with the analysis of the data gathered from the questionnaire. For this phase, data were analysed using the statistical software package SPSS (Statistical Package for the Social Sciences) version 23 with Amos. Research has indicated that incongruous data analysis can seriously compromise statistical results, leading to biased findings and incorrect results (Matthews, 2009:127). The author, therefore, ensured that data is accurately coded, entered and cleaned, emphasising the correct treatment of missing values (Matthews, 2009:127). SPSS is one of the world's leaders in e-Intelligence software and services, enabling its visitors to turn raw data into usable knowledge. By using SPSS, a factor analysis, analysis of Variance (ANOVA); regression analysis were resultantly carried out. A brief description of each analysis used is given in the next section.

5.9.9.1 ANOVA analysis (*Analysis of Variance*)

The research used the ANOVA analysis method. Eiselen, Uys & Potgieter (2005:119) postulate that the purpose of Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) is to test whether there is a statistically significant difference in the population means of more than two groups (Eiselen *et al.*, 2005:119). ANOVA analysis was carried out to determine variances between nationality groups, age groups and other interesting segments on the key tour guide competences to co-create memorable tourism experiences. The Anova analysis were also done to test the relative validity of the regression model.

5.9.9.2 *Exploratory factor analysis*

Exploratory factor analysis (EFA) was conducted during data analysis for two main reasons: 1) to reduce the number of scale items so that the remaining items maximise the explained variance in the scale and maximise the scale's reliability (Netemeyer, Bearden & Sharma, 2003:206) and 2) To identify the underlying dimensions associated with the tour guide competences to co-create memorable tourist experience.

5.9.9.3 *Regression analysis*

Regression analysis is a method of data analysis that may be appropriate whenever a quantitative variable (the dependent or criterion variable) is to be examined in relationship to any other factors (expressed as independent or predictor variables). (Sthapit, 2013:67). Regression analysis was carried out to test the impact of specific tour guide competences such as “emotional intelligence” on the development of memorable tourism experiences. Through the regression analysis, it was also possible to explore the relationship between the identified tour guide competences to co create memorable tourism experiences.

5.10 Chapter summary

This chapter has looked at the philosophical and methodological dimensions of the study together with issues regarding sampling, instrumentation, data collection and methods of data analysis. It has been noted that the study adopted a pragmatic stance to philosophy characterised by the use of a concurrent mixed-methods approach (QUAN + QUAL). The study applied the mixed method design as the research area is heavily under-researched was primarily based on semi-structured interviews and structured questionnaires as the research instruments. The chapter has also provided the background of mixed methods, rationales for adopting mixed methods, the scale development procedures, sampling techniques, data collection procedures and data analysis methods that were used for both qualitative and quantitative stages of the mixed methods study. The next chapter seeks to assess tourists' perceptions on the

nature of tour guiding experience being offered in Zimbabwe's Tour Guiding sector using an empirical analysis.

CHAPTER 6: QUANTITATIVE RESULTS

6.1 Introduction

The purpose of this chapter is to present, analyse and interpret the empirical findings from the quantitative phase of the survey. The study used SPSS Statistics v23 and SPSS Amos v 23 to analyse data. Three analysis tools with the complement of multiple statistical tests were employed for quantitative analyses. These are Decision Tree Analysis (DTA); One-way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) and Multiple Linear Regression. Descriptive statistics used were mainly the mean scores and kurtosis statistics. *t*-tests, chi-square, binomial tests and factor analysis were also applied. Data presentation was aided by the use of, among others, tables, bar graphs, line graphs and pie charts.

6.2 Reliability analysis

The reliability of the instrument used in this research was assessed using Cronbach's alpha statistic. From the scholarly arguments the minimum prescribed Alpha statistic for reliability is usually benchmarked at 0.7 (Nunnally, as cited in Rothbard & Edwards, 2003:713).

From the computation of the alpha statistic, a valid result of 0.98 was observed, based on the 148 key questions, with a corresponding alpha based on standardised items being 0.98. It can be concluded that the research instrument used was very reliable, as it was above the minimum threshold of 0.7. According to Nunnaly (as cited in Rothbard & Edwards, 2003:713) the Cronbach's alpha value should be > 0.7 for the instrument to be considered acceptable. To help explore the relative variability of the responses between respondents and between items, an ANOVA analysis was also computed. The results above, with a *p*-value of 0.00 being less than 0.05, indicate that there was a significant difference in the variation of responses and thus the heterogeneity nature of the responses. The results of the analysis are presented in Table 6.1.

Table 6.1: Reliability analysis

Reliability Statistics		
Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardised Items	N of Items
.98	.98	146

ANOVA						
		Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig
Between People		870.554	22	39.571		
Within People	Between Items	1485.837	145	10.247	13.866	.000
	Residual	2357.533	3190	.739		
	Total	3843.370	3335	1.152		
Total		4713.924	3357	1.404		
Grand Mean = 4.00						

6.3 Response rate

It was also deemed imperative to evaluate the relative response rate of the respondents who participated in this study vis-à-vis those who did not. As such, from a total of 384 questionnaires distributed, 346 were returned. However, from the returned questionnaires, according to the prescriptions of Zikmund, Babin, Carr and Griffin (2013:463); case responses with missing values exceeding 15% should be considered as non-responses. Based on this criterion, 17 cases were removed from the study, with a resultant valid cases being 329. The summary of the respondents is presented in Table 6.2.

Table 6.2: Response rate

Questionnaire response rate					
	Total Distributed	Total Returned	Invalid	Valid	Valid Response Rate
Questionnaires	384	346	17	328	90%

From the analysis, the overall response rate was 90%, which according to Saunders *et al.* (2003:178); is acceptable, as these scholars argue that for large samples, response rates should essentially be greater than 50%. The high response rate to the questionnaire is attributed to the fact that the researcher personally made follow ups to all outstanding questionnaires until they were completed. Good rapport with some of the mediating tour and accommodation operators also played a vital role in getting the questionnaires completed.

6.4 Demographic profile of the respondents

This section presents the demographic data of the respondents that was explored in this research, based on the guidelines of Bryman and Bell (2007:8-22); which emphasise the importance of such an analysis. The main argument lays in the fact that some of these socio-economic factors influence the manner in which the respondents answer and consequently can help shape the outcome of the study. As such, the ones that were considered as significant in this study included country of origin, gender, marital status and age as discussed in the next section.

6.4.1 Country of origin

Results in Figure 6.1 show that the majority of the respondents were from the Americas, constituting 42%. This could be due to the US dollar currency that is being used in Zimbabwe. In the second position is Europe, with a representation of 31%. Africa, Zimbabwe (local); along with Asia-Pacific respondents had relatively similar proportions, being 8%, 9% and 9% respectively. The least proportion of respondents (1%) was from the Middle East.

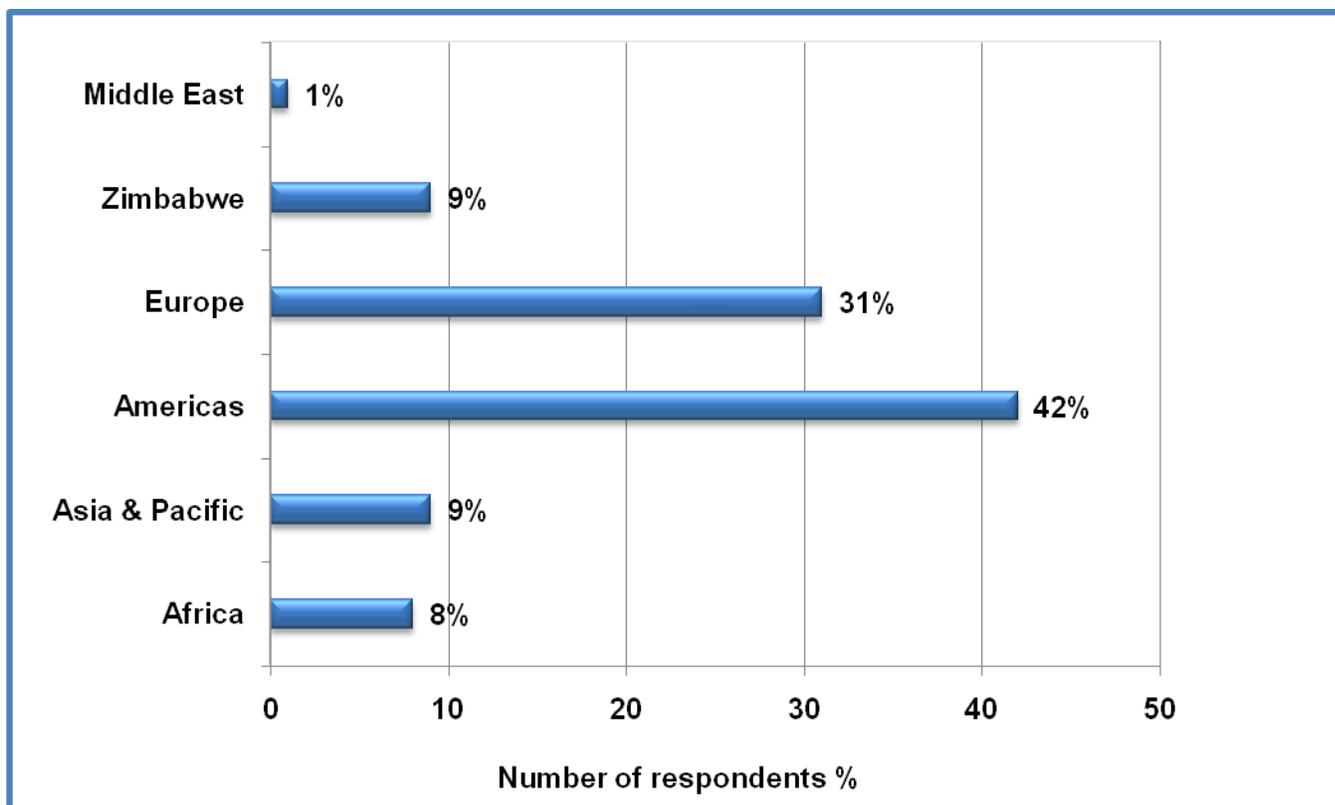


Figure 6.1: Country of origin

The country of origin results in Figure 6.1 however; seem to suggest that Zimbabwe continues to enjoy more visitors' yielding from its traditional source markets of Americas and Europe despite its strained political relations with them. Furthermore, while the Zimbabwe government is deliberately promoting the Look East policy to counter the "slump" in tourist traffic from its traditional markets of Americas and Western Europe it is, however, notable that tourist visitation from the Eastern markets remains subdued. Nonetheless, not to put too fine a salt to the above statistics, this may not necessarily be homogeneous to the visitor proportions. This research, having used a rather representative sample, assumes that the above proportions were representative of the visitor proportions.

6.4.2 Visitor type

The relative proportion of the local respondents vis-à-vis international respondents are presented in Figure 6.2. From the results, 91% of the respondents were international tourists, with only 9% being local tourists. While the Zimbabwe government is “aggressively” promoting domestic tourism, the results are indicative of the fact that domestic tourism remains somewhat subdued with more incentives needed to stimulate more traffic from this market. However the expensive nature of the destination could again be the problem.

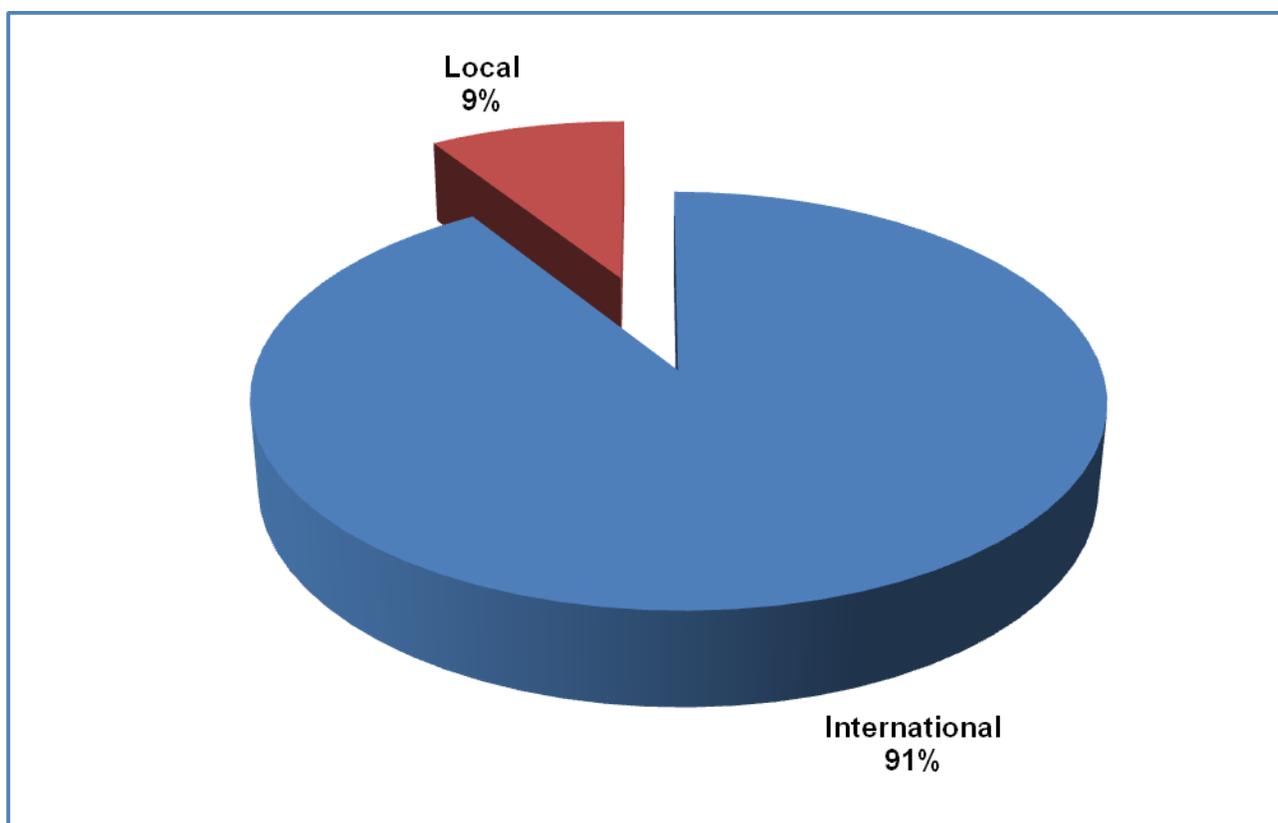


Figure 6.2: Visitor Type

6.4.3 Distribution of gender

The distribution of the gender of respondents is presented in Table 6.3. The results show that there was an equal distribution between male and female respondents; the

difference in proportion being marginal. However, males were relatively more than females, with the former constituting 53%, while the latter constituting 47%. The relative equality of proportions between males and females is justified by the insignificant binomial test in Table 6.3, with a rather insignificant p -value of 0.269, against the benchmarked upper limit of 0.05

Table 6.3: Distribution of gender

Gender	Frequency	Valid Percent
Male	174	53
Female	153	47
Total	327	100
Missing System	2	

Binomial Test

Gender	Category	N	Observed Prop.	Test Prop.	Exact Sig. (2-tailed)	
	Group 1	Female	153	.47	.50	.269
	Group 2	Male	174	.53		
	Total		327	1.00		

From the above table, it can be deduced that there was no gender disparity in the proportions of the respondents. Assuming the sample to be representative of the visitor population, it follows from the results that there is sufficient evidence at the 95% confidence interval to conclude that there are no significant differences in gender proportions.

6.4.4 Distribution by marital status

The dominant category of the marital status of respondents was the married category whose proportion was 66%, whereas the single respondents were 27% (Figure 6.3). Only 7% of the respondents were divorced. The relative dominance of the married

category is rather homogeneous with the respective age ranges of the respondents as explained in the next section.

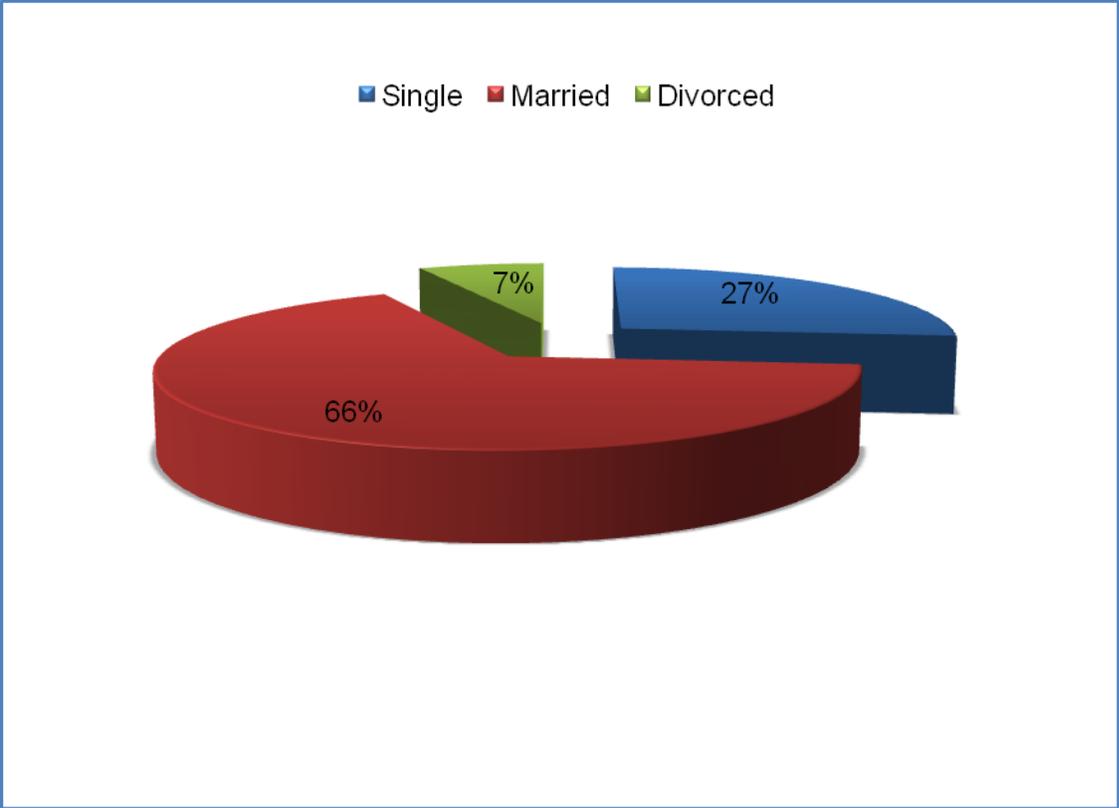


Figure 6.3: Distribution by marital status

6.4.5 Distribution by age

One of the important influences of the research outcome is the respective age of respondents (Zikmund *et al.*, 2013:248). It was, therefore important, to explore this variable. From the analysis, the main age group that was identified by the respondents was the age category 65 years and older, with a frequency of 24%. There was a gradual quasi-linear trend with the respective proportions correlating with the age category. The second significant category was the 60-64-year-old category, with a respective proportion of 13% as shown in Figure 6.4. On the other hand, the least significant category was the 19 years and younger category, whose proportion was merely 4%. The only discrepancy was noted for the 25-29-year-old category, with a significantly

high 10% frequency. This discrepancy could mainly be attributed to the thriving demand for touring by honeymoon seekers, most of who lie within this age category.

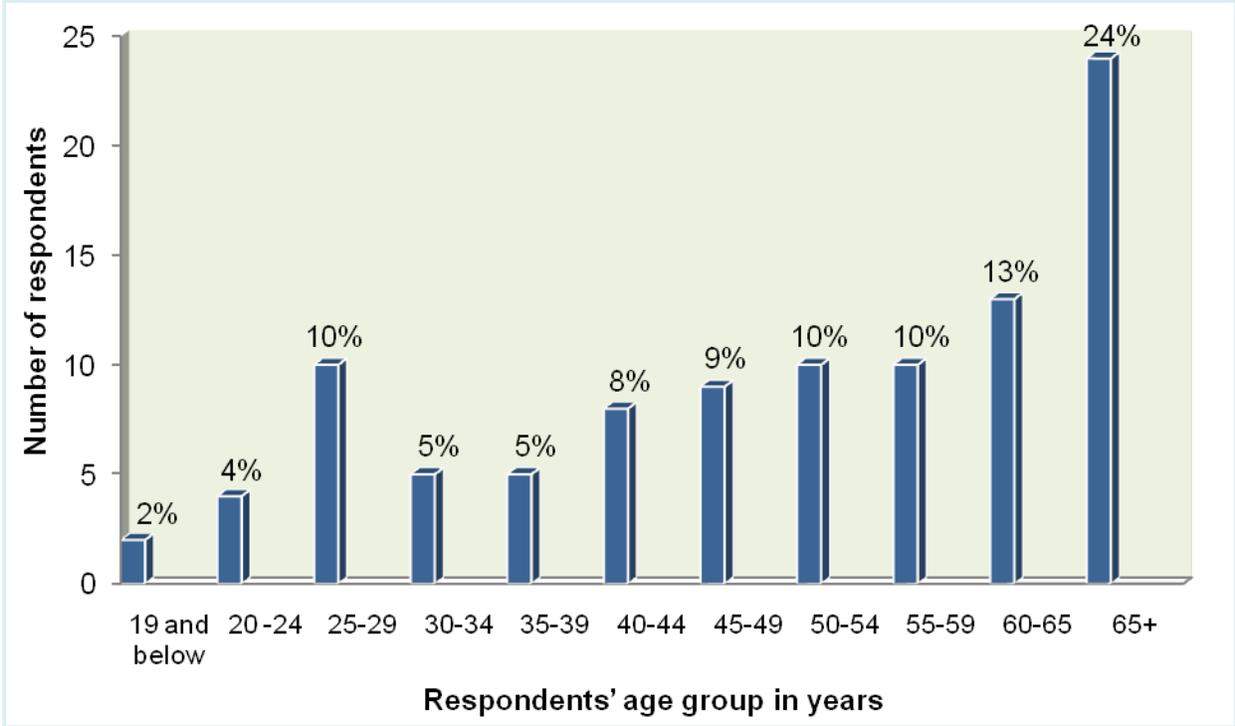


Figure 6.4: Distribution by age

6.4.6 Distribution by level of education

The respondents were further segmented by their levels of education. The respective distributions are presented in Table 6.4.

Table 6.4: Distribution by level of education

Respondents' highest level of education	Frequency	Valid Percent
Secondary or high school	44	13%
Technical/ vocational	42	13%
Undergraduate degree	102	31%
Master's degree	110	34%

PhD	29	9%
Total	327	100%
Missing System	2	
Total	329	

From Table 6.4 it is notable that the most dominant respondents had, at least, an undergraduate degree (31%); while those with a Master's degree were relatively more, being 34%. This constitutes a cumulative total of 65%. The rest of the minority categories had less than an undergraduate degree, with only 9% having a doctorate. It can thus be qualified that the respondents had, by and large, attained a higher level of education.

6.4.7 *Travel partners and motives*

The respondents were further asked whom they had travelled with to the destination under investigation. The majority of the respondents mentioned that they had their spouses accompanying them and these constituted 34%, while those who were accompanied by friends were marginally lower, being 29% in proportion. A small percentage travelled with their families, being 16%. However, the least respondents were those who had travelled alone and these were merely 8% as shown in Figure 6.5.

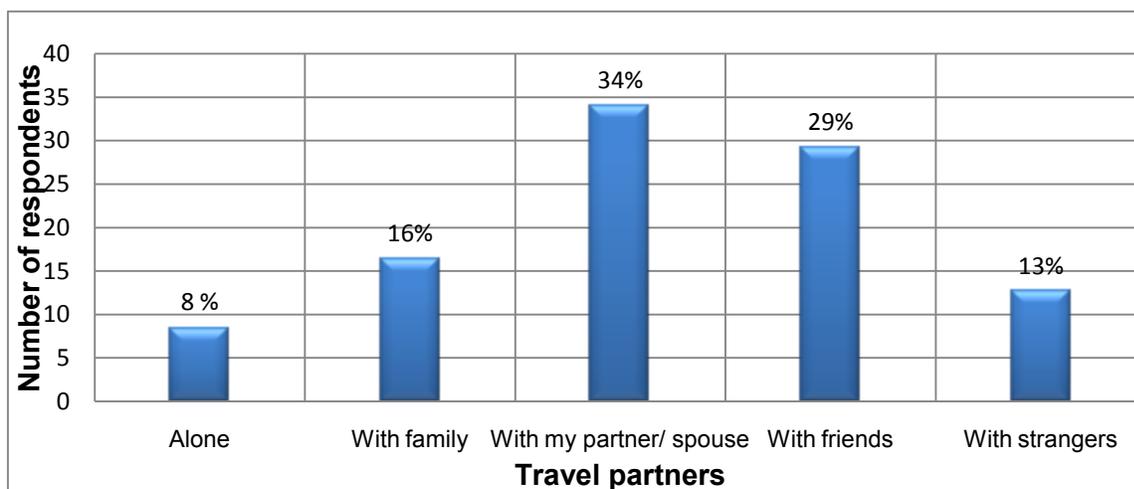


Figure 6.5: Travel partners and motives

However, just knowing whom they had travelled with would not add more value without knowing the main purpose of the travel. Thus, the researcher asked the respondents the nature of their travel. The corresponding results are presented in Table 6.5 and show the prime reason for the visit was purely for pleasure, with a proportion of 76%, with relaxing, having a corresponding proportion of 10%. Other potential reasons such as business were very marginal, being merely 4% of the total responses.

Table 6.5: Purpose of travel

Purpose of travel	Frequency	Valid Percent
Pleasure	249	76%
Family gathering	7	2%
Relaxing	33	10%
Visiting Friends and Relatives	6	2%
Volunteer	6	2%
Business	12	4%
Transit	4	1%
Religion/ Pilgrimage	2	1%
Education and training	7	2%
Total	326	100%
Missing System	3	
Total	329	

However, to further test whether there was a significant relationship between the accompanying persons and the nature of the visit, cross-tabulation of the two variables was done, along with chi-square analysis. The results are presented in Table 6.6.

Table 6.6: Cross tabulation – Accompanying persons/visiting purpose

Whom were you travelling with? * Main purpose of your travel Cross tabulation									
Whom were you travelling with?	Main purpose of your travel								
	Pleasure	Family gathering	Relaxing	Friends and Relatives	Volunteer	Business	Transit	Religion	Education and training
Alone	15	1	2	0	3	3	0	2	1
With family	40	5	5	2	0	0	1	0	0
With my spouse	98	1	8	1	1	0	0	0	0
With friends	62	0	13	3	2	8	2	0	5
With strangers	33	0	5	0	0	0	1	0	1
Total									
324	248	7	33	6	6	11	4	2	7

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	Df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	95.428 ^a	32	.000
Likelihood Ratio	83.286	32	.000
Linear-by-Linear Association	.042	1	.837
N of Valid Cases	324		

a. 37 cells (82.2%) have expected count less than 5.

b. The minimum expected count is .17

From the computation above, the p -value was 0.000 and being less than the prescribed 0.05, the researcher therefore rejects the null hypothesis of independence and concludes with the alternative hypothesis that there was a significant relationship between the nature of the visit and the accompanying persons. For pleasure, the respondents mainly came with their spouses, along with their friends, while family travelled primarily to family gatherings. On the other hand, friends and spouses were also dominant for relaxing-related travels. Volunteering and pilgrimage were mainly identified with respondents who had travelled alone.

6.5 Tourists perceptions on Zimbabwe's tour/field guiding experiences

The study's sub-objective 3.1 sought to assess tourists' perceptions on the nature of tour guiding experience being offered in Zimbabwe's tour guiding industry by means of an empirical analysis. This was achieved by a set of different questions which sought to thoroughly evaluate the various facets of the tour guiding experience, as discussed in the following sub-sections.

6.5.1 *Return visitation*

The relative representativeness and validity of respondent perceptions can be triangulated from the responses of those that had a strong appreciation of the country and thus essentially are return visitors. In this respect, it was imperative to ascertain primarily the respective proportion of respondents who had ever visited Zimbabwe before. The responses are presented in Figure 6.6.

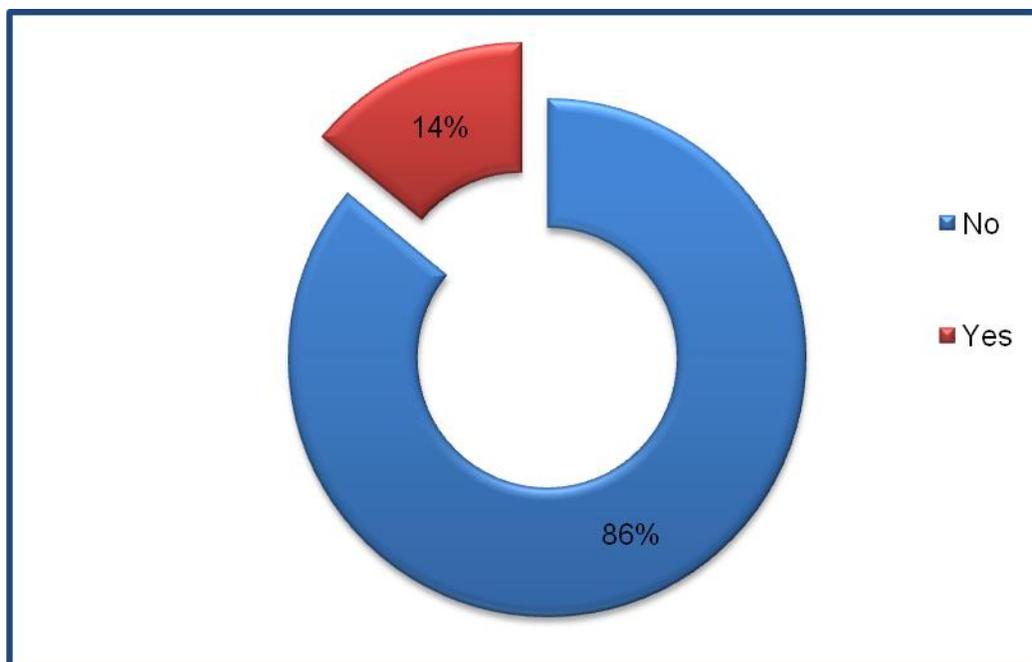


Figure 6.6: Return visitation

Results in Figure 6.6 show that the majority of respondents, 86%, had never visited Zimbabwe before, making year 2016 their initial engagement with the destination. Only 14% had visited before, a rather low statistic that may signal the rather poor customer loyalty among the tourists.

This finding is not uncommon owing to the general deteriorating socio-economic-political terrain in Zimbabwe where the destination is also being perceived to be too expensive which has, among other factors, put the study country in international disrepute, albeit the attractiveness of the destination. Those returning visitors were further enquired to identify the frequency of their visits; the data is presented in Table 6.7.

Table 6.7: Frequency of visiting Zimbabwe

Frequency of visiting Zimbabwe	Frequency	Valid Percent
Once	16	39%
Twice	10	24%

Thrice	4	10%
4 times	6	15%
5 times	1	2%
More than 5 times	4	10%
Total	41	100%

Regarding the return customers (Table 6.7); the greatest proportion (39%) had only visited the country once, with the second highest percentage having travelled twice (24%). Only a few respondents had travelled to Zimbabwe more than four times.

This finding is rather illustrative of the afore-mentioned fact that Zimbabwe as a destination has been grossly influenced by the media resulting in negative perceptions about the destination globally. Zimbabwe is also regarded as an expensive destination by most tourists. These could be some of the explanations why the return customers were merely clustered around one or two earlier visits. The respective average length of stay is presented in Table 6.8

Table 6.8: Average length of stay

Length of stay	Frequency	Valid percent
Less than 1 night	8	3%
1 night	29	10%
2 nights	123	41%
3 nights	74	24%
4 nights	22	7%
5 nights	16	5%
More than 5 nights	32	10%
Total	304	100%
Missing System	25	
Total	329	

The above results generally demonstrate that the greater majority of the respondents visited the destinations at least two nights, the corresponding frequency of respondents being 40%, seconded by those who stayed for three nights, with a frequency of 24%. Thus, in summary, the majority of respondents with a cumulative total of 65% stayed for merely 2-3 nights.

To help ascertain the major reasons behind the determination of the number of nights to stay, Decision Tree Analysis (DTA) was conducted with the CHAID algorithm (Kass, 1980:119-127). The DTA is shown as a diagram presenting outcomes in a tree-like form and showing the alternatives to reaching a decision. Lakshmi, Martin, Begum & Venkatesan (2013:18-27) argue that DTA has the advantage of producing sequences (branches) of rules that can easily be followed to recognise the relationship between dependent and independent variables, as noted in this study. Normally, decision trees can be generated using four different algorithms as tree growing methods and these are: CHAID (Chi Square Automatic Interaction Detector); Exhaustive CHAID, CRT (Classification and Regression Tree); QUEST (Quick Unbiased Efficient Statistical Tree). However, with the categorical nature of the data, the CHAID approach was used, in lieu of the other approaches.

The CHAID analysis is a form of analysis that determines how variables best combine to explain the outcome in a given dependent variable (Kass, 1980:119-127). It is useful when looking for patterns in datasets with lots of categorical variables and is a convenient way of summarising the data as the relationships can be easily visualised. CHAID analysis is thus an effective tool to discover the relationship between variables as it can visualise the relationship between the target (dependent) variable and the related factors with a tree image (Kass, 1980:119-127). The results are presented in Figure 6.7.

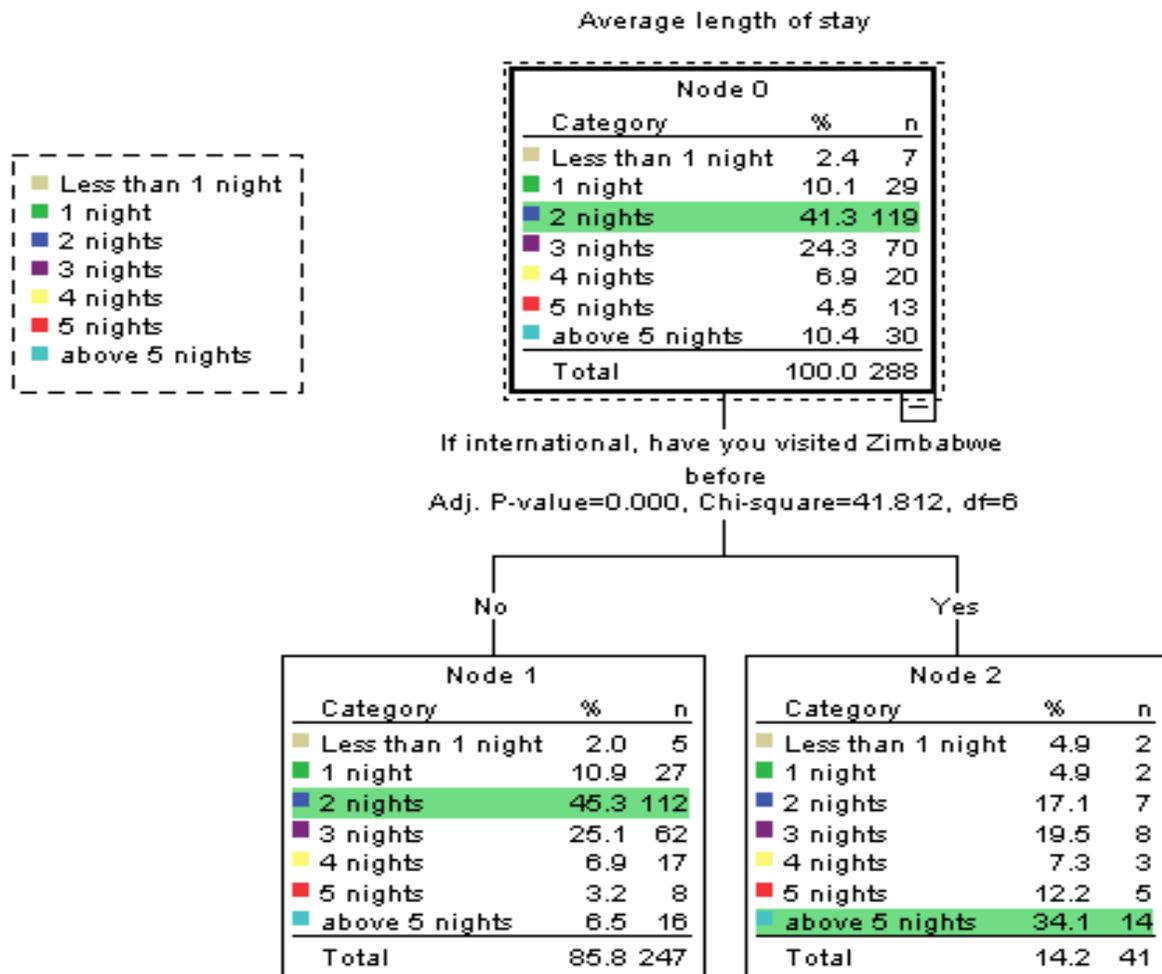


Figure 6.7: Decision Tree Analysis – average length of stay

From the results in Figure 6.7, the primary determinant of the length of stay was mainly whether they had or had not ever visited Zimbabwe. From the illustration, respondents who had never visited Zimbabwe only stayed an average period of 2 nights, in contrast with more than five nights which were characteristic to respondents who had visited Zimbabwe before. These results, therefore, reveal that there is more yield regarding length of stay from the return tourists than from the first timers, a point to note by the

destination's marketers. Additionally, this may be suggestive of a lack of confidence with the destination by the first time visitors as compared to the return visitors.

6.5.2 *Tour guide engagement*

To help establish whether the respondents were keener to engage tour guides, they were asked whether they ever engaged these in their Zimbabwe tour experience. The results are presented in Figure 6.8.

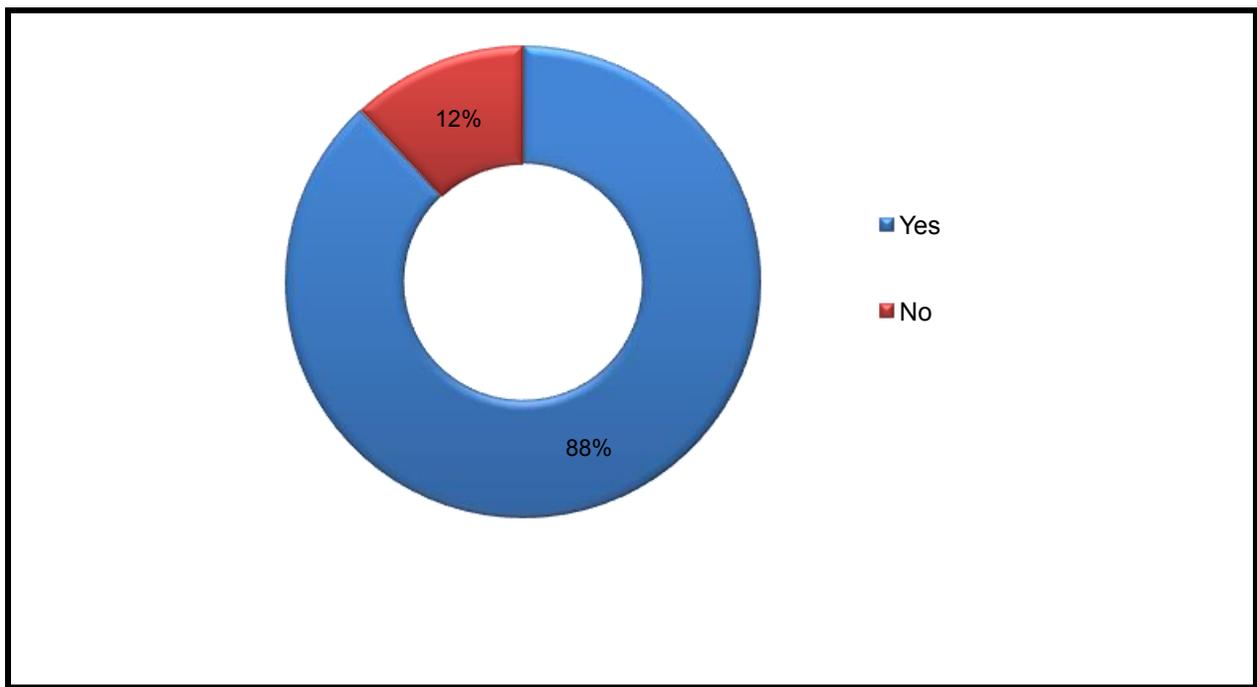


Figure 6.8: Tour guide engagement

From the above analysis, the greater proportion, 88% agreed that they engaged tour guides while only 12% of the respondents preferred not to engage with these guides. Nonetheless, those who indicated not to have engaged the guides, went further to answer the subsequent sections of the questionnaire which related to their experiences with Zimbabwean guides hence suggesting they possibly could have, at some point; made contact with the local guides but possibly not throughout the duration of their trip. Thus the researcher decided to retain their questionnaires for analysis since all the

questionnaire questions had been attempted. This research considered it worthwhile exploring further whether respondents' decision to or not to engage tour guides was influenced by other ulterior factors. To this end, decision tree analysis was considered best. Being a dichotomous categorical dependent variable, the CHAID tree growing method was used, with 50 parent nodes and 25 child nodes. The results are presented in Figure 6.9.

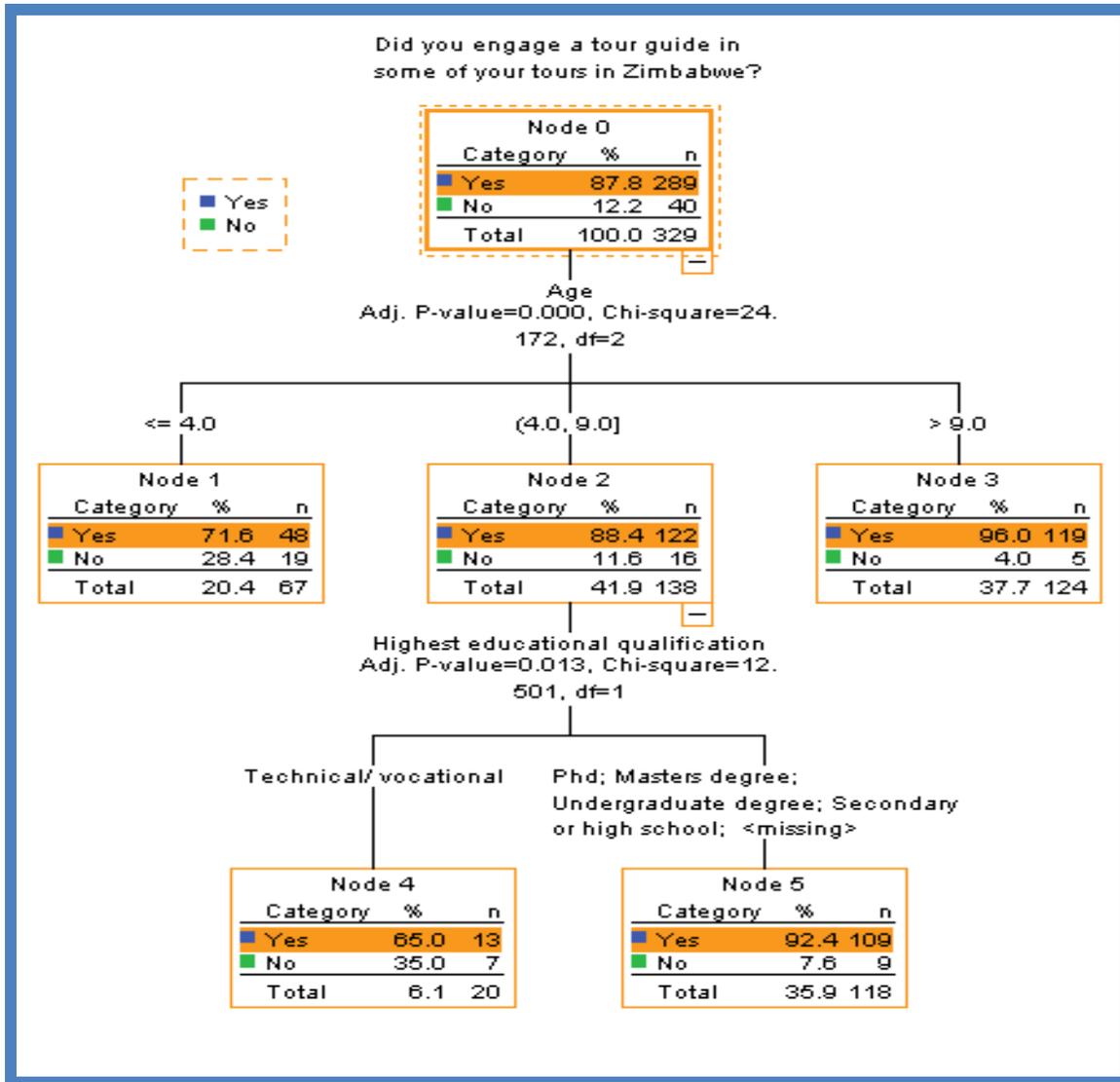


Figure 6.9: Decision Tree: Determinants of choosing a tour guide

From the results above, the major determinant was age. The greatest proportion of respondents who chose not to engage with tour guides were those within or less than 30-34 year category, being 28%. On the other hand, the least resistant age group was those older than 55 years, with those disagreeing being only 4%. Thus, it follows from the analysis that the greater proportion of respondents who would not prefer guided tours was the younger respondents, with the only possible argument being that they tend to be the more adventurous, than the older age categories.

6.5.3 *Type of guides*

The researcher further established the type of guided tours from those who sought guided tours. The results are presented in Table 6.9.

Table 6.9: Type of guides

Type of guide	Frequency	Valid Percent
Tour guide	103	36%
Field guide	101	38%
Both	79	28%
Total	283	100%
Missing System	46	
Total	329	

There was rather a marginal disparity between tour guides and field guides, with the former marginally superseding the latter, the respective proportions being 36% and 38% respectively. The least proportion of 28% had used both types of guides. Again, to explore further whether there were any other factors which influenced the decision to choose tour guides, field guides or both, decision tree analysis was computed, with the CHAID as the tree growing method. The results are presented in Figure 6.10 and show that the major determinant for the choice of either tour guide or a field guide or both was the perceived rating of the overall guided experience. Field guides were identified with the best ratings while tour guides were identified with rather mediocre ratings. In other

words, field guides were rather positively rated than tour guides. These findings also confirm observations from the literature that the training of field guides in Zimbabwe is far more rigorous taking at least three years (Nyahunzvi & Njerekai, 2013:6) and thus more superior to that of tour guides, which only lasts for three months before one is certified.

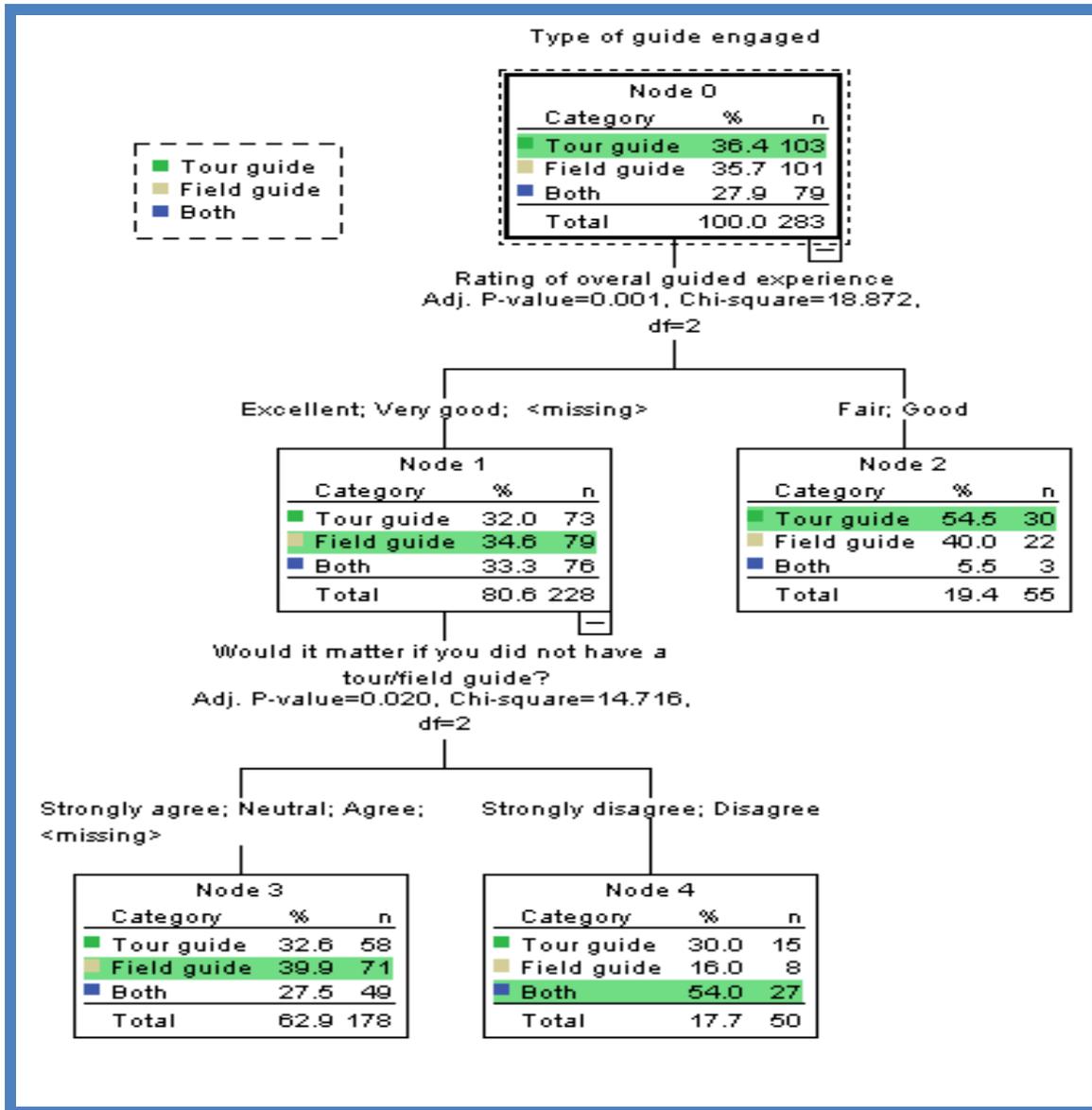


Figure 6.10: Determinants of the preferred guide

5.5.4 Destinations where guides were used

The research assumed that the preferential choice of guides would have also been influenced by the destination. The summary of the destinations in which guides were used is presented in Table 6.10.

Table 6.10: Destinations where guides were used

Guided tours destinations	Frequency	Valid Percent
Victoria Falls	270	89%
Matopos	2	1%
Hwange National Park	22	7%
Great Zimbabwe	6	1.9%
Kariba and Manapools	2	1%
Total	303	100%
Missing System	26	
Total	329	

From the analysis, Victoria Falls was the main destination from which the majority of respondents were drawn, where its respective proportion was 89% which can be said to be largely in consonance with the study's methodological slant. This is because statistics earlier on obtained from the Zimbabwe Tourism Authority showed that 90% of the registered tour guides (who have thus gone through the national tour guide training curriculum in Zimbabwe) are based in Victoria Falls which is Zimbabwe's prime tourist region (Chikuta, 2015:178). Since the study ultimately sought to determine education and training interventions needed on the extant tour guide training systems to produce guides able to co create memorable tourism experiences, it also followed that the largest tourist's population would be concomitantly drawn from Victoria Falls as well.

This is also justified by the fact that the study was following a concurrent triangulation methodology approach where tour guides were to be interviewed at the same time as questionnaires were being administered to tourists, to give their opinions on the same

guides. Hence, this also meant that the tour guides and tourists had to be drawn or “experimented within the same laboratory”; that is to be drawn from the same geographical location with that of the tour guide population under study. This was based on the assumption that that particular tourist population would have an experience and better know how of the competences of the guides under study as compared to the tourists who would be drawn elsewhere. Thus according to the results, 89% of the respondent tourists who used guides were from Victoria Falls with only 11% of the respondents having used guides at other destinations outside the Victoria Falls region such as Hwange, Matopos, Kariba and Great Zimbabwe (see Table 6.10).

6.5.5 Interest with tour/ field guides

Having explored several aspects of the perceptions of respondents on guides, respondents were asked to ascertain their relative position on their interest to tour/field guides. The results are presented in Figure 6.11.

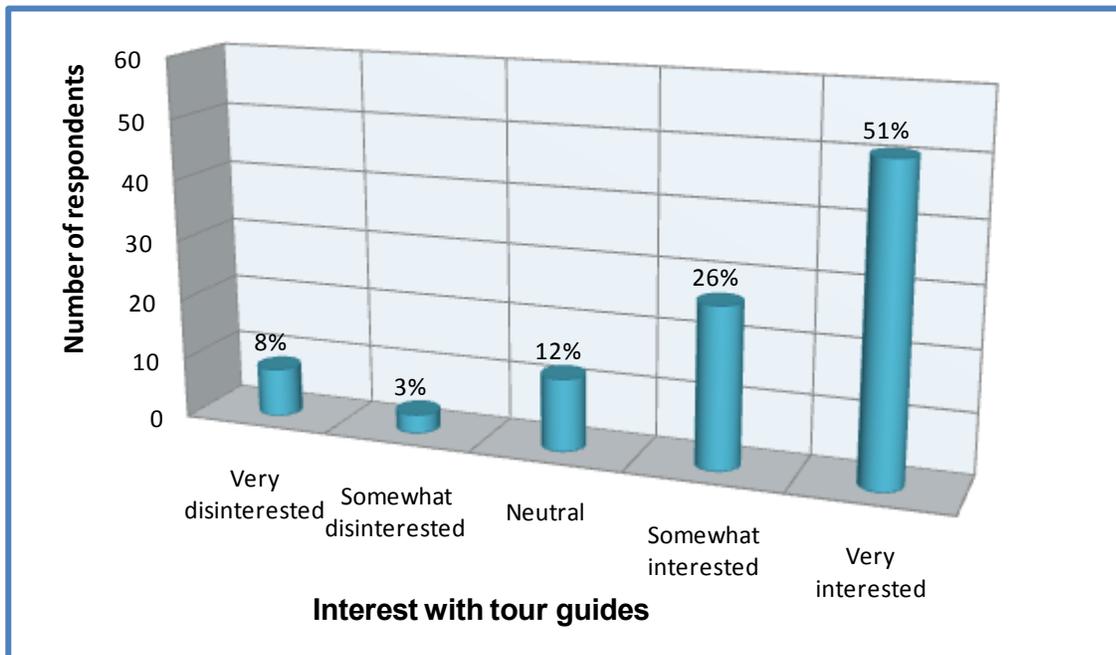


Figure 6.11: Interest with tour/field guides

General positive feedback was received from the respondents regarding tour/field guides with 51% of the respondents strongly affirming that they were very interested, with 26% being somewhat interested. Only 8% were very disinterested. With future interest in tour guides centering on the relative satisfaction of respondents, the corresponding analysis is presented.



Figure 6.12: Extent of satisfaction with guided tours

As was with the proportions of interest in guided tours, the extent of satisfaction of respondents with guided tours was also highly rated, with 54% of the respondents very satisfied, along with 39% who were satisfied. Hardly any respondents were dissatisfied or very dissatisfied, the respective proportions being 1% and 5%. Two percent (2%) were unsure of their experience. These results thus point to the perceived good performance of the local guides.

6.5.6 Rating of overall guided experience

Having explored the various facets of guided tourism, this section proceeds further to assess the relative overall guided experience by tourists. The respondents were asked to rate their respective experiences with guided tourism. The respective distributions are presented in Figure 6.13.

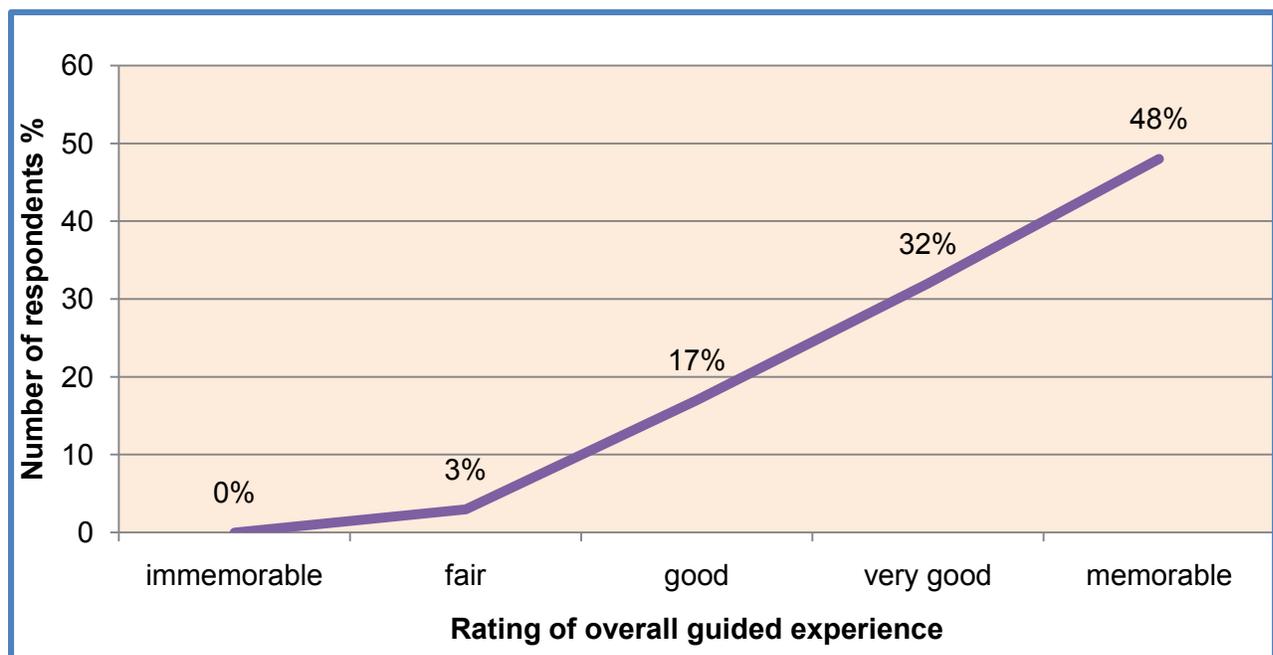


Figure 6.13: Rating of overall guided experience

The outlook was from the perspective that the overall guided tourism experience was rather positively rated. This can be evidenced by 48% who rated it as memorable, with 32% rating it to be very good. The least sentiment was the fair rating, which only 3% of the respondents identified Zimbabwean guided tourism with. These results thus show that the tourists are largely satisfied with the nature of experiences offered in the local tour guiding sector. To complement these respective ratings, the respondents were asked whether the Zimbabweans had the ideal type of tour guides. The respective summaries are presented in Figure 6.14.

From the results, it is evident that the respondents were overly confident with Zimbabwe having ideal tour guides as shown by the relative positive ratings. The majority (54%) said very much, with 27% citing extremely. Only 1% of the respondents said not at all, while 17% were somewhat indifferent.

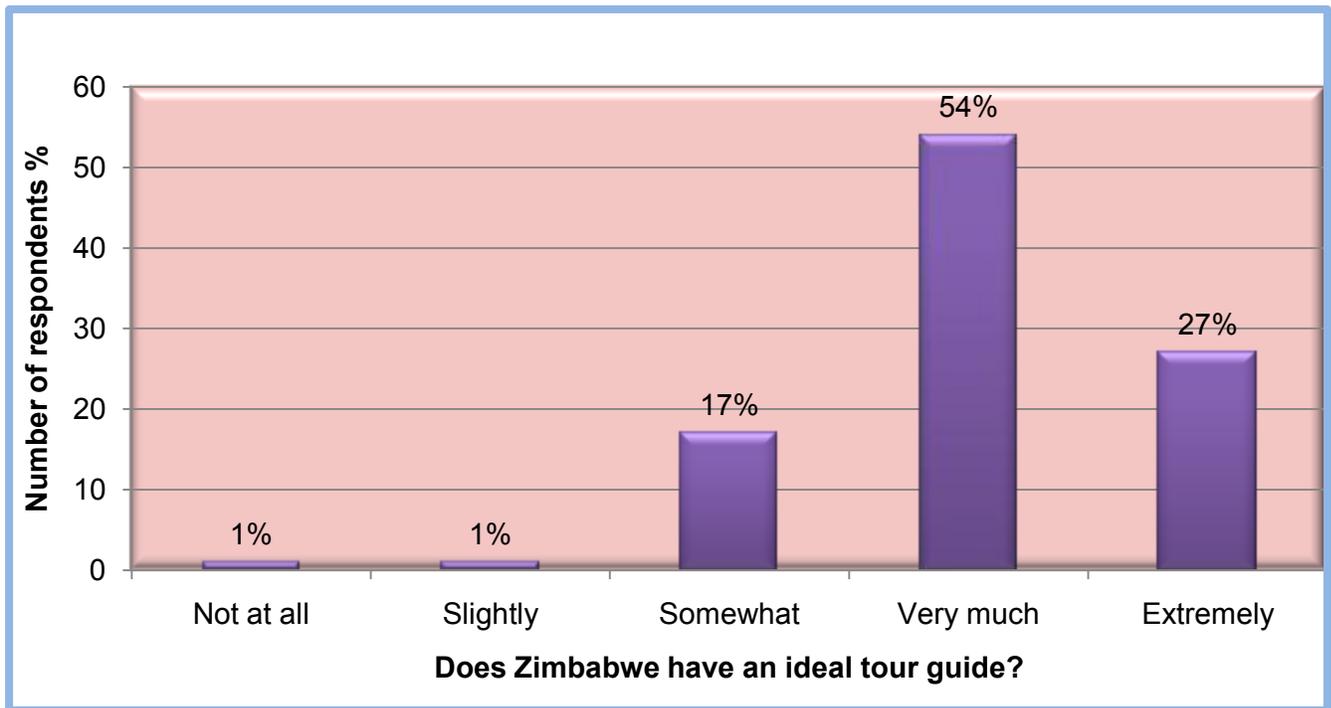


Figure 6.14: Presence of Ideal Tour Guides in Zimbabwe

Having ascertained respondents' views on whether Zimbabwe has ideal tour guides or not, it was worthwhile to ascertain whether the perceptions of locals were similar or different to the perceptions of international tourists with regard to their overall guided experience in Zimbabwe. To this end, the independent samples *t*-test analysis was computed with the following conditions: (with results presented in the Table 6.11)

Test: Independent Samples *t*-Test Analysis

Hypothesis: H_0 : There is no difference in the perception of overall guided experience between local and international tourists

H₁: There is a significant difference in the perception of overall guided experience between local and international tourists

Significance Level: 95% (2-tailed); 325 degrees of freedom

Rejection Criteria: Reject H₀ if $p \leq 0.05$; Accept H₀ if $p > 0.05$

Table 6.11: Group statistics

Group Statistics					
	Visitor Type	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Rating of overall guided experience	Local	25	3.88	.971	.194
	International	294	4.29	.822	.048
Satisfaction with guided tour experience	Local	26	4.27	.667	.131
	International	294	4.41	.892	.052
Does Zimbabwe have the ideal type of tour/field guides?	Local	27	4.07	.781	.150
	International	281	4.06	.717	.043

Independent Samples Test										
		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	t	Df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
Rating of overall guided experience	EVA	.909	.341	-2.334	317	.020	-.406	.174	-.748	-.064
	EVNA			-2.028	27.005	.053	-.406	.200	-.816	.005

Satisfaction with guided tour experience	EVA	.618	.432	-.794	318	.428	-.142	.179	-.495	.211
	EVNA			-1.011	33.470	.319	-.142	.141	-.429	.144
Does Zimbabwe have the ideal type of tour/field guides?	EVA	.207	.649	.093	306	.926	.014	.146	-.273	.300
	EVNA			.087	30.366	.931	.014	.156	-.305	.332

From the preceding independent samples tests, the p -value for the Levine's test for equality of variance were all greater than 0.05 suggesting that the assumption for equality of variances was valid. The corresponding t -test results however revealed that there was a significant difference in the perception of overall guided experience between local and international tourists with the p -value being 0.02. Implications for this finding are that there would be need to further interrogate the particular guided tour preferences of the two groups that is, their points of variance and convergence. The results of that analysis will further assist tour guide trainers to develop specialised tour guides who will know how best to handle the domestic or international market separately or how to reconcile their differences when both types of clients are participating in the same group tour.

To conclude on this section, which was premised on the study's sub-objective 3.1, which sought to assess tourists' perceptions on the nature of guided experiences being offered in Zimbabwe's tour guiding sector, the researcher makes the following conclusions:

- The majority of respondents (93%) were at least satisfied with their guided tour experiences with only 5% of the respondents getting at least dissatisfied with their guided tour experience in Zimbabwe.

- The majority of respondents (81%) concurred that Zimbabwe has the ideal type of guides with only 2% boldly disagreeing with the position and 17% somewhat not sure about their opinion. The study further established that among the local guides, field guides were superiorly rated above the tour guides based on the decision tree analysis.
- Consistent with these preceding conclusions, it is thus logically noted that, 97% of the respondents positively rated their overall guided experience in Zimbabwe with among them; 17% concurring that it was good, 32% indicating it was very good and 48% positing that it was memorable.

While the destination is experiencing detractive socio-economic political conditions, it is important for one to appreciate the telling resilience displayed by the local tour guiding industry that in spite of a highly demoralising operating environment, the sector seems to be offering some highly rated experiences as confirmed by the empirical findings. Nevertheless one may still want to argue that the extent of tourist satisfaction being ascribed to the local guides may be illusionary and not purely emanating from the guides' services as tourist satisfaction is a function of multiple antecedents such as quality of attractions and amenities (Pileliene & Grigaliunaite, 2014:38) with tour guides arguably playing the marginal role of adding icing onto the cake "within the great scheme of things". It will thus be interesting to note if results in the further analyses of local tour guides' performance will corroborate these findings. The next sub-section seeks to establish the perceived important tour/field guides.

6.6 Perceived important tour/field guide competences

Having explored the perceived tourists' perceptions on the nature of guided experiences being offered in Zimbabwe's tour guiding sector, the researcher went on further to explore the perceived important tour/field guide competences generally perceived to contribute to the quality of their tour experiences. The overall perceptions of the respondents were established by computing the mean scores for each and every variable about the coding that had been used. From the 5-point Likert scale used,

values less than the median three would connote a negative response (disagreeing); for which the degree of disagreeing would increase when tending towards the least expected value, that is 1 and values greater than 3 connoted a positive response (agreeing). The summary of the findings is presented in Table 6.12.

Table 6.12: Perceived important tour/field guide competences

Tour guide competences	N	Mean		Std. Dev	Kurtosis	
	Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error	Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error
Enthusiasm	328	4.49	.037	.677	1.126	.268
Ability to entertain	329	3.92	.048	.878	.230	.268
Acting skills	329	3.30	.069	1.244	-.885	.268
Effective communication	328	4.66	.034	.609	5.219	.268
Interpreting skills	329	4.27	.046	.832	1.679	.268
Counselling skills	326	3.44	.067	1.205	-.588	.269
Leadership skills	328	4.03	.047	.851	.934	.268
Organising skills	329	4.49	.038	.686	2.422	.268
Time management	328	4.48	.037	.677	2.815	.268
Ability to solve problems	328	4.43	.040	.722	1.979	.268
Knowledge of the destination and tourism products	329	4.76	.030	.535	10.353	.268
Honesty and trustworthiness	326	4.77	.028	.506	10.961	.269
Appearing neat and tidy	326	4.27	.039	.712	.190	.269
Ability to pay attention to detail	327	4.36	.039	.704	1.374	.269
A sense of humour	329	4.25	.036	.660	.116	.268
Multilingual ability	329	4.15	.048	.862	.562	.268
Right attitude with respect to service	326	4.46	.036	.649	.799	.269
Ability to coordinate within group members	326	4.29	.041	.738	-.011	.269

Teaching skills	328	4.03	.047	.854	.150	.268
Having a sense of responsibility	328	4.51	.037	.673	2.822	.268
Adaptability and flexibility	328	4.41	.036	.658	.153	.268
Optimism and positive thinking	328	4.35	.038	.697	.887	.268
Commitment	327	4.45	.035	.638	-.057	.269
Self confidence	327	4.26	.041	.746	.219	.269
Tolerance	329	4.30	.039	.709	-.432	.268
Ability to understand and manage others' emotions	328	3.98	.047	.855	.124	.268
Handling relationships	327	3.91	.049	.890	-.167	.269
Influencing and persuasion skills	328	3.72	.051	.932	-.354	.268
Seeking and assimilating feedback	328	4.00	.045	.807	-.588	.268
Anticipating tourist needs	328	4.30	.039	.700	.671	.268
Responsiveness	327	4.40	.037	.666	.076	.269
Team capabilities	327	4.09	.046	.830	-.253	.269
Conflict resolution skills	327	4.00	.050	.905	.219	.269
Mindfulness of others' cultural preferences and norms	327	4.07	.047	.850	-.148	.269
Knowledge of legal and economic systems of tourists' cultures	327	3.73	.060	1.081	-.336	.269
Knowledge of the rules (vocabulary, grammar) of tourists' languages	328	3.74	.055	1.002	-.271	.268
Knowledge of cultural values and religious beliefs of tourists cultures	328	3.60	.057	1.027	-.198	.268
Knowledge of the marriage	329	3.27	.066	1.194	-.721	.268

systems of the tourists' cultures						
Knowledge of the arts and crafts of tourists' cultures	329	3.25	.064	1.166	-.653	.268
Knowledge of the rules for expressing non-verbal behaviour in tourists' cultures	328	3.63	.057	1.029	-.072	.268
Ability to change verbal behaviour when interacting with tourists	327	3.93	.046	.840	.505	.269
Ability to change non-verbal behaviour when interacting with tourists	327	3.84	.047	.852	.608	.269
Valid N (listwise)	311					

From the analysis above, all the items under study were positively rated, with mean scores greater than the median 3.0. However, albeit the perceived importance of all the variables, some were rated higher than the others. In this respect, the best measure that can establish the most significant competences must look beyond the mean ratings, but should rather consider the extent of coherence among the respondents on identified competences. The kurtosis statistic was eventually considered. Kurtosis is defined as the standardised fourth population moment about the mean (DeCarlo, 1997:292). Thus, the researcher considered the competences that registered the greatest coherence among the respondents. These would be competences characterised by a leptokurtic distribution, or rather a positive kurtosis as highlighted in green in Table 6.13. There are mainly three kurtosis types: positive (leptokurtic); zero (mesokurtic) and negative (platykurtic). Leptokurtic is heavy tailed and platykurtic is thin tailed but leptokurtic is thinner and pointy than platykurtic (DeCarlo, 1997:292-307).

Table 6.13: Perceived important tour/field guide competences using Kurtosis statistic

Tour guide competences	N	Mean		Std. Dev	Kurtosis	
	Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error	Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error
Enthusiasm	328	4.49	.037	.677	1.126	.268
Ability to entertain	329	3.92	.048	.878	.230	.268
Acting skills	329	3.30	.069	1.244	-.885	.268
Effective communication	328	4.66	.034	.609	5.219	.268
Interpreting skills	329	4.27	.046	.832	1.679	.268
Counselling skills	326	3.44	.067	1.205	-.588	.269
Leadership skills	328	4.03	.047	.851	.934	.268
Organising skills	329	4.49	.038	.686	2.422	.268
Time management	328	4.48	.037	.677	2.815	.268
Ability to solve problems	328	4.43	.040	.722	1.979	.268
Knowledge of the destination and tourism products	329	4.76	.030	.535	10.353	.268
Honesty and trustworthiness	326	4.77	.028	.506	10.961	.269
Appearing neat and tidy	326	4.27	.039	.712	.190	.269
Ability to pay attention to detail	327	4.36	.039	.704	1.374	.269
A sense of humour	329	4.25	.036	.660	.116	.268
Multilingual ability	329	4.15	.048	.862	.562	.268
Right attitude with respect to service	326	4.46	.036	.649	.799	.269
Ability to coordinate within group members	326	4.29	.041	.738	-.011	.269
Teaching skills	328	4.03	.047	.854	.150	.268
Having a sense of responsibility	328	4.51	.037	.673	2.822	.268
Adaptability and flexibility	328	4.41	.036	.658	.153	.268
Optimism and positive thinking	328	4.35	.038	.697	.887	.268
Commitment	327	4.45	.035	.638	-.057	.269
Self confidence	327	4.26	.041	.746	.219	.269

Tolerance	329	4.30	.039	.709	-.432	.268
Ability to understand and manage others' emotions	328	3.98	.047	.855	.124	.268
Handling relationships	327	3.91	.049	.890	-.167	.269
Influencing and persuasion skills	328	3.72	.051	.932	-.354	.268
Seeking and assimilating feedback	328	4.00	.045	.807	-.588	.268
Anticipating tourist needs	328	4.30	.039	.700	.671	.268
Responsiveness	327	4.40	.037	.666	.076	.269
Team capabilities	327	4.09	.046	.830	-.253	.269
Conflict resolution skills	327	4.00	.050	.905	.219	.269
Mindfulness of others' cultural preferences and norms	327	4.07	.047	.850	-.148	.269
Knowledge of legal and economic systems of tourists' cultures	327	3.73	.060	1.081	-.336	.269
Knowledge of the rules (vocabulary, grammar) of tourists' languages	328	3.74	.055	1.002	-.271	.268
Knowledge of cultural values and religious beliefs of tourists cultures	328	3.60	.057	1.027	-.198	.268
Knowledge of the marriage systems of the tourists' cultures	329	3.27	.066	1.194	-.721	.268
Knowledge of the arts and crafts of tourists' cultures	329	3.25	.064	1.166	-.653	.268
Knowledge of the rules for expressing non-verbal behaviour in tourists' cultures	328	3.63	.057	1.029	-.072	.268
Ability to change verbal behaviour when interacting with tourists	327	3.93	.046	.840	.505	.269
Ability to change non-verbal behaviour when interacting with tourists	327	3.84	.047	.852	.608	.269

Valid N (listwise)	311					
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The extract of these competences with a consistent coherence as highlighted in grey in the above Table 6.13 are:

- Enthusiasm
- Effective communication
- Interpreting skills
- Organising skills
- Time management
- Ability to solve problems
- Knowledge of the destination and tourism products
- Honesty and trustworthiness
- Ability to pay attention to detail
- Having a sense of responsibility

From the competences, the important top rated regarding coherence of the respondents were honesty and trustworthiness and knowledge of the destination and tourism products with the highest mean ratings of 4.77 and 4.76 respectively. On the other hand, these had the greatest kurtosis statistics, being leptokurtic with respective kurtoses of 10.961 and 10.353. Thus to accurately rank the competences, taking into cognisance the potential influence of the variability of the data, the researcher further considered the non-parametric Kendall's rank analysis (coefficient of concordance) and the results are presented in Table 6.14.

Table 6.14: Kendall rank analysis - Perceived important tour/field guide competences

Tour guide competence	Mean	Rank
Honesty and trustworthiness	30.72	1
Knowledge of the destination and tourism products	30.61	2
Effective communication	29.03	3
Having a sense of responsibility	26.89	4

Organising skills	26.84	5
Time management	26.53	6
Enthusiasm	26.36	7
Right attitude on service	26.16	8
Ability to solve problems	25.89	9
Commitment	25.77	10
Adaptability and flexibility	25.34	11
Responsiveness	25.31	12
Ability to pay attention to detail	24.77	13
Optimism and positive thinking	24.44	14
Interpreting skills	23.67	15
Ability to coordinate with group members	23.66	16
Tolerance	23.64	17
Anticipating tourist needs	23.64	18
Self-confidence	23.33	19
Appearing neat and tidy	23.30	20
A sense of humour	22.54	21
Multilingual ability	21.86	22
Team capabilities	20.79	23
Mindfulness of others' cultural preferences and norms	20.45	24
Teaching skills	20.04	25
Leadership skills	19.96	26
Conflict resolution skills	19.60	27
Seeking and assimilating feedback	19.17	28
Ability to understand and manage others' emotions	19.15	29
Ability to entertain	18.70	30
Ability to change verbal behaviour when interacting with tourists	18.39	31
Handling relationships	18.37	32

Ability to change non-verbal behaviour when interacting with tourists	17.42	33
Knowledge of legal and economic systems of tourists' cultures	17.09	34
Knowledge of the rules (vocabulary, grammar) of tourists' languages	16.98	35
Influencing and persuasion skills	15.77	36
Knowledge of the rules for expressing non-verbal behaviour in tourists' cultures	15.30	37
Knowledge of cultural values and religious beliefs of tourists cultures	15.04	38
Counselling skills	13.92	39
Acting skills	12.44	40
Knowledge of the marriage systems of the tourists' cultures	12.23	41
Knowledge of the arts and crafts of tourists' cultures	11.91	42

Table 6.15: Kendal rank analysis

Test Statistics	
N	311
Kendall's W ^a	.791
Chi-Square	804.231
Df	41
Asymp. Sig.	.000

a. Kendall's Coefficient of Concordance

The overall Kendall's Coefficient of Concordance statistic was established to be 0.791 (Table 6.15); and the model was deemed to be valid with a chi-square statistic of 804.231 and significant at 0.000 levels. From theory, a coefficient of 0 implies that there is no concord among the respondents and that their responses can be regarded as essentially random (Cooper & Schindler, 2014:497-499). Intermediate Kendall's

Coefficient of Concordance values indicate a greater or lesser degree of unanimity among the various responses with a W-statistic of 1 signalling greater concordance. From the analysis, the Kendal's coefficient of concordance was 0.791, too high a statistic implying that there was a significant concord in the rankings throughout all the cases. With a p -value of 0.00, which is less than 0.05, the researcher, therefore, concludes that the established ranks were statistically significant.

Thus from the Kendal's coefficient analysis the perceived 10 top-rated important competences of a tour/field guide are:

- Honesty and trustworthiness
- Knowledge of the destination and tourism products
- Effective communication
- Having a sense of responsibility
- Organising skills
- Time management
- Enthusiasm
- Right attitude with respect to service
- Ability to solve problems
- Commitment

While the above competences have been rated at individual item level, it would be interesting to explore how they will load or correlate when assessed in association with other competences at factor analysis level. This approach is consistent with the definition of Parry (1996:50) in which he defined a competence as a cluster of related knowledge, skills and attitudes that affects a major part of one's job (a role or responsibility); In the same vein a factor analysis attempts to identify underlying variables, or factors, that explain the pattern of correlations within a set of observed variables. Thus in the study context, factor analysis was performed to identify the underlying clusters or sets of tour guide competences that can be used to explain much of the variance under observation.

6.6.1 Factor Analysis – important general tour guide competences

With a view to confirm the factors that were underlying the distribution of the studied competences, factor analysis was considered. However, to qualify the use of factor analysis, the Bartlett's test of Sphericity and the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy (KMO) were computed. The former tests whether the correlation matrix for a set of data is the identity matrix, while the latter tests for the adequacy of the sample. The results are presented in Table 6.16.

Table 6.16: KMO and Bartlett's Test - considered important competences

KMO and Bartlett's Test		
Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.	.941	
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	8704.520
	Df	861
	Sig.	.000

The suitability of the correlational matrix for factor analysis is benchmarked at 0.5 for the KMO test (Sthapit, 2013:63); while the Bartlett's test of Sphericity should be statistically significant ($<.05$) (Sthapit, 2013:74). From the above findings, the KMO statistic was 0.94. On the other hand, the p -value for the Bartlett's test was 0.000. These two conditions, therefore, qualifies the suitability of factor analysis for this study. To this effect, all the 42 variables were subjected to Factor Analysis using the Principal Component Analysis (PCA) as the extraction method using the minimum eigenvalues threshold of 1.0 and the Varimax rotation with Kaiser Normalisation. It is recommended that factor loadings greater than 0.5 are desirable and indicate a solid factor (Costello & Osborne, 2005:5).

Thus factor loadings above 0.5 and above the recommended Cronbach's alpha statistic of 0.7 were extracted and are presented in Table 6.17. From the table, five components were extracted and the results from the computation are presented.

Table 6.17: Rotated Component Matrix - considered important competences

Tour guide competence	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 4	Factor 5
	Cultural Intelligence	Emotion Understanding	Dedication	Passion	Influencing Skills
Knowledge of cultural values and religious beliefs of tourists cultures	.859				
Knowledge of the marriage systems of the tourists' cultures	.840				
Knowledge of the arts and crafts of tourists' cultures	.829				
Knowledge of the rules for expressing non-verbal behaviour in tourists' cultures	.824				
Knowledge of the rules (vocabulary, grammar) of tourists' languages	.779				
Knowledge of legal and economic systems of tourists' cultures	.736				
Ability to change non-verbal behaviour when interacting with tourists	.672				
Ability to change verbal behaviour when interacting with tourists	.667				
Mindfulness of others' cultural preferences and norms	.545				

Tolerance			.627		
Conflict resolution skills			.598		
Anticipating tourist needs			.596		
Seeking and assimilating feedback			.592		
Ability to understand and manage others' emotions			.585		
Team capabilities			.585		
A sense of humour			.539		
Responsiveness			.532		
Self confidence			.724		
Teaching skills			.673		
Having a sense of responsibility			.655		
Commitment			.596		
Optimism and positive thinking			.564		
Honesty and trustworthiness			.675		
Knowledge of the destination and tourism products			.664		
Effective communication			.602		
Enthusiasm			.593		
Acting skills					.758
Ability to entertain					.747
Counselling skills					.646
Influencing and persuasion skills					.507
Cronbach Alpha	.96	.89	.83	.73	.80
Eigen Values	16	4	2	1	1

Mean	3.68	4.16	4.32	4.67	3.59
Mean Inter Item Correlation	0.63	0.505	0.50	0.41	0.509

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.

a. Rotation converged in 18 iterations.

It can be noted from the above table that a total of 5 components were extracted as having significant eigenvalues, higher than 1.0 and a Cronbach's alpha statistic greater than 0.7 (Nunnally, as cited by Rothbard & Edwards, 2003:713). These were passion, dedication, emotion understanding, influencing skills and cultural intelligence.

The cumulative variance that was explained by the five factors was 56%, implying that approximately 44% was not explained just by these five factors. Nonetheless the cumulative variance explained of 56%, is within the recommended range of 50 to 75% recommended by scholars (e.g. Fabrigar, Wegener, MacCallum & Strahan, 1999:272-299; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001:582–633) and is consistent with other competence based studies for example by (Zhao, 2009:8) in which the study obtained a five-factor solution explained by 57% of the shared variance.

The study's cumulative variance also justifies why the research needed to be complemented by a concurrent qualitative phase to enable, to some extent, unearthing of the other salient tour guide competences not explained by the explained cumulative variance. It is also important to note that the Cronbach's alphas for the four factors subscales ranged from 0.73 – 0.96 which supported their internal consistency. The extracted components from the factor analysis are subsequently identified and explained.

The most important of the five factors was passion, with a mean value of 4.67, followed by dedication with a mean of 4.32. Influencing skills had the least mean rating of 3.59. It

is interesting to note that all the means are positively skewed meaning that all these factors are important.

6.6.1.1 Factor 1: Cultural intelligence

Cultural intelligence as a factor includes variables such as knowledge of cultural values and religious beliefs of tourists' cultures, knowledge of the marriage systems of the tourists' cultures, knowledge of the arts and crafts of tourists' cultures, knowledge of the rules for expressing non-verbal behaviour in tourists' cultures. Other variables included in this factor are knowledge of the rules (vocabulary, grammar) of tourists' languages, knowledge of legal and economic systems of tourists' cultures, ability to change non-verbal behaviour when interacting with tourists, ability to change verbal behaviour when interacting with tourists and mindfulness of others' cultural preferences and norms.

The factor had a Cronbach's alpha (α) of 0.96 which is way beyond the recommended 0.70 (Field, 2005:668). This value (0.96) shows that there is a very high internal consistency for the items within the factor. The factor also had a mean inter item correlation (MIIC) of value of 0.63 which is statistically acceptable. According to Clark and Watson (1995:309-319) a mean inter item correlation that is above 0.15 shows that all the items in the factor are well correlated and is considered acceptable. Cultural intelligence had a mean value of 3.68 which is a positive skew, thereby indicating the factor is important. This confirms literature observations that cultural intelligence is an important competence for frontline staff (Bharwani & Jauhari, 2013:825).

6.6.1.2 Factor 2: Emotion understanding

The majority of the variables in this factor were to do with the tour guide's ability to understand the tourists' emotions and needs. The variables that loaded in this factor include tolerance, conflict resolution skills, anticipating tourist needs, seeking and assimilating feedback, ability to understand and manage others' emotions, team capabilities, a sense of humour and responsiveness. The factor had a Cronbach's alpha (α) of 0.89 which shows that there is a very high internal consistency among the

variables in the factor. The MIIC for this factor was 0.5 which is acceptable. The factor mean score was 4.16 showing that the factor was regarded to be important. The ability to understand the tourist which is regarded by scholars to be a sub-component of emotional competences (Delcourt *et al.*, 2016:72) is thus confirmed by the results to be an important skill that tour guides should possess.

6.6.1.3 *Factor 3: Dedication*

The variables that strongly correlated in this factor included self-confidence, teaching skills, having a sense of responsibility, commitment and optimism and positive thinking. The researcher concluded that the majority of these factors emphasised more on the tour guide's "dedication" to work. It is a reasonable assumption to say that a dedicated tour guide will show commitment, optimism and positive thinking to work and that this will be demonstrated in having self-confidence, good teaching skills and a sense of responsibility. This third factor had a mean value of 4.32, which was the second highest among the factors thus indicating that the competence is deemed very important. This finding validate earlier observations by Luck (2008:475) that it is vital for tour guides to possess certain skills like "dedication" in order to enhance tourist satisfaction. The factor's Cronbach's alpha (α) was 0.83 thus attesting that the factor variables had a very high internal consistency. An acceptable MIIC of 0.5 was also registered.

6.6.1.4 *Factor 4: Passion*

This fourth factor had the highest mean score of 4.67 showing that "passion" was rated to be the most important competence of a guide. This observation is in consonance with findings by Zhang and Chow (2004:81-91) that passion is an important competence that tour guides should have. The attained Cronbach's alpha (α) of 0.73 confirmed that the factor scale was reliable and there was internal consistency. The MIIC for this factor was 0.41 which is acceptable. This factor comprised of variables such as honesty and trustworthiness, knowledge of the destination and tourism products, effective communication and enthusiasm. While knowledge and enthusiasm had initially been theorised to be part of personality traits it is interesting to note how they have strongly

correlated with the theorised emotional intelligence factors of honesty and trustworthiness and effective communication, thus also confirming how closely related these two concepts are. The researcher can thus argue that the results seem to suggest that for a tour guide to demonstrate passion for their work, they need to show enthusiasm which can be expressed through effective communication born out of a good knowledge of the destination and products which should be supported by one being honest and trustworthy when dealing with tourists.

6.6.1.5 Factor 5: Influencing skills

The final factor, noted to be influencing skills, comprises of acting skills, ability to entertain, counselling skills and influencing and persuasion skills. These findings seem to corroborate earlier observations that tour guides need to give information in an entertaining fashion, being able to read their audience and use charm, humour and wit to enact entertaining tales (Larsen & Meged, 2013:92). The Cronbach's alpha for this factor was 0.80 confirming internal consistency of the factor variables and the mean inter item correlation for this factor was 0.51 which is acceptable. The factor however had the least mean value of 3.59 which shows that it was regarded by the respondents to be of least importance. The least weight placed on this factor is also in line with literature whereby it is observed that while tourists need to be entertained, they however need genuine experiences and are no longer interested in surface acting (Pine & Gilmore, 1999:97-105). It should however be noted that though the factor had the least mean score, the fact that it was above 3 shows that it was positively skewed, signifying that respondents still regard the factor as important even though being at the lowest levels.

6.7 Performance of the Zimbabwe tour/field guides

The study's sub-objective 3.4 sought to establish the relative performance of Zimbabwe's tour/field guides as perceived by the tourists. In this respect, the respondents were asked to rate the performance of tour guides on each of the

competences based on their experiences with them. The mean ratings are presented in Table 6.18.

Table 6.18: Mean ratings - Zimbabwe tour/field guide performance

Descriptive Statistics						
Tour guide competence	N	Mean		Std. Dev	Kurtosis	
	Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error	Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error
Enthusiasm	328	4.35	.044	.791	.445	.268
Ability to entertain	328	4.09	.048	.874	-.418	.268
Acting skills	327	3.69	.054	.981	-.533	.269
Effective communication	328	4.27	.042	.765	.448	.268
Interpreting skills	327	4.15	.042	.760	-.641	.269
Counselling skills	323	3.66	.053	.959	-.216	.271
Leadership skills	328	4.13	.047	.845	-.297	.268
Organising skills	328	4.30	.043	.772	1.340	.268
Time management	327	4.36	.046	.824	2.037	.269
Ability to solve problems	327	4.12	.048	.864	-.143	.269
Knowledge of the destination and tourism products	327	4.46	.044	.794	1.371	.269
Honesty and trustworthiness	327	4.52	.038	.695	.866	.269
Appearing neat and tidy	326	4.41	.043	.774	1.297	.269
Ability to pay attention to detail	326	4.34	.042	.764	-.049	.269
A sense of humour	328	4.29	.044	.805	.971	.268
Multilingual ability	328	4.11	.050	.900	.583	.268
Right attitude with respect to service	325	4.41	.037	.663	-.594	.270
Ability to coordinate within group members	324	4.20	.044	.795	-.201	.270
Teaching skills	327	4.10	.047	.850	-.098	.269
Having a sense of responsibility	328	4.39	.040	.733	-.092	.268
Adaptability and flexibility	328	4.28	.041	.751	.089	.268

Optimism and positive thinking	326	4.38	.041	.737	.553	.269
Commitment	326	4.41	.038	.686	-.621	.269
Self confidence	326	4.37	.039	.701	-.217	.269
Tolerance	326	4.37	.224	1.036	1.776	.269
Ability to understand and manage others' emotions	327	4.05	.047	.851	-.682	.269
Handling relationships	326	4.02	.047	.856	-.767	.269
Influencing and persuasion skills	326	3.90	.050	.904	.204	.269
Seeking and assimilating feedback	327	4.01	.049	.891	.303	.269
Anticipating tourist needs	326	4.21	.040	.727	.359	.269
Responsiveness	326	4.26	.041	.742	-.307	.269
Team capabilities	324	4.18	.042	.763	-.614	.270
Conflict resolution skills	323	3.87	.047	.839	-1.025	.271
Mindfulness of your cultural preferences and norms	326	3.96	.048	.865	-.732	.269
Knowledge of legal and economic systems of your culture	325	3.75	.054	.974	-.015	.270
Knowledge of the rules (vocabulary, grammar) of your languages	326	3.88	.053	.954	.165	.269
Knowledge of cultural values and religious beliefs of your culture	324	3.70	.054	.974	-.243	.270
Knowledge of the marriage systems of the tourists' cultures	322	3.61	.055	.993	-.192	.271
Knowledge of the arts and crafts of your cultures	322	3.61	.055	.990	-.096	.271
Knowledge of the rules for expressing non-verbal behaviour in your culture	324	3.74	.052	.941	.086	.270
Ability to change verbal behaviour when interacting with you	326	3.85	.053	.959	.808	.269

Ability to change non-verbal behaviour when interacting with you	325	3.82	.053	.950	.675	.270
Extent of remembering a memorable tourism experience	322	4.24	.042	.753	1.196	.271
Valid N (listwise)	305					

Again, it is worth noting that the response set was based on a 5-point Likert scale. In this respect, the median rating was 3.0 and thus, positive ratings would be greater than 3.0. From the analysis, all the variables under study had mean ratings greater than 3.0, an indication that the relative performance of each of the competences was positive. The top rated competence with the highest performance rating being honesty and trustworthiness with a mean rating of 4.52 while knowledge of the destination and tourism products and appearing neat and tidy were the next rated with respective means of 4.41.

However, to ascertain the competences with the most significant performance ratings, the magnitude of the mean ratings was considered, along with the relative coherence index, which, in this study was determined by the kurtosis statistic. These top three competences had respective mean ratings of 0.866, 1.371 and 1.297, all being positive and thus leptokurtic in nature. Leptokurtic distributions are indicative of the presence of a significant coherence among the respondents, suggesting that there was enough statistical evidence to validate the coherence among the respondents. The prime competences that had high performance ratings were honesty and trustworthiness, knowledge of the destination and tourism products and appearing neat and tidy

Again, to accurately rank the competences, the researcher considered the non-parametric Kendall's Coefficient of concordance; the results from the analysis are presented in the Table 6.19.

Table 6.19: Kendall rank analysis – performance ratings of competences

Tour guide competence	Mean	Rank
Honesty and trustworthiness	27.64	1
Knowledge of the destination and tourism products	26.71	2
Appearing neat and tidy	26.09	3
Right attitude with respect to service	25.89	4
Commitment	25.85	5
Optimism and positive thinking	25.49	6
Having a sense of responsibility	25.46	7
Self confidence	25.31	8
Time management	25.08	9
Enthusiasm	24.99	10
Ability to pay attention to detail	24.78	11
Organising skills	24.24	12
A sense of humour	24.19	13
Adaptability and flexibility	24.04	14
Tolerance	23.86	15
Responsiveness	23.85	16
Effective communication	23.80	17
Ability to coordinate within group members	23.00	18
Anticipating tourist needs	22.96	19
Team capabilities	22.72	20
Multilingual ability	21.94	21
Interpreting skills	21.81	22
Ability to solve problems	21.70	23
Leadership skills	21.46	24
Teaching skills	21.10	25
Ability to entertain	21.01	26
Ability to understand and manage others' emotions	20.56	27

Handling relationships	20.27	28
Seeking and assimilating feedback	19.92	29
Mindfulness of your cultural preferences and norms	19.01	30
Influencing and persuasion skills	18.43	31
Knowledge of the rules (vocabulary, grammar) of your languages	18.26	32
Conflict resolution skills	17.90	33
Ability to change verbal behaviour when interacting with you	17.83	34
Ability to change non-verbal behaviour when interacting with you	17.39	35
Knowledge of legal and economic systems of your culture	16.34	36
Knowledge of the rules for expressing non-verbal behaviour in your culture	16.10	37
Acting skills	15.94	38
Knowledge of cultural values and religious beliefs of your culture	15.84	39
Counselling skills	14.89	40
Knowledge of the marriage systems of the tourists' cultures	14.68	41
Knowledge of the arts and crafts of your cultures	14.68	42

Table 6.20: Kendall's coefficient of concordance

Test Statistics	
N	310
Kendall's W ^a	.764
Chi-Square	642.177
Df	41
Asymp. Sig.	.000

a. Kendall's Coefficient of Concordance

From Table 6.20, Kendall's coefficient of concordance was found to be 0.764. This very high value of a maximum of 1.0 implies that there was a greater degree of unanimity in the ranking of the performance of the competences, that is, there was a statistically

significant degree of concordance in the rankings of the competences. A very high χ^2 value of 642.177 was computed. This chi-square statistic being way beyond the critical value, it thus served to substantiate the distinct independence of these ranks and, therefore, reliable. From the above analysis, the top-ranked competences in terms of performance of tour guides were:

- Honesty and trustworthiness
- Knowledge of the destination and tourism products
- Appearing neat and tidy
- Right attitude with respect to service
- Commitment
- Optimism and positive thinking
- Having a sense of responsibility
- Self confidence
- Time management
- Enthusiasm

Again while, the performance of tour guides has been assessed at individual item level, it is also important to assess how the pattern of results will unfold if a factor analysis is performed.

6.7.1 Factor Analysis – Performance of Zimbabwean tour guides

To establish the relative associations between the performance of tour guide and the respective factors among them, Factor Analysis was chosen. However, to ensure that this chosen analysis would be appropriate to the dataset at hand, the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy (KMO) and the Bartlett's test of Sphericity were done.

Table 6.21: KMO and Bartlett's Test

KMO and Bartlett's Test			
Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Adequacy.	Measure of Sampling		.960
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square		11731.257
	Df		903
	Sig.		.000

As shown in Table 6.21, the computed KMO statistic was 0.960, with a Bartlett significance of 0.000. The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy being greater than 0.5 and the significance level of Bartlett's test being less than 0.1, it follows from the prescriptions of Sthapit (2013:64) that the data was acceptable for factor analysis. Having met both requirements of the KMO-test and the Bartlett *t*-test, Factor Analysis was run, with the Principal Component Analysis as the extraction method and the Varimax rotation with Kaiser Rotation. From the analysis, basing on the de facto minimum eigenvalue threshold of 1.0, only 4 factors were considered and these were attributed to a cumulative variance composition of 64%. These factors were identified to be: firstly cultural intelligence, secondly, tour management, thirdly, professionalism and fourthly social skills. The results are shown in Table 6.22. The best performance rating of guides were considered to be in the professionalism factor which had the highest mean rating of 4.24 and followed by social skills which had a mean value of 4.20. The least performance factor was considered to be the cultural intelligence which had the lowest mean of 3.79.

Table 6.22: Rotated Component Matrix – Performance of tour guide competences

Tour guide competences	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 4
	Cultural intelligence	Tour management	Professionalism	Social skills
Knowledge of the arts and crafts of your cultures	.880			

Knowledge of cultural values and religious beliefs of your culture	.880			
Knowledge of the rules for expressing non-verbal behaviour in your culture	.877			
Knowledge of the marriage systems of the tourists' cultures	.867			
Ability to change verbal behaviour when interacting with you	.833			
Ability to change non-verbal behaviour when interacting with you	.827			
Knowledge of the rules (vocabulary, grammar) of your languages	.812			
Knowledge of legal and economic systems of your culture	.782			
Mindfulness of your cultural preferences and norms	.681			
Conflict resolution skills	.619			
Counselling skills	.573			
Handling relationships	.512			
Organising skills	.750			
Leadership skills	.724			
Time management	.708			
Ability to solve problems	.658			
Self confidence	.651			
Adaptability and flexibility	.594			
Ability to coordinate within group members	.589			
Having a sense of responsibility	.588			

Ability to understand and manage others' emotions			.582	
Optimism and positive thinking			.580	
Influencing and persuasion skills			.563	
Seeking and assimilating feedback			.503	
Appearing neat and tidy			.779	
Honesty and trustworthiness			.643	
Ability to pay attention to detail			.614	
Knowledge of the destination and tourism products			.578	
Right attitude with respect to service			.568	
Multilingual ability			.558	
Effective communication			.552	
Enthusiasm				.685
A sense of humour				.658
Ability to entertain				.606
Alpha	0.96	0.94	.88	0.84
Eigen Values	21	4	1	1
Mean	3.79	4.20	4.38	4.24
Mean Inter Item Correlation	0.68	0.57	0.49	0.64

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.

a. Rotation converged in 7 iterations.

From the foregoing, the corresponding extracted factors include:

6.7.1.1 Factor 1: Cultural intelligence

Twelve items loaded onto factor one; cultural intelligence. All of the items originally theorised to fall under this factor were retained. Conflict resolution skills and handling relationships which were originally theorised to be falling under emotional skills were

additionally nested in this factor. Counselling skills which was originally theorised to be under personality traits also nested in this factor. It is therefore a reasonable assumption that during cross cultural interactions with tourists, tour guides are likely to apply relationships handling skills and counselling as the likelihood of conflict could be high especially in group tours. This finding corroborates earlier views by Ashworth (as cited by Kim, 2013:2); that tourists from different cultures perceive and encounter cultural and heritage spaces in different ways. As a result, tourists have different experiences even if the tourists perform the same activities in the same environments, because the tourists' cultural backgrounds affect their interpretations of the experiences (Kim, 2013:2).

Performance of the guides was regarded to be the least on this factor, cultural intelligence, given that it recorded the least mean value of 3.79. Nonetheless, though the factor registered the least mean score in terms of performance, the mean value was still positively skewed. This shows that, in the overall, there was concurrence among respondents that the local guides are performing well in this area, but though on a marginal level. This factor had a Cronbach's alpha of 0.95 indicating that the data was reliable and that there is internal consistency. The mean inter-item correlation for the factor was 0.68 and hence acceptable.

6.7.1.2 Factor 2: Tour management

Twelve items loaded onto Factor 2 and these related to tour management skills; with leadership, organising and team management accumulating the highest factor loadings above 0.7. The factor attained a Cronbach's alpha of 0.94 showing that the factor scale was reliable and internal consistence was confirmed by a mean inter item correlation of 0.57 meaning that all the items in this factor are very well correlated. The factor accounted had a mean rating of 4.20 signifying that the local guides were seen to be displaying very good tour management skills. Since the tour guide's job performance is generally outside the observation and control domain of an organisation's management (Wang *et al.*, 2000:187) results therefore confirm that in practice tour guides are tour

managers in their own right (Collins, 2000:13; Pond, 1993:17) and who need to have some organisational/ administrative skills (Luck, 2008:475). Tour guides should therefore be fully empowered to effectively manage their tours.

6.7.1.3 *Factor 3: Professionalism*

Professionalism had the highest mean value of 4.38, showing that the local guides were regarded to be performing the best in this domain. The emergence of this factor also served to validate earlier findings by Ap and Wong (2001:551) and Boswijk *et al.* (2005:43) that it is important for tour guides to display professionalism during their work. The seven items that loaded onto this factor include appearing neat and tidy, honesty and trustworthiness, ability to pay attention to detail, knowledge of the destination and tourism products, right attitude with respect to service, multilingual ability and effective communication. The factor attained a Cronbach's alpha of 0.88 which confirms the reliability and internal consistency of the factor scale. The factor had a mean inter-item correlation of 0.49 which is acceptable.

6.7.1.4 *Factor 4: Social skills*

This factor had the second highest mean score of 4.24 among all the 4 factors and had a mean inter-item correlation of 0.64 and Cronbach's alpha of 0.84 which again confirms the reliability and internal consistency of the factor scale. The three items that correlated to load onto this factor were enthusiasm, a sense of humour and ability to entertain. These items were related to social skills which validates earlier findings by (Luck, 2008:475) that it vital for tour guides to have social skills. It is argued by Boyatzis *et al.* (2000:344) that when a person demonstrates the competences that constitute social skills he/she possess emotional intelligence. One can therefore conclude, on that basis, that the local guides, were also seen to be emotionally intelligent, though to some extent. While the morale of Zimbabwean guides may currently be expected to be going down due to the harsh socio-economic and political difficulties the nation is going through, it is encouraging to note that tourists presently regard them to be guides

exhibiting some social skills that are characterised by a strong association of enthusiasm, entertainment and humour.

6.8 Competences that co-create memorable tourism experiences

The study's sub objective 3.3 sought to determine the tour guide competences important in the co-creation of memorable tourism experiences in Zimbabwe by means of an empirical analysis. To help ascertain the extent of validity of the responses, the respondents were asked to recall a memorable tourism experience from their guided tours in Zimbabwe and to ascertain the vividness of their memory of that experience, that is, the extent to which they recalled the experience. Results are in Figure 6.15.

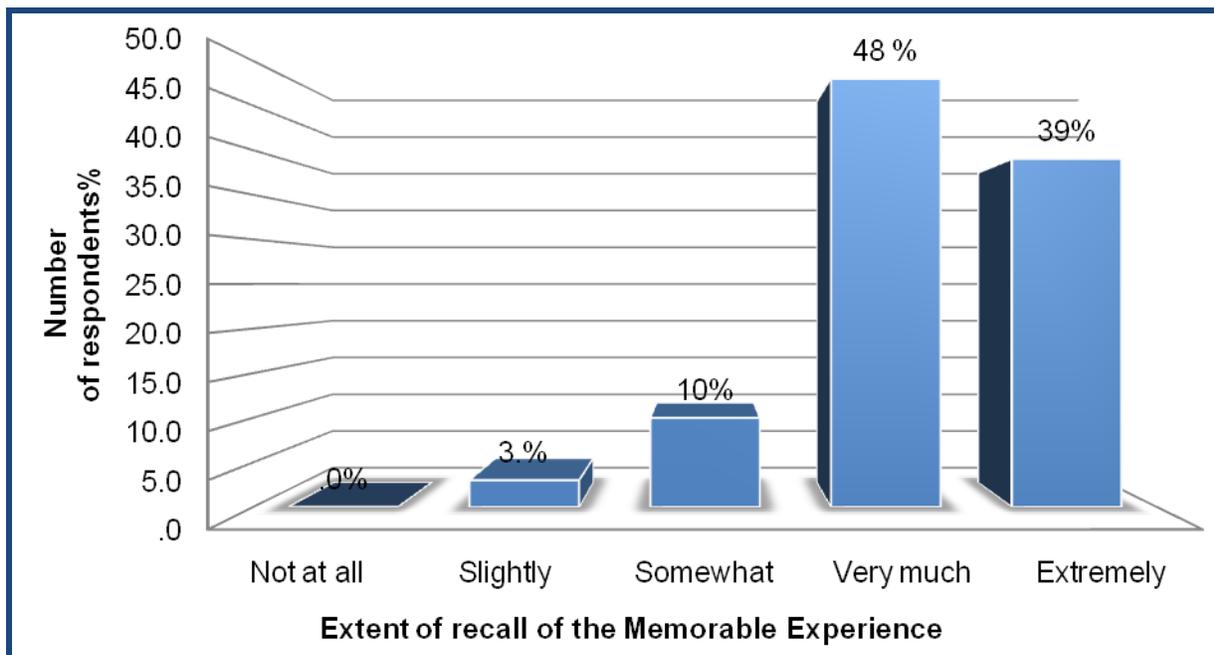


Figure 6.15: Extent of recall of the memorable tourism experience

The vividness of the recollection of respondents of the memorable experience is very evident from the 48% who recalled it very much, let alone 39% who extremely recalled the experience. It follows, therefore, that with a cumulative total of 87% of respondents who recalled their best experience, the respective margins of error would be minimal and hence the high likelihood for a more valid and reliable outcome.

To this effect, the respondents were asked to recall a memorable tourism experience and to rate the extent to which they agreed or disagreed that certain tour guide competences had been applied for the development of that memorable experience. A Confirmatory Factor Analysis was thus conducted.

6.8.1 Confirmatory Factor Analysis - Competences that co-create memorable tourism experiences

A confirmatory principal component factor analysis was examined but, to qualify its use, the Bartlett's test of Sphericity and the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy (KMO) were computed. The suitability of the correlational matrix for factor analysis is benchmarked at 0.5 for the KMO test (Cooper & Schindler, 2014) while the Bartlett's test of Sphericity should be statistically significant (<.05) (Bartlett, 1951). The results are presented on Table 6.23.

Table 6.23: KMO and Bartlett's Test – Competences that co-create memorable tourism experiences

KMO and Bartlett's Test		
Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Adequacy.	Measure of Sampling	.95
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	784.65
	Df	861
	Sig.	.000

The above KMO test for the appositeness of Factor analysis had a significant KMO statistic (0.95); greater than 0.5, along with a significant Bartlet *t*-test statistic at $p=0.000$. These two conditions, therefore, qualified the suitability of factor analysis for this study.

From the analysis above, three factors were extracted as being the major factors behind the segmentation of the competences that co-create memorable tourism. The total variance explained by these three components was seen to be 62%. In other words,

only 38% of the attributes of the competences that co-create memorable tourism could not be attributed to the extracted three factors presented in the Table 6.24. According to Zikmund *et al.* (2013:696); when factor analysis is used to confirm priori factors, the factor loadings have to be benchmarked on 0.7. Applying this general rule, the resultant component matrix is presented in Table 6.24.

Table 6.24: Rotated Component Matrix – Competences that co-create memorable tourism experiences

Rotated Component Matrix^a			
Tour guide competences	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3
	Emotional intelligence	Cultural intelligence	Personality traits
Commitment	.772		
Having a sense of responsibility	.766		
Honesty and trustworthiness	.751		
Adaptability and flexibility	.733		
Optimism and positive thinking	.724		
Knowledge of the destination and tourism products	.714		
Right attitude on service	.712		
Knowledge of cultural values and religious beliefs of tourists cultures		.876	
Knowledge of legal and economic systems of tourists' cultures		.866	
Knowledge of the marriage systems of the tourists' cultures		.866	
Knowledge of the arts and crafts of tourists' cultures		.858	
Knowledge of the rules for expressing non-verbal behaviour in tourists' cultures		.841	

Knowledge of the rules (vocabulary, grammar) of tourists' languages		.795	
Ability to change non-verbal behaviour when interacting with tourists		.788	
Ability to change verbal behaviour when interacting with tourists		.786	
Mindfulness of others' cultural preferences and norms		.770	
Ability to understand and manage others' emotions			.864
Ability to entertain			.861
Acting skills			.810
Counselling skills			.798
Leadership skills			.746
Interpreting skills			.729
Cronbach's Alpha	0.91	0.96	0.89
Eigenvalues	21	4	1
Mean	4.39	3.74	4.02
Mean Inter Item Correlation	0.59	0.75	0.57

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.

a. Rotation converged in 6 iterations.

From the foregoing, the extracted components include:

6.8.1.1 Factor 1: Emotional intelligence

Factor 1 was labelled emotional intelligence. The factor had the highest mean rating of 4.39 showing that it was rated to be the most key antecedent to co-create memorable tourism experiences. These findings therefore validate earlier observations by Walls *et al.* (2011:166-197) and Bharwani and Jauhari (2013:825) that emotional intelligence is a

principal contributor in enabling frontline employees to “elevate guest experience from an ordinary encounter with a memorable one”

The factor’s Cronbach’s alpha value of 0.91 signified the reliability and internal consistency of the factor scale. The Mean Inter Item Correlation is 0.59 signifying that the factor was very well correlated. Items loading onto this factor included commitment, having a sense of responsibility, honesty and trustworthiness, adaptability and flexibility, optimism and positive thinking, knowledge of the destination and tourism products and right attitude on service. It is interesting to note that having a sense of responsibility and knowledge of the destination and tourism products; initially theorised to fall under personality traits, were nested in factor 1 measuring emotional intelligence.

6.8.1.2 *Factor 2: Cultural intelligence*

Cultural intelligence had the lowest mean among all the factors. The mean was 3.74 signifying that respondents did not, comparatively, consider it as “highly” important in co-creating memorable tourism experiences thus refuting earlier propositions by Bharwani and Jauhari (2013:825) that cultural intelligence is a “principal” contributor to memorable tourism experiences. According to these findings, the factor should however be considered to remain an important antecedent for the co-creation of memorable tourism experiences, but not to be treated as a “principal” contributor. This is because by virtue of the factor mean, having a positive skew; it denoted that respondents better still viewed it to be important, despite registering the least of the factors’ mean scores. This therefore confirms previous findings from scholars that cultural intelligence is one of the requisite competences needed by frontline employees to elevate guest experience from an ordinary encounter to a memorable one (Min, 2012:156 & Walls *et al.*, 2011:166-197).

The cultural intelligence factor had the highest Cronbach’s alpha value of 0.96 which confirmed the reliability and internal consistency of the factor under study. The mean inter item correlation was 0.75 which is acceptable.

6.8.1.3 *Factor 3: Personality traits*

This factor recorded the second highest mean value of 4.02 which confirms earlier views by scholars that one cannot be an effective tour guide if he or she one does not have a good personality Phoompanit (cited by Laowirojanakul, 1999:20) Six items loaded onto factor 3 namely ability to understand and manage others' emotions, ability to entertain, acting skills, counselling skills, leadership skills and interpreting skills. These items related to personality intelligence. It is fascinating however to note that the ability to understand and manage others' emotions nested under this factor, when it had initially theorised to fall under emotional intelligence. A reasonable assumption can thus be made that tour guides will not effectively entertain the visitors, act, counsel, lead or interpret to the visitors without having first understood their emotions. Nonetheless this observation also serves to confirm earlier observations by Pearman (2002:11) that emotional intelligence and personality traits are closely intertwined. Factor 3 had a Cronbach's alpha value of .89 signifying internal consistencies and reliability of the factor. The factor also had a mean inter item correlation of 0.57.

The researcher therefore concludes from the above that the greatest influencers of the overall memorable tour guide experiences are emotional intelligence, followed by personality traits and with the least influence coming from the cultural intelligence. These findings corroborate the growing enchantments by scholars about emotional intelligence being trumpeted as the principal contributor to the tour guide's ability to co-create memorable tourism experiences and therefore that it is difficult to separate emotional intelligence and personality traits as they are closely intertwined (Pearman, 2002:11). On the other, hand, the results also seem to invalidate the earlier claims by scholars (Bharwani & Jauhari, 2013:825) that cultural intelligence is also a principal contributor to memorable tourism experiences. The rather inferiority ranking of cultural intelligence in this study can thus be attributed, in the main, on how the variable measures have been conceived in mainstream literature, which is considered as less applicable in the tourism sector. For example, the study notes that in the body of literature, cultural intelligence is identified as being mostly associated with the ability of

an employee to understand the cultures of the other people from other nationalities in order to facilitate cross cultural interactions (e.g.; Bharwani & Jauhari, 2013; Cultural Intelligence Centre, 2005; Ang *et al.*, 2007:335-371; Earley & Peterson, 2004:100-115; Mkono, 2010:858-870) which in this context would be to do with the tour guide having to understand much about the tourists' cultures mostly.

However findings from the study seem to suggest that the tourists seem to prefer guides who rather understand more about their local culture as opposed to knowing more about the culture of the tourists. This can be explained by the lower mean scorings on cultural intelligence. Results from the qualitative survey also revealed that tourists would prefer guides who, to a larger extent, understand more about the culture of the destination rather than that of the tourist. This might hence partially explain why the study recorded low ranking of the cultural intelligence factor as it was designed mostly to assess the tour guides' sensitivity to the tourists' cultures which the tourists then did not highly value.

6.8.2 Model testing: competences to co-create memorable tourism experiences

To expand on research objective 3 of the study, the researcher attempted to develop a model of tour guide competences to co create memorable tourism experiences in Zimbabwe. The model would be obtained by regressing the competences to co-create memorable tourism experiences extracted using the confirmatory factor analysis against the memorable experience variable in the questionnaire's section B3. Thus, the study variables in this case were:

Dependent Variable: Memorable tourism experience (MTE)

Independent Variables: Personality traits (PT)

Emotional intelligence (EI)

Cultural intelligence (CI)

To address instances of collinearity, only the variables extracted from the preceding factor analysis were thus used. These are:

Factor 1: Emotional intelligence

- Commitment
- Having a sense of responsibility
- Honesty and trustworthiness
- Adaptability and flexibility
- Optimism and positive thinking
- Knowledge of the destination and tourism products
- Right attitude with respect to service

Factor 2: Cultural intelligence

- Knowledge of cultural values and religious beliefs of tourists cultures
- Knowledge of legal and economic systems of tourists' cultures
- Knowledge of the marriage systems of the tourists' cultures
- Knowledge of the arts and crafts of tourists' cultures
- Knowledge of the rules for expressing non-verbal behaviour in tourists' cultures
- Knowledge of the rules (vocabulary, grammar) of tourists' languages
- Ability to change non-verbal behaviour when interacting with tourists
- Ability to change verbal behaviour when interacting with tourists
- Mindfulness of others' cultural preferences and norms

Factor 3: Personality traits

- Ability to understand and manage others' emotions
- Ability to entertain
- Acting skills
- Counselling skills

- Leadership skills
- Interpreting skills

Having delimited the research variables to the ones extracted from factor analysis, it was thus imperative to check for collinearity.

6.8.2.1 Collinearity and multiple linear regression

Collinearity (or multicollinearity) is the unwanted situation in which the correlations among the independent variables under study are strong and increase the standard errors of the coefficients (Sthapit, 2013:67). Increased and more standard errors will result in coefficients for some independent variables which will not to be significantly different from 0, but without multicollinearity and with minimal standard errors, these same coefficients might be found to be significant and the researcher would not have come to null findings in the first place (Sthapit, 2013:67). Multicollinearity, to be specific will misleadingly inflate the standard errors thus making some variables statistically insignificant while they should be otherwise significant. Possible problems with collinearity abound when condition indices exceed 15.0 and when the eigenvalues are close to 0.0 (Hair *et al.*, 2000:220). In this case, there is no multicollinearity as shown by the results presented in Table 6.25.

Table 6.25: Collinearity diagnostics

Collinearity Diagnostics ^a							
Model	Dimension	Eigenvalue	Condition Index	Variance Proportions			
				(Constant)	Emotional intelligence	Cultural intelligence	Personality traits
1	1	3.975	1.000	.00	.00	.00	.00
	2	.315	6.422	.80	.02	.13	.00
	3	.207	10.455	.18	.00	.29	.83
	4	.203	12.086	.02	.97	.57	.16

a. Dependent Variable: Memorable Experience

In the context of this study, the collinearity diagnostics above confirm that there are no problems with multicollinearity, with neither of the variables having eigenvalues close to 0.0 indicating that the predictors are weakly inter-correlated. Furthermore, the computed condition indices were all less than 15 meaning that there were no problems with collinearity. From the foregoing, regression analysis was considered the best. The results of the analysis are presented in Table 6.26.

Table 6.26: Regression model summary

Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.863 ^a	.745	.753	.444

a. Predictors: (Constant); Personality Traits, Emotional Intelligence, Cultural Intelligence

From the regression model, a regression r-square statistic of 0.745 is indicative of the fact that only 74.5% of the variation in the memorable tourism experience can be explained of by the three factors; personality traits, cultural intelligence and emotional intelligence. The relative validity of the above regression model is presented in Table 6.27.

Table 6.27: Regression model validity

ANOVA ^a						
Model		Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	17.851	3	5.950	30.248	.000 ^b
	Residual	63.342	322	.197		
	Total	81.193	325			

a. Dependent Variable: Memorable tourism experience

b. Predictors: (Constant); Personality Traits, Emotional Intelligence, Cultural Intelligence

From the analysis above, the p -value being 0.00, it follows that the model extracted was valid. The associated coefficients are presented in Table 6.28.

Table 6.28: Regression coefficients

Coefficients ^a						
Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardised Coefficients	T	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	1.245	.189		6.586	.000
	Emotional Intelligence	.348	.056	.402	6.172	.000
	Cultural Intelligence	.101	.039	.175	2.570	.011
	Personality Traits	.142	.052	.206	2.703	.007

a. Dependent Variable: Memorable tourism experience

From the analysis of the regression coefficients, the variable with the greatest coefficient was emotional intelligence with a beta coefficient of 0.348, followed by personality traits with a coefficient of 0.142 and cultural intelligence with the least coefficient of 0.101. It is worth noting that all the coefficients were significant at the 95% confidence level. The corresponding regression model for the memorable experience is thus presented on the next page.

$$\text{Memorable tourism experience} = \alpha + \beta EI + \gamma CI + \delta PT$$

Factoring in the computed beta coefficients, results in the following regression model:

$$\text{Memorable tourism experience} = 1.245 + 0.348EI + 0.101CI + 0.142PT$$

Where: EI - Emotional intelligence

CI - Cultural intelligence

PT	-	Personality traits
$\alpha, \beta, \gamma, \delta$	-	Regression coefficients

The study's hypotheses were found to be statistically significant from the regression analyses results in Table 6.28.

A positive and significant relationship between tour guides' personality traits and memorable experience was expected (H1) and the relationship were found to be significant (personality traits and memorable experience: $\beta = 0.206, p < 0.05$). The study therefore rejects the null hypothesis that there is no significant relationship between personality traits and memorable experience and accepts the alternate hypothesis that there is a positive and significant relationship between personality traits and memorable experience.

A positive and significant relationship between tour guides' emotional intelligence and memorable experience was expected (H2); and the relationship was found to be significant (emotional intelligence and memorable experience: $\beta = 0.402, p < 0.05$). The study therefore rejects the null hypothesis that there is no positive and significant relationship between emotional intelligence and memorable experience and accepts the alternate hypothesis that there is a positive and significant relationship between emotional intelligence and memorable experience.

A positive and significant relationship between tour guides' cultural intelligence and memorable experience was expected (H3) and the relationship were found to be significant (cultural intelligence and memorable experience: $\beta = 0.175, p < 0.05$). The study therefore rejects the null hypothesis that there is no positive and significant relationship between cultural intelligence and memorable experience and accepts the alternate hypothesis that there is a positive and significant relationship between cultural intelligence and memorable experience.

In terms of the effect of any given explanatory variable in the regression model, we look at the *t*-ratios of the two variables (Sthapit, 2013:73). The *t*-values for the regression variables are 6.172 for emotional intelligence, 2.570 for cultural intelligence and 2.703 for personality traits. The *t*-values therefore attest that emotional intelligence had the greatest effect on memorable experience when compared to the other variables and was followed by personality traits. Nonetheless though cultural intelligence had a significant relationship with memorable experience like the rest of the factors, its effect on the co-creation of memorable experiences was noted to be the least. To help cross-validate the above regression analysis, the researcher considered structural equation modelling using SPSS Amos 23. The resultant output is presented in Figure 6.16

Again as earlier on noted, it is reconfirmed from the model that the key influencers for tour guides to co-create memorable experiences are mainly the emotional intelligence competences which recorded an estimate regression weight of 0.348. Personality intelligence accumulated the second highest regression weight of 0.139 and the least influencer being the cultural intelligence recording an estimate regression weight of 0.101.

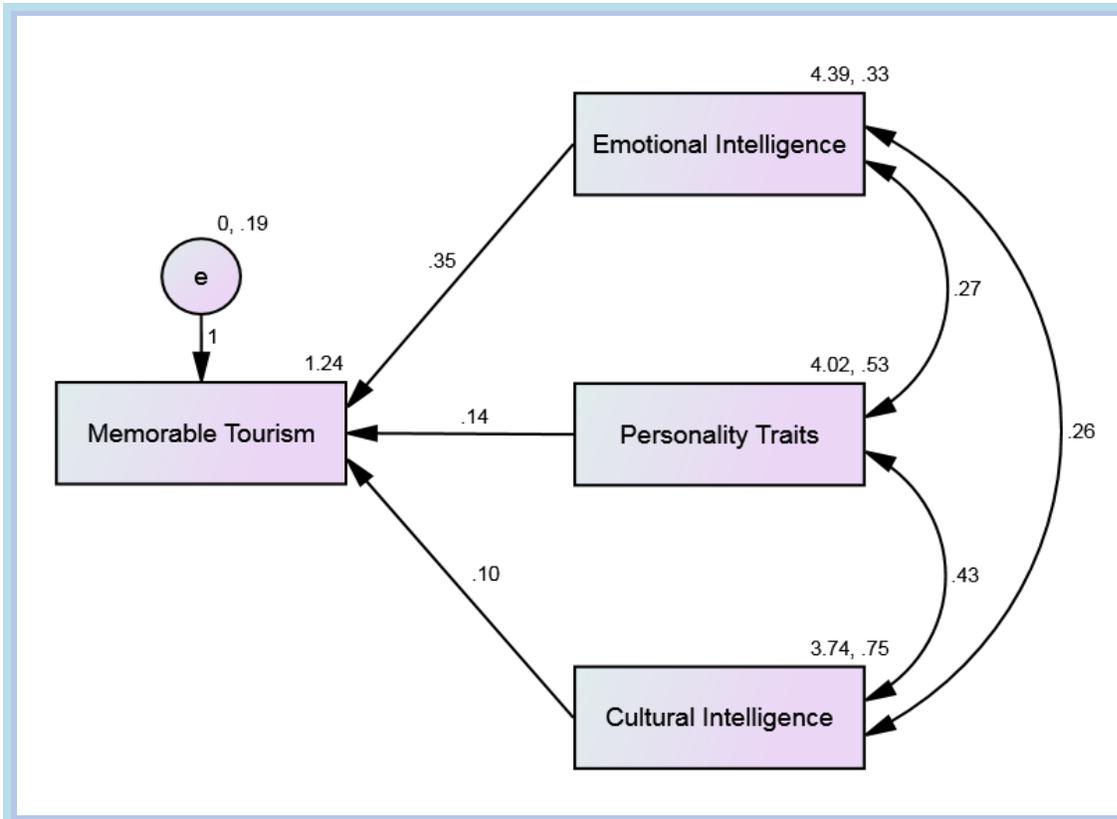


Figure 6.16: SEM Model – Memorable tourism experience and its antecedents

The supportive model summaries are presented in the following tables.

Table 6.29: Regression weights: (Group number 1 - default model)

		Estimate	S. E.	C. R.	P	Label
Memorable tourism experience	<--- PTM	.139	.052	2.664	.008	
Memorable tourism experience	<--- CIM	.101	.039	2.585	.010	
Memorable tourism experience	<--- EIM	.348	.056	6.214	***	

Intercepts: (Group number 1 - default model)

	Estimate	S. E.	C. R.	P	Label
Memorable tourism experience	1.239	.188	6.582	***	

The most significant relationship in the model, noted between emotional intelligence and memorable experience therefore indicates the importance of incorporating this construct

into the tour guide training curriculum so that tour guides become better co-creators of memorable tourism experiences in future. Emotional intelligence can be developed and improved through training as supported by the growing body of literature (Chan, 2006:1042–1054; Clarke, 2010:461–468; Hen & Sharabi-Nov, 2014:375–390; Schutte *et al.*, 2013:56-72). Thus training in emotional intelligence would be a worthwhile initiative for existing tour guides as well as the future ones.

Since the significant effect of personality traits on memorable experiences has been validated in this study, it is also important that the construct be included in extant tour guide training curricula. Personality traits were found to be trainable as well.

Though the effect of cultural intelligence to memorable tourism experiences is considered to be the least among the variables, its hypothesised relationship was positively confirmed implying that its contribution remains meaningful and tour/field guide training institutions should also consider incorporating this subject into their training programmes. The experience economy has dramatically reshaped the tourism industry leading to an increased desire of tourists to be immersed in the “local” way of life (Suvantola, as cited by Bryon, 2012:29) which means that tour guides’ sensitivity to cultures could play an important role in building memorable interactions in cross cultural settings (Boswijk *et al.*, 2005:43). Like emotional intelligence and personality traits, cultural intelligence can as well be taught and developed (Brislin *et al.*, 2006:40-55; Earley & Ang, 2003:262) and in the same vein it should also be incorporated in the tour guide training syllabi.

6.9 Key competences to co create memorable tourism experiences and performance of tour guides in Zimbabwe

Having identified the key tour guide competences to co-create memorable tourism experiences it is now important to assess how Zimbabwean tour guides are performing on the identified key competences. The study’s sub-objective 3.4 sought to examine the performance of tour guides on the identified memorable tourism experience competences by means of an empirical analysis. To ascertain the relative gaps between

the perceived competences that co-create memorable tourism and the current performance of tour/ field guides paired sample *t*-tests were conducted on the extracted 22 sub-factors or competences. The results of the analysis are presented in Table 6.30.

Table 6.30: Paired samples *t*-test

Paired Samples Test									
Paired tour guide competences		Paired Differences					T	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
		Mean	Std. Dev	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval				
					Lower	Upper			
Pair 1	Ability to entertain	-.052	.815	.045	-.141	.037	-1.155	325	.249
Pair 2	Acting skills	-.089	.879	.049	-.185	.007	-1.830	324	.068
Pair 3	Interpreting skills	-.006	.831	.046	-.097	.085	-.133	324	.894
Pair 4	Counselling skills	-.112	.880	.049	-.209	-.015	-2.283	320	.023
Pair 5	Leadership skills	-.074	.770	.043	-.158	.010	-1.728	324	.085
Pair 6	Knowledge of the destination	.006	.763	.042	-.077	.090	.146	323	.884
Pair 7	Honesty and trustworthiness	.059	.619	.034	-.009	.126	1.704	323	.089
Pair 8	Right service attitude	.037	.624	.035	-.031	.106	1.069	322	.286
Pair 9	Having a sense of responsibility	-.031	.657	.036	-.102	.041	-.845	324	.399
Pair 10	Adaptability and flexibility	-.009	.645	.036	-.080	.061	-.258	324	.797
Pair 11	Optimism and positive thinking	.053	.655	.036	-.019	.124	1.444	322	.150
Pair 12	Commitment	-.009	.661	.037	-.081	.063	-.252	323	.801

Pair 13	Ability to understand and manage others' emotions	-.009	.784	.043	-.095	.076	-.212	324	.832
Pair 14	Mindfulness of your cultural preferences and norms	.142	.824	.046	.052	.232	3.100	323	.002
Pair 15	Knowledge of legal and economic systems of your culture	.068	.842	.047	-.024	.160	1.453	322	.147
Pair 16	Knowledge of the rules (vocabulary, grammar) of your languages	.031	.810	.045	-.058	.119	.686	323	.493
Pair 17	Knowledge of cultural values and religious beliefs of your culture	.075	.817	.046	-.015	.164	1.637	321	.103
Pair 18	Knowledge of the marriage systems of the tourists' cultures	.044	.819	.046	-.046	.134	.957	318	.339
Pair 19	Knowledge of the arts and crafts of your cultures	.044	.855	.048	-.050	.138	.915	319	.361
Pair 20	Knowledge of the rules for expressing non-verbal behaviour in your culture	.012	.809	.045	-.076	.101	.276	321	.783
Pair 21	Ability to change verbal behaviour when interacting with you	-.040	.861	.048	-.134	.054	-.841	322	.401
Pair 22	Ability to change non-verbal behaviour when interacting with you	-.043	.851	.047	-.137	.050	-.915	322	.361

From the foregoing, benchmarking on the upper rejection threshold of 0.05, it follows that the only significant gaps between the perceived competences that co-create memorable tourism and the current performance of tour/ field guides, done at variable level were found to only exist for counselling skills which had a negative mean value of $M = -.112$ and mindfulness of tourists cultural preferences and norms which had a positive mean value of $M = .142$.

The results therefore seem to suggest that while local guides need to overly work on all the competences that registered negative mean values such as the ability to entertain ($M = -.052$); interpreting skills ($M = -.06$); acting skills ($M = -.089$); leadership skills ($M = -.074$); having a sense of responsibility ($M = -.031$); adaptability and flexibility ($M = -.009$); commitment ($M = -.009$); ability to understand and manage others' emotions ($M = -.009$); ability to change verbal behaviour when interacting with tourists ($M = -.040$) and ability to change non-verbal behaviour when interacting with tourists ($M = -.043$); they should however direct the greatest effort on improving their counselling skills which attained a significant t-value at $p < 0.05$ and greatest negative mean value of $M = -.112$.

While some deficiencies with regards to tour guide performances have been noted above, but however on a marginal scale and failing to attain statistical significance at 95% confidence level, the local guides should however be commended for positive performances registered in some of the key areas. Notable performance was significantly registered with regards to tour guides' mindfulness of tourists' cultural preferences and norms which was significant at $p < 0.05$ with a positive mean value of $M = .142$. This shows that the local guides are highly cognisant of tourists' cultural preferences and norms. This finding however seems ironic given that there has been found to be a dearth of significant cultural intelligence training in the extant national tour guide training curriculum. This may therefore suggest that the positive performance could largely be an outcome of the tour guides' individual research efforts and field experiences as shall be corroborated later by findings from the qualitative phase of the study. Nonetheless, apart from being mindful of tourists' cultural norms and preferences, it seems tour guides are barren of any further significant positive

performances at 95% confidence level, in the rest of the other identified 21 competences.

Moreover their notable ability to be mindful of tourists' cultural norms and preferences does not constitute everything in as far as cultural intelligence is evaluated. This is because after the principal component confirmatory factor analysis, cultural intelligence as a factor loaded with 9 variables which are:

- Knowledge of cultural values and religious beliefs of tourists cultures
- Knowledge of legal and economic systems of tourists' cultures
- Knowledge of the marriage systems of the tourists' cultures
- Knowledge of the arts and crafts of tourists' cultures
- Knowledge of the rules for expressing non-verbal behaviour in tourists' cultures
- Knowledge of the rules (vocabulary, grammar) of tourists' languages
- Ability to change non-verbal behaviour when interacting with tourists
- Ability to change verbal behaviour when interacting with tourists
- Mindfulness of others' cultural preferences and norms

Thus if the tour guides only excelled in only one out of the nine cluster variables of cultural intelligence (which is about 11%) it will be an outright miscarriage of academic justice for one to then conclude that the local guides possess cultural intelligence to co-create memorable tourism experiences. One can thus argue that the local guides are in essence positively performing only but the least (about 11%) of the expected cultural intelligence cluster of skills required to co create memorable tourism experiences. To celebrate the current performance of local guides based on their exploits on cultural intelligence alone (moreover only about 11 % of CI for that matter) will thus be grossly myopic and tantamount to skirting around the real issues by papering over the walls filled with many fissures. Given that cultural intelligence also recorded as the least influencer of memorable tourism experience as supported by the least factor mean score of $M=3.74$ and the least regression weight of 0.101 one would thus not to trumpet

the achievement as its net effect is within the restricted range as produced by both the factor analysis and regression analyses results.

It is clear from the paired sample *t*-test analysis (Table 6.30) that none of the emotional intelligence performances registered a positive relationship with memorable tourism experience at a statistically significant level. With emotional intelligence having been concluded to be the largest contributor to the co-creation of memorable tourism experiences given its highest beta coefficient of 0.348 among the three factors, one would have expected positive performances by the local guides to boomerang in this domain. The failure to thus register even a single statistically significant positive performance in this most superior domain is hence a clear testimony to the extant lack of key competences to co-create memorable tourism experiences by the local guides.

One may also wish to argue that by the same token, since local guides did not register any more statistically significant negative performances apart from their poor counselling skills noted earlier on, it would thus be imprudent to overly regard them as lacking in the key competences to co-create memorable tourism experiences. While this could be valid to some extent; but one would still challenge that notion from a positivist school of thought by pointing out that if the guides are not lacking in those key competences why then did they fail to demonstrate those abilities through some positive performance in the field? Since the study is based on a pragmatic philosophy that liberally borrowed from the positivist philosophies as well; the researcher therefore buttresses the argument that the local guides indeed lack the key competences to co-create memorable tourism at 95% confidence level. Nevertheless the researcher would not have done enough justice by not acknowledging the presence of some “low hanging fruit” competences that can be easily turned into some quick win performance areas because of their relative closeness to the 95% level of statistical significance. These performance areas which were at 90% level of significance include honest and trustworthy and knowledge of cultural values and religious beliefs of tourists’ culture.

While from the preceding discussion, the tour guides have been said to lack the key competences to co-create memorable tourism experiences, it is ironic however, to note that the majority of the respondents (81%) concurred that Zimbabwe has the ideal type of guides with only 2% boldly disagreeing. (*c.f.* 6.5.6) One may therefore wish to argue that with only 2% of the respondents boldly disagreeing, it will hence, be grossly unfair to conclude that there is a problem with the ability of tour guides in Zimbabwe (to co-create memorable tourism experiences). One should however appreciate that the question on Zimbabwe having the ideal guides somewhat mainly pointed to the general tour guide competences which are not necessarily linked with the abilities to co-create memorable tourism experiences. Thus, while from a surface viewpoint a tour guide can be rated as ideal because of their possession of certain general tour guide competences, a more specific examination revealed that not every other general competence of a tour guide will lead to the development of a memorable tourism experience.

6.10 Conclusion

In conclusion to this section, the relation of personality traits, emotional intelligence and cultural intelligence (PEC) versus memorable experience was analysed. The findings show that personality traits, emotional intelligence and cultural intelligence are the key tour guide competences for the co-creation of memorable experiences as confirmed by the hypotheses testing results. The results of this study therefore corroborate the findings of previous studies (e.g., Bharwani & Jauhari, 2013:825; Chowdhary & Prakash, 2009:164; Walls *et al.*, 2011:166-197); that identify personality traits, emotional intelligence and cultural intelligence, though under fragmented frameworks, as the key contributors to the development of memorable experiences. Thus, the results of this study also extend the knowledge base by offering empirical evidence of how those factors relate to memorable experience.

The study has provided insights into and suggested some potential modifications to the current tour guide training curricula. Thus tour guides and tour guide trainers could

benefit from an application of these findings and adjust the content of their training programmes accordingly. Indeed, if the local guide is well prepared in the appropriate personality traits, emotional and cultural intelligence skills, he or she could be a good interface between the local destination and the tourist's expectations thus helping to co-create memorable interactions. Again as tour companies are selecting tour guides, they can benefit by administering the personality, emotional and cultural intelligence tests.

The next chapter presents and analyse the empirical findings from the qualitative phase of the study.

CHAPTER 7: QUALITATIVE RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

7.1 Introduction

Having looked at the study's quantitative phase in the previous chapter the researcher subsequently sought to make a transition and therefore focused on the presentation, analyses and interpretation of the study's qualitative findings. In addition, this chapter simultaneously triangulates and synthesises earlier findings from the quantitative phase into the discussion of the qualitative results to provide the basis on which conclusions and recommendations from the study can be made. The qualitative results were obtained from the 46 interviews conducted with tour and field guides in the Victoria Falls region. Again, as pointed out in Chapter six, more than 90% of the registered tour guides in Zimbabwe are based in the Victoria Falls region, which is the country's prime tourism region (National Tourism Policy, 2011:15).

For this study, the collected data were analysed using Creswell's six steps of analysing and interpreting data (Creswell, 2009:185-189). Step 1 entails organising and preparing the data. In this step, the researcher organised the data and prepared it for analysis, which essentially involved the transcription of the recorded interviews. The researcher transcribed the interviews into text and narrative form using Microsoft word. Step 2, involves reading through all the data. The researcher obtained a general sense of the information during this step by reading through the data several times in order to reflect upon its overall meaning, according to the set research questions. Step 3 is the beginning of a detailed analysis with a coding process. During this step, data with regard to each research question were coded in order to identify the important themes being drawn from each question. Thereafter, a recode process was followed by engaging another research expert in order to ensure trustworthiness. The results were resultantly compared to one another in order to get an overall perspective and to assess consistency of the results outcomes. Step 4, according to Creswell (2009:185-189) involves the use of the coding process to generate a description of the setting or people as well as categories or themes for analysis. In this study, the various codes were

divided into categories, where after themes were allocated to each category. These themes denote the major findings in the results. In Step 5, one advances to how the description and themes will be presented in the qualitative narrative. Under this step, a discussion followed that pointed out the chronology of the importance of the various themes identified. This step conveys descriptive information about each theme and the information obtained from the interviewees. Finally, Step 6 involves making meaning out of the data, that is, data interpretation. Personal interpretation and understanding were formulated with regard to the results gained from this research, which was then compared to previous research and literature based on related areas of study.

7.1.1 Trustworthiness

According to Holloway and Wheeler (2002:254) trustworthiness in qualitative research, signifies methodological soundness and adequacy. In this study, trustworthiness was enhanced through peer examination as well as coding and recoding of the data.

7.1.2 Ethical consideration

Ethical approval was obtained from the Ethics Committee of the North-West University (Potchefstroom Campus: NWU-00115-12-A4). The main purpose of research ethics is to protect the welfare of the respondents (interviewees) (Wassenaar, 2006). Therefore, ethical considerations were taken into account by respecting the rights, needs, values and desires of the participants (Creswell *et al.*, 2003:209-240). Consent was obtained from all participants before the interviews were conducted. The different parties were requested to grant permission where permission was requested, thereby ensuring informed and voluntary participation. All participants were informed that their identity would be protected and that they could withdraw from the research project at any time.

7.2 Interviewees' demographic characteristics

The dominant gender in the demographic results was the "male" who constituted 87% of the interviewees. These results resonate with earlier studies by Nyahunzvi and Njerekai

(2013:5) were they noted that the tour guide profession is male-dominated and not only in Zimbabwe but internationally due to the working conditions perceived to be more suited to males. The largest number of interviewees was found to be within the 31 - 50 years range suggesting that the majority of the interviewees were from the middle to old aged category which may imply some high degree of maturity in most of the responses. 83% of the respondents were married with only 17% being single in terms of the marital status. The high percentage of married guides could be motivated by the guides' desire to safeguard themselves from sexually immoral activities as the industry is known for a high risk of sexual contact between the guides with other tourists, tourism workers and local people (Avcikurt *et al.*, 2010:234).

The largest numbers of guides (41%) was within the 10 years and below working experience category, while the least (being in the 21-30 years working experience domain (20%). These results seem to reveal a dominance of the less experienced guides suggesting that the sector could have also been affected by the skills flight that saw most experienced employees leaving Zimbabwe to neighbouring countries during the country's economic meltdown period in the early year 2000s. It should also be noted that, the tour guides constituted the biggest number of interviewees (50%) as compared to the field guides who were only about twenty four percent (24%). Twenty six percent (26%) of the respondents had trained as both tour and field guides signifying a rich source of data for the research given that these have an "all round" understanding of Zimbabwe's two main guide training programmes under study. Table 7.1 presents the interviewees' demographic characteristics in tabular form.

Table 7.1: Interviewees' demographic characteristics

Characteristic	Frequency N = 46	Percentage (%)	Characteristic	Frequency N = 46	Percentage (%)
Gender			Type of Guide		
Male	40	87%	Tour guide	23	50%
Female	6	13%	Field guide	11	24%
			Both tour and field	12	26%

			guides		
Age			Guiding Experience		
21-30 years	6	13%	0-10 years	19	41%
31-40 years	17	37%	11 -20 years	18	39%
41-50 years	20	43%	21-30 years	9	20%
51-60 years	3	7%			
Marital status					
Married	38	83%			
Single	8	17%			

A further discussion on the relationships of the guides’ demographic characteristics with the competences to co-create memorable tourism experiences is given in Section 7.6 of the current chapter.

7.3 Nature of guided tour experiences in Zimbabwe

The researcher explored this topic in order to address sub-objective 3.1 “To assess tour guides’ perceptions on the nature of tour guiding experience being offered in Zimbabwe’s tour guiding industry by means of an empirical analysis”.

Though the Interviewees’ opinions to the question were mixed, the overall impression deduced was that the experiences being offered in the tour guiding sector are largely positive as evidenced by the ratings that emerged. The elicited key ratings were found to be “average”, “good”, “excellent” and “best”. Of these ratings, an overwhelming majority of interviewees indicated that the experiences being offered in Zimbabwe’s tour guiding industry are good (N=28; 63%); while 20% (N=9) felt that the experiences are average and 17% (N=8) believed that the experiences were excellent. These results, in the overall, seem to corroborate earlier findings from the quantitative phase (see section 6.1.5.6) which revealed that the majority of the tourists positively rated their guided experiences in Zimbabwe. Figure 7.1 graphically depicts how interviewees overly expressed their sentiments on the guided experiences in Zimbabwe with respect to the

identified themes with the discussions on the emergent four (4) key ratings following thereafter.



Figure 7.1: Nature of guided tour experiences in Zimbabwe

7.3.1 Rating 1: Good

Comments given by the interviewees regarding this theme included: *“The services are generally good”* (Interviewee, 28); *“It’s good”* (Interviewee, 29); *“It’s good, because of training”* (Interviewee, 30); *“I think it’s good, the guides are mostly experienced in Zimbabwe”* (Interviewee, 36). Interviewee (46) had this to say *“the nature of guiding experiences offered in Zimbabwe is between good and excellent in that the majority of Zimbabwean guides have to go through intensive training programmes to qualify as guides, good in that because of the current economy, guides might lack motivation”*.

Analysis of the responses found that the “good” theme can be further sub-divided into another sub-theme: “very good”

7.3.1.1 Sub-rating: “Very good”

This sub-theme emerged as interviewees (N=4) assumed a comparative expression when reporting their views about the guided tour experiences from both the tour and field guides in Zimbabwe. The majority of these interviewees felt that field guides were very good in performance wise, surpassing the tour guides who were relatively considered to be “good”.

Comments given by interviewees relating to this sub-theme included:

“I would say tour guides are good and field guides are very good. Especially with the animals, there are a lot of safari guides that I come across, they are very good” (Interviewee, 45). Similarly to the above (Interviewee 20) commented that *“with the field guides all the guides are exceptional, all the guides are knowledgeable. No matter where I have gone; Hwange, Matopos, Gonarezhou everywhere I go the guides are very good I think National Parks is doing a splendid job of training. But with the tour guides as I said before I think it’s more of driving than guiding”*

These findings therefore seem to validate earlier observations made during the quantitative analysis phase of the study that field guides are better performers in the local tour guiding industry as compared to the tour guides. This variance was mostly attributed to the differences in the intensity of training programmes that each of the two receive before getting licensed. For example, one interviewee highlighted that:

“I do not think our tour guide training is adequate, you know you sit in a class for about three months and you are given a certificate, to go out and guide. Comparing with other places that I have been like Egypt you rarely find a tour guide without a PhD” (Interviewee, 20).

However it is important for one to note that guides in Egypt are known to focus mostly on history, which might be very necessary to be degreed as compared to the

Zimbabwean guides who may not necessarily need such a high level qualification for their context.

7.3.2 Rating 2: “Average”

As noted earlier, 20% of the interviewees felt that the experiences are average. For example, one interviewee had this to say:

“I would say it is almost average because we kind of have two categories of guiding whereby we have guides licensed through National Parks and those affiliated through ZTA. . . . you will find out that the guides affiliated to the National Parks are the most excellent ones and the ones affiliated to ZTA, the old dogs are good yes, but the new ones it takes time for them to become good. That’s why I say its average” (Interviewee, 25).

Similarly to the above, but in reference to the ZTA training another comment was: *“the reason why I say it’s fair is because the guide training module that we currently have is designed to make the guide know what to do but does not evaluate whether the guide can do what he is supposed to do. So that’s why it is fair”* (Interviewee, 41). Another Interviewee added that *“I think our guides are not doing well because they are no longer guiding from the heart but from the pocket which means they are compromising some of the principles of guiding. . . . So rating them I would say its average”* (Interviewee, 44)

7.3.3 Rating 3: “Excellent”

A minority of the interviewees (17%; N=8) perceived that guided tour experiences were excellent. Comments from interviewees illustrating this included:

“It’s excellent, if I were going to say it’s not excellent maybe I will be getting more and more complaints from clients. I think we are presenting an excellent job” (Interviewee 22). Still under this theme, another interviewee, Interviewee 24 had this to say *“the guides in Zimbabwe are quite excellent. Zimbabweans speak very good English. If you go to some of the regional countries, its fine but the guides there when sometimes*

talking to guests, they start diverting to their local dialects. You find that the quality of guides that we have are very excellent and they are very enthusiastic. They have got so much passion”.

During the analysis of responses, the researcher also noticed that this theme “excellent” had a sub-theme that emerged under it namely “best’. The majority of the interviewees who perceived the nature of experiences to be excellent tended to benchmark local experiences against those being provided by Zimbabwe’s regional or continental counterparts. This led these interviewees to conclude that the destination has the “best” guides.

7.3.4 Sub-rating: “Best”

Quotes that illustrate this sub-theme include:

“Zimbabwe offers the best as compared to its neighbouring counterparts, due to the quality of training received especially from National Parks. They are elaborate and knowledgeable when explaining animals” (Interviewee, 2). Interviewee 14 corroborated this observation by pointing out “Zimbabwean guides are regarded as one of the best guides in Africa, yes in Africa and put it that way. The main reason being the examining criteria we undertake” (Interviewee, 14). “Of all the overland trucks from Cape Town (South Africa) to here, 90% are Zimbabwean drivers why? For example, there is OAT (Overseas Adventure Travel) which deals with trips covering Zimbabwe, Botswana, Namibia and Zambia and finally finishes in Cape Town. The majority of its drivers are Zimbabwean. This speaks volumes of what the Zimbabwean guides can do”.

From the preceding discussions on guided tour experiences in Zimbabwe, it seems that the overall impression from the responses were positive with the “good” theme accumulating the most dominant of the responses. The results were therefore found to be consistent with the earlier findings on the same subject during the quantitative phase of the study. The next section explores guides’ perceptions on tourists’ satisfaction with their guided experiences in Zimbabwe.

7.4 Guides' perceptions of tourists' satisfaction with guided experiences in Zimbabwe

This section was designed to assess tour and field guides' perceptions on tourists' satisfaction with guided experiences in Zimbabwe. A similar question that had been administered during the quantitative phase of the study was also repeated during the qualitative phase for triangulation purposes. Analysis of findings elicited three key themes namely "indifferent", "satisfied" and "extremely satisfied" with the "satisfied" theme being the most dominant one; emerging from the majority of the interviewees (N=31; 67%). Interviewees who were indifferent to the question and thus constituting the "indifferent" theme were about 24% (N=11) with the minority 9% (N=4) constituting the "extremely satisfied" theme. These results again depict an overall positive rating about the level of tourists' satisfaction with guided tour experiences, though this time from the guides' viewpoint. The results therefore seem to be in consonance with the earlier findings from the quantitative phase of the study in which results revealed that tourists were overly satisfied with their guided experiences in Zimbabwe. Figure 7.2 diagrammatically presents the identified thematic areas.

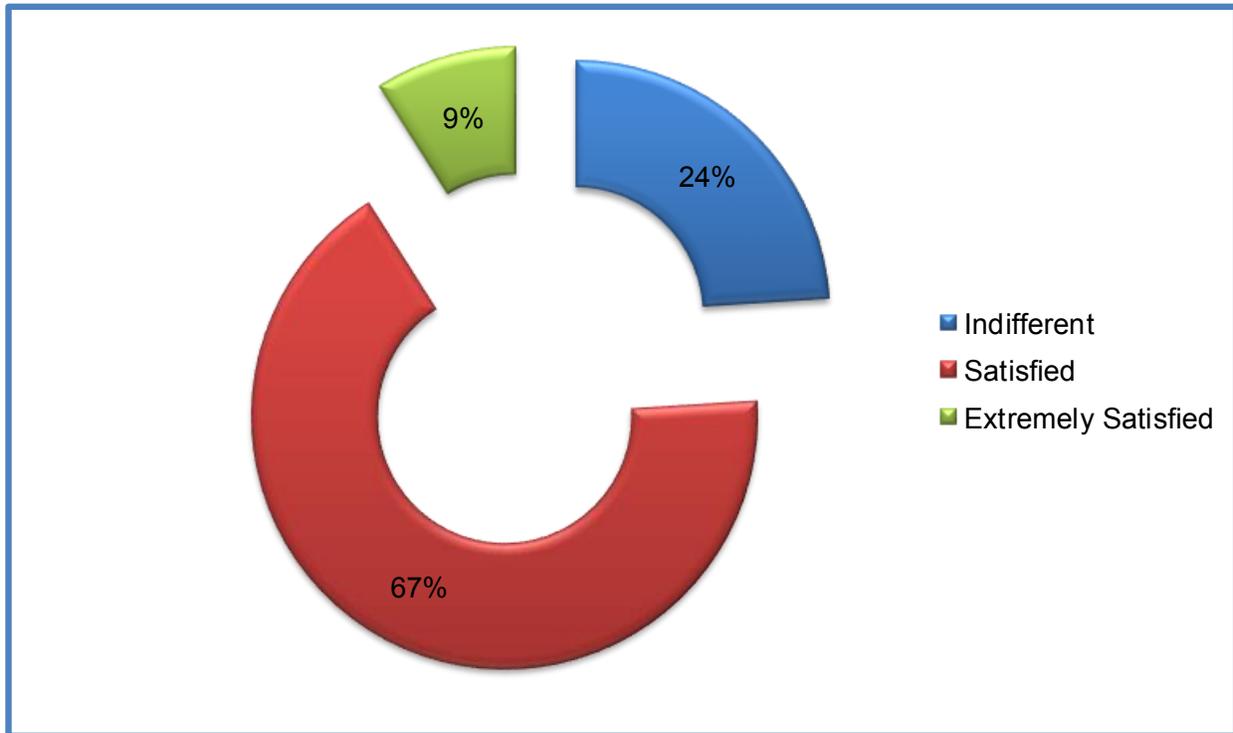


Figure 7.2: Guides' perceptions of tourists' satisfaction with guided experiences in Zimbabwe

As can be seen from Figure 7.2, most interviewees felt that tourists are satisfied with their guided tours experiences in Zimbabwe. If one would combine the “satisfied” and “extremely satisfied” themes to aggregate the positive responses then it can be concluded that at the least, 76% of the Interviewees concurred that tourists are getting satisfied with their guided experiences in Zimbabwe. Since the guides self-assessed themselves on their ability to satisfy the tourists, one would have anticipated some biased responses from their responses. However a comparison of the results from both the tourists and guides shows that the ratings by the guides were generally lower than that given by the tourists themselves. For example, in the quantitative survey, 93% of the tourists indicated that they were satisfied with their guided experiences in Zimbabwe while in the qualitative survey only a lower percentage of guides (76%) perceived that tourists are getting satisfied. Thus based on the above descriptive comparisons and holding the other entire factors constant, one can then conclude that guides in Zimbabwe could be underestimating their performance as tourists seem to attest a

much higher satisfaction level than as perceived by the guides. Nonetheless, this positive variance should be commended as it suggests that though the local guides are being highly rated by the tourists, they nevertheless consider themselves as underperforming thus leaving for themselves a bigger room for improvement in line with enhancing tourist satisfaction.

Below is a more detailed discussion of the three “tourist satisfaction” ratings gleaned from the responses.

7.4.1 Rating 1: “Indifferent”

As noted from Figure 7.2, indeed, when interviewees were asked to give their opinion on the satisfaction level of tourists by the nature of guided experiences in Zimbabwe, 24% of the interviewees were non-committal which led to the emergence of the “indifferent” rating. Under this theme, interviewees wanted to be as neutral as possible and did not want to take any particular side in their responses. Quotes illustrating this rating include:

“Sometimes no, sometimes yes” (Interviewee, 40); *“some of them are happy and some of them not happy because you can’t satisfy everyone or every guest at the same time”* (Interviewee 36) and *“It’s a very good question you know, because you can’t say yes, you can’t say no”* (Interviewee, 45).

A further analysis of this theme however revealed that most of the “indifference” was influenced by the “inconsistent” performance between the two types of guides. For example, most interviewees in this section felt that tourists being handled by the field guides were better satisfied than those being handled by the tour guides. Thus, since in most cases the same tourists would sometimes have to go through an experience with both types of guides during the same tour, then it is assumed they would be subjected to “a roller coaster experience” whose satisfaction level would thus be difficult to tell. Thus one interviewee had this to say: *“Its yes and no, this will depend with what type of guide they would have encountered”* (interviewee, 31); *“So you will find some are getting satisfied and some still have questions”* (Interviewee, 15).

A minority of guides however felt that the inconsistencies in guided experiences were more to do with the guide's industry experience rather than type of guide. For example, interviewee 28 had this to say "*with senior guides yes*". Similarly, interviewee 24 had this to say especially about the young generation of guides "*what I have also noticed is, the young guides have grown into saying 'you wanna', 'you gonna', 'hey guy'. No! We have a little bit of indiscipline especially with the 'gonna', 'wanna' language. The guest will just be left puzzled with 'we gonna go here', 'you wanna come', she is still at 'gonna', trying to understand the term and by the time you go to 'wanna' they are lost*".

Thus to a certain extent, it can be argued that the guides' industry experience plays an influential role in determining tourists' satisfaction levels in Zimbabwe with the senior guides being regarded to be providing higher satisfaction levels than the less experienced ones. While this observation could be valid, a further analysis of the demographic profiles shows that the interviewees who advanced this argument were among the oldest and most experienced of the guides. For example, Interviewee 24, claimed to have joined the profession as far back as year 1986 (30 years ago) and was fifty years old. In spite of the concerns being genuine, one would still want to challenge these notions, to establish if they were not being motivated by some biased motives meant to "self-project" themselves as the only capable guides remaining in the sector because of their experience.

Nevertheless, it was indeed, clear through the researcher's observations during interviewing that some of those interviewees sounded earnest, through their stern countenances and the sharp tones of voices. These findings are also in harmony with Abooli, Omar and Mohamed (2015:355-368) in which it was found that industry experience affects tourist satisfaction level with guided tour experiences.

7.4.2 Rating 2: “Satisfied”

As also noted from Figure 7.2, most of the interviewees (63%) concurred that tourists were satisfied by their guided experiences in Zimbabwe. Comments given by interviewees regarding this included:

“I think the tourists are satisfied” (Interviewee, 3); *“in most cases I would say yes, they are satisfied”* (Interviewee, 9); *“honestly speaking, the majority are getting satisfied”* (Interviewee, 23) and *“most tourists are getting satisfied”* (Interviewee, 29).

The preceding quotes therefore serve to demonstrate some of the reasons why this rating eventually emerged. It should also be appreciated that most of the interviewees assessed the level of tourists’ satisfaction based on the feedback they receive through the various platforms such as Trip Advisor, feedback from company management and directly from the tourists during and after the tours. For example, interviewee 41 remarked that *“client feedback on Trip advisor mostly mention that the guide for company so and so was very good and was so caring”*

“Most tourists I come across, send us emails, thanking us and I have never seen most of our guides being called for disciplinary hearing just because they have ill-treated some clients” (Interviewee, 34); *“some are even giving us their business cards so that we talk more on internet”* (Interviewee, 33) and *“yes they are getting satisfied and we get that information from the tourists’ testimonials”* (Interviewee, 30).

7.4.3 Rating 3: “Extremely satisfied”

Though this rating was constituted by the minority (9%); significant information was uncovered to substantiate this rating and again it was through various customer feedback platforms that most of the interviewees confirmed to have based their views upon. One interviewee had this to say *“client feedback during the trip or at Trip Advisor, mostly mention that the guide for company so and so was very good and was so caring, so I would say they are extremely satisfied”* (Interviewee,1)

Concluding on this sub-section, it should thus be noted that despite about 24% of the guides professing “indifference” about tourists’ satisfaction in the local tour guiding sector, an overwhelming majority (76%) seemed to concur that tourists are getting satisfied with the local guided tour experiences. These results were also found to be consistent with the observations from the quantitative survey findings on a similar question. Thus local guides should therefore be commended for the good efforts they are making to enhance tourists’ satisfaction, despite the harsh socio-economic and political environment that they are operating within. A comment from one interviewee aptly wrapped this up; *“Guides are performing well but being lowered by the economic situation in the country and the lowered morale in the country. As people work, they will at the same time be thinking of buying goods in South Africa for resell in Zimbabwe”* (Interviewee, 3).

7.5 Tour guide competences important in the co-creation of memorable tourism experiences

This section was motivated by the desire to fulfil sub-objective 3.2 which sought to assess tour guides’ perceptions on the important tour guide competences (in general) by means of an empirical analysis. This objective was also explored in order to later establish if the competences to co-create memorable tourism experiences would be any different from the important (general) tour guide competences.

7.5.1 *Important competences needed by tour/field guides*

Analysis of the responses to the respective question, elicited twenty one themes; which essentially are the competences deemed to be most important for an ideal tour/field guide to have. These were identified to be communication, confidence, cultural intelligence, responsiveness, ability to solve problems, reading and understanding tourist emotions, research, honesty, hospitality, innovation, knowledge of destination and products, multi-linguism, self-motivation, passion, political intelligence, presentation, tolerance, time management, tour leadership skills, organising skills and teaching skills. These competences are discoursed in the following sections.

7.5.1.1 Theme 1: Communication

Communication was observed to be one of the most important competences needed by tour/field guides as noted from the comments of some interviewees. One interviewee said *“I can say communication skills (is important) because you can have someone with knowledge but failing to impart the knowledge to some other person”* (Interviewee, 39). In addition, it was highlighted that,

“At times you tell them don’t walk there its slippery they walk there they break their leg, now they blame you to say you didn’t tell me enough. So always make sure you communicate and you are always on the safe side. If you have got more than two tourists communicate to them so that this one will know that that one knows that the guide said that” (Interviewee, 24). Shedding more light on how one would communicate, interviewee 18 commented that *“this communication should involve a lot of things that will include even your body language when talking to the tourist”*.

It is thus argued, from the findings, that communication is one of the most important competences needed by tour guides. This finding seems to validate earlier observations by scholars such as Zhang and Chow (2004:81-91) and Goh (2008:10) who noted the importance of communication skills in tour/field guides. Again these results support findings from the study’s quantitative phase where communication was positively rated by interviewees and attained a mean score of $M=4.66$ (above the median 3.0) and a positive Kurtosis statistic of 5.219 signifying coherence among interviewees on the importance of the variable.

7.5.1.2 Theme 2: Confidence

Confidence was also observed to be an important competence that tour guides would need since they are the first people who normally pick the client upon arrival from the airport. Interviewees explained that tour guides should express confidence especially in their first and subsequent impressions with visitors, in their smiles as well as the way they talk to the clients *“which should make visitors feel like they are home away from home”*

(Interviewee, 2). Examples to illustrate this theme include “tour guides need to have self-confidence” (Interviewee, 8) and “*tour guides need to practise English, show more confidence, if you show confidence, tourists will believe in you*” (Interviewee, 28).

These results seem to validate findings from the quantitative phase in which self-confidence was positively rated attaining a positive mean of $M=4.26$ as well as a positive Kurtosis of .219. More importantly these findings are also in consonance with the body of literature where self-confidence was noted to be one of the salient competences for frontline staff (Aydin *et al.*, 2005:701-719).

7.5.1.3 Theme 3: Cultural intelligence

Analysis of the interviews found that the theme of “cultural intelligence” can be subdivided into two sub-themes. These are “knowledge of cultural values and religious beliefs of tourists’ cultures” and “knowledge of local culture”.

Sub-theme 1: Knowledge of cultural values and religious beliefs of tourists’ cultures

A number of interviewees made comments regarding the importance of knowledge of cultural values and religious beliefs of tourists’ cultures among tour guides. One interviewee had this to say:

“You need to study about the culture in advance of their visit, for example with Indians it is taboo to greet the wife and the husband can beat you even at the airport if you are not careful. They do not prefer handshakes especially those who will be wearing the black gowns” (Interviewee, 1). Another interviewee added *“so like us when we get in the boat the first thing that I do is to ask, where they are from, so that I know how to deal with them. I know how to deal with a South African, I know how to deal with an American, I know how to deal with a Japanese, I know how to deal with an Australian through experience”* (Interviewee, 10).

These results seem to concur with the earlier observations by the Cultural Intelligence Centre (2005) in which they found that knowledge of cultural values and religious beliefs of people's cultures enhance employee performance in cross cultural settings. Findings from the quantitative phase of the study also corroborated the above results as "knowledge of cultural values and religious beliefs of tourists' cultures" registered a positive mean score of $M= 3.60$. However the variable attained a negative Kurtosis value of -0.198 signifying a relatively low coherence among the interviewees about the importance of the variable, thus denoting a need to further interrogate the theme.

Sub-theme 2: Knowledge of local culture

While interviewees acknowledged the value of knowing tourists' cultures so that one would better serve them, analysis of responses seems to show that the majority of interviewees emphasised more on the need for tour/field guides to know much about their own local culture, hence giving birth to the second sub-theme "knowledge of local culture". It was observed from further analysis that while tourists would appreciate a tour guide's knowledge of their (tourists) culture, what is most important however in a visit is to get to know as much about the destination's culture as possible. This is because guides are often the culture interpreters or culture-brokers—receiving "hordes of culture-hungry tourists" (Smith, 1992:135-157). Comments that illustrate this include:

"Culture is very critical, you cannot guide without understanding your culture" (Interviewee, 10) and *"local culture; I have seen it's a winner with most of the travellers regardless of their origin where they come from. I have tried to fuse in different aspects in a tour but I have realised that usually the winner will be your traditional living. You know I do a section in all my tours were I talk about myself, my upbringing, my rural background, how I came into guiding, how my folk back in the village relate with nature, how they use certain vegetation as medicinal remedy, how they see the value of cattle in our day to day lives. That's number one, just the general day to day life of the African person"* (Interviewee, 20).

Another interviewee had this to say *“the particular guest we now have, want to feel it, they do not want to be told they want to be there, they want to feel it. That’s the tourism we are facing now unlike before, because I started being in travel in 1986. So you find that then, we would just speak and show them these are the Falls and we have got the villages and we have got this life, but these days it’s very different. They want to feel what you are talking about. They do not want you to tell them, they are no longer gullible, now they want to go there and see the village. They want to be there, to see the first experience, kill a chicken, pluck it, cook it and eat it. Yes they want to experience it, they want to feel it, your basic life. It’s such that if you take guests to a village for a day, they are not satisfied, they come out there and they are still thirsty. But if you have an overnight experience were you light a fire, roast some groundnuts yes, you know, that’s the tourism that we now have”* (Interviewee, 24).

These findings therefore seem to validate earlier observations by scholars such as Huang *et al.*, (2010:6) who noted that tour guides are the cultural interface between the visitors and the host population playing a vital role in interpreting the host culture to visitors, thus signifying the importance of local cultural intelligence as a tour guiding competence. These results are also in harmony with earlier findings from the quantitative phase where all the various variables on cultural intelligence also attained some positive mean scores signifying their importance.

7.5.1.4 Theme 4: Responsiveness

Analysis of the interviews revealed that responsiveness is an important competence needed by tour/field guides. Responsiveness was commonly explained but in association with emergency response situations. Impressions from a number of interviewees indicated that tourists treasure guides who are responsive in an emergency situation so that their safety is guaranteed. Comments from interviewees illustrating this included:

“Clients are walking one falls and you hear they have got a broken bone and if the guide doesn’t know what to do, how to do a broken leg then it’s not a good thing...., If we

...speak of skills first aid becomes the major one” (Interviewee,5).

Interviewee 15 had this to say *“When a crocodile attacks your boat what are you supposed to do? For example, crocodiles always attack from underneath. It’s a surprise, you are just like peddling your boat and you are using a boat which does not use an engine so when the water is coming up its dirty and it’s like suddenly, you feel your boat stops and you don’t know now, you can’t just jump into the water. When you turn you see a huge crocodile and then what’s next? One thing can happen, this crocodile after grabbing that boat, it can spin with that boat. As a guide what do you do?”* (Interviewee, 15)

Emergency responsiveness thus becomes a very important competence needed by guides as tourists expect guides to rise above the situation at all times (Holloway, 1981:389). Responsiveness as a necessary competence for tour guides was also validated in the study’s quantitative phase as the competence scored positive mean and Kurtosis values of $M= 4.40$ and 0.076 .

7.5.1.5 Theme 5: Ability to solve problems

Closely related to the preceding theme, “ability to solve problems” also emerged as one of the important themes. One interviewee had this say to illustrate the validity of the theme: *“if it is a problem that can be solved, solve it and people get to enjoy the trip. It’s something that they have planned for a long time, they have saved money, they have saved time, they need to enjoy”* (Interviewee, 18). Through analysis of the responses, it was found that three sub-themes emerged under this theme and these were found to be “bravery”, “calmness” and “firmness”.

Sub-theme 1: Bravery

It was commonly reported amongst interviewees that guides need to be brave when addressing most problems. For example, one interviewee mentioned that *“They need to be brave, not only in front of clients, but you have to be brave even if when you are*

looking at animals. When there is an animal that is behaving very funny always talk to your clients that this is what might happen, when it does like this, we have to go like that. Just your appearance makes the clients to be brave as well, unfortunately I have seen a guide who actually ran away from a buffalo leaving the clients alone” (Interviewee, 15).

Interviewee 14 had this to say about his “bravery” experience *“He (bull elephant) turned and spotted us and came towards us immediately, charging at us but I told my clients to remain calm and to go behind the tree so it was me and the bull now, I shouted at him, clapped my hands, shouted at him, but he kept coming so I fired some warning shots and when he realised I stood my ground, he stopped, turned around and left. If he hadn’t stopped, the next thing was to pull him down but that will hurt you, it’s a thing of last resort. So after that I said yeah I have survived and also started checking if my clients were safe as well and yeah they were all safe”.*

One can thus appreciate that bravery is an important attribute that tour guides should apply when problem situations arise, as this will instil some confidence in tourists as well.

Sub-theme 2: Calmness

One interviewee had this to say to illustrate the need for tour guides to remain calm in the face of a difficult situation:

“Imagine you are flying seated next to the pilot and the plane is not doing well and you see him sweating and shivering. What would happen to everyone if the pilot is like that? But if everyone is shaking and he is not and says everything is under control and what is happening is one engine has lost power but the other one has got the capability and I am actually activating it. We should be safe and in about 10 minutes I would have radioed the next airstrip to allow us to land so sit back and relax, please enjoy your trip (but knowing that the situation is very tough). So calmness will count” (Interviewee, 20).

Thus when solving a problem it is argued that tour guides ought to remain calm, composed but should know how “to use their gun” (Interviewee, 3).

Sub-theme 3: Firmness

Findings from the study also revealed that tour guides need to be firm when dealing with tourists as the whole trip can be spoilt by a few miscellaneous behaving members of the tour group. For example, one interviewee remarked that: *“but don’t be too soft, especially when you are doing a walking safari. Some tourists are used to seeing animals in zoos where they can pet the animals and they may want to do that in the National Park. Don’t be too soft”* (Interviewee, 15).

Having discussed the associated sub-themes of the “ability to solve problems” theme, it is therefore worthy to conclude on this theme by pointing out that the theme is found to be consistent with the earlier observations of scholars such as Mossberg (1995:437-445) and Zhang and Chow (2004:81-91) that tour guides should have the ability to solve problems. In much the same manner, results of the study’s quantitative phase also validated the above findings in which “ability to solve problems” also attained a positive mean score and a positive Kurtosis of $M=4.43$ and 1.979 respectively.

7.5.1.6 Theme 6: Reading and understanding tourists’ emotions

The researcher noted from the interview responses that guides also need the ability to read and understand tourist emotions. Comments regarding this theme included;

“You must be able to read the mind of the tourist, their emotions. For example, some may be busy making noise and laughing while you are talking to them, they will ignore you so you must be able to read them and if it is appropriate to keep quiet, then keep quiet” (Interviewee,1).

Another interviewee added *“Whenever handling a tourist, you should quickly tell that, that is a manager that is the owner of, something that must be a boss that must be an army general. Be able to judge what kind of a client you are approaching and try to*

adjust yourself to their needs but keep drawing them to give you their attention as well" (Interviewee, 3). Similarly, Ang *et al.* (2007:335-371) found that frontline employees should be able to understand the needs and emotions of others. The importance of this competence is also substantiated by the positive mean and Kurtosis values obtained in the study's quantitative phase.

7.5.1.7 Theme 7: Honesty

The sixth theme that emerged from the analysis was "honesty". A large number of tourists highlighted the need for tour guides to be honest and trustworthy when dealing with tourists; which added more weight to the findings by Chang (2014:222). Comments given by interviewees relating to this theme included:

"If you don't know the answer, don't lie to them because those people research" (Interviewee, 22); *"were you do not know, be honest and say I will go and research..... One day I heard a guide explaining something. When you get into the Victoria Falls park nowadays on David Livingstone's statue, there are some canoes which are replicas of canoes that were used in the Zambezi river by the Tongas (local tribes) long ago, so there is a tourists who asked that "is this the canoe that was used by David Livingstone? and the guide said yes, yes, yes which was incorrect"* (Interviewee, 45). Another interviewee also added: *"you should be very careful let's say someone loses something be very honest, you have to take it back to the client"* (Interviewee, 11).

These findings are also consistent with the study's quantitative phase results in which honest and trustworthiness attained both the positive mean and Kurtosis static of M=4.77 and 10.961 respectively. It should also be noted that it was this competence which ranked the highest in terms of importance when using the Kendal's Rank Analysis method.

7.5.1.8 Theme 8: Hospitality

A number of interviewees concurred that hospitality is another important competence

that guides need for example, one interviewee mentioned that *“it also depends on your hospitality. You need to be very much hospitable”* (Interviewee, 12). Nonetheless, during the analysis of the key references to Hospitality, the researcher found that this theme was mostly being defined in terms of *“the ability to love people”* (Interviewee, 24); *“understanding the personal needs of tourist”* (Interviewee, 13) and *“being polite”* (Interviewee, 4) which in essence can also be regarded to be related to the “right attitude to service” and “paying attention to detail”; variables applied in the quantitative phase of this study. Comments illustrating this theme include:

“You have to be someone who love to be with the people, somebody who love people, that’s a number one quality, because if you don’t love people you are in the wrong industry” (Interviewee,24). Another interviewee had this to say “you should be able to identify and understand the personal needs of the tourist. You should ask *“would you need a rest room?” We are going for two hours out of town don’t forget your medical equipment”* (Interviewee, 3).

Thus “Hospitality”, which in this particular context is being associated with “right attitude to service” and “paying attention to detail” is argued to be another important competence for tour/field guides. The finding seems to validate findings of Wang *et al.* (2007:361–376) and Zhang and Chow (2004:81-91) in which the right attitude to service was seen to be important for guides.

7.5.1.9 Theme 9: Innovation

Innovation emerged to be another salient competence that tour/ field guides would need and analysis of results revealed that the theme could however be further divided into two sub-themes namely “flexibility” and “sense of humour”.

Sub-theme 1: Flexibility

One interviewee had this to say to substantiate this theme *“as the guide you are not doing it for the paper but for the customer to enjoy. I can have the itinerary from the*

office but I can change it just to make the clients enjoy” (Interviewee, 38). In addition, Interviewee 6 had this to say “We had a breakdown at the middle of nowhere... instead of waiting in the vehicle I decided that we do something different, in my itinerary I didn’t have a village tour but I ended up doing it and it was an extra for the people and they never complained, they actually enjoyed” (Interviewee, 6).

Similar to Chowdhary and Prakash (2009:169) it is thus notable that tour guides need some degree of flexibility to enhance their guests’ experiences. Quantitative results of the study support this finding on the basis of a positive mean score and Kurtosis recorded on the “flexibility and adaptability” competence.

Sub-theme 2: Humorous

Quotations to illustrate this theme included comments such as:

“You also need to put a little bit of humour you just don’t have to be serious when you are talking, then they will be happy about it. You can use them as an example. You can say John and Judy I would like to use you as examples as we go through this topic are you comfortable with that? If they are comfortable then you can start using them” (Interviewee, 22).

“Humour is very important because as a guide, you are not a lecturer who is just pouring out data. You should put in some jokes, some personal anecdotes. For example, people ask about marriage systems in Zimbabwe. I always give myself as an example to say, when I went to marry I was made to sit on the ground, we clapped our hands.... So put personal anecdotes to explain may be a funeral, religion etc. This may help to release the tension of the visitor. Humour helps” (Interviewee, 45).

The above results therefore seem to suggest that tour/field guides need to be innovative in their operations and can reflect this skill for example by using the tourists as the role players during storytelling, so that the story is better understood. In addition they can show some innovation through “independently” adjusting or redefining the trip itinerary to

make tourists enjoy the trip. Results in the quantitative phase support these findings as both sub-themes attained positive means and Kurtosis ratings to substantiate their importance. Similarly the results seem to add weight to earlier observations by Chowdhary and Prakash (2009:169) and Zhang and Chow (2004:81-91) on the importance of a tour guide's flexibility and sense of humour respectively.

7.5.1.10 Theme 10: Knowledge of destination and products

Comments given by interview interviewees regarding this theme showed the need for versatility among guides that is demonstrated by a broad based knowledge base on a number of key subjects. Comments from interviewees included: *"There is need to know the rules and regulations of our country, especially the National Parks laws, for example clients should not jump from the vehicle while in the park"* (Interviewee, 1) and *"being a tour guide you should be able to cover a wide spectrum of Africa in general ... I believe we should cover things like economics, local culture, yes wildlife flora and fauna"* (Interviewee, 20).

"So there is a lot that you have to know, there are types of animals, like elephants in "must"; which before I didn't know that if an elephant is in must then it's a very dangerous animal. That animal can do anything. It's in must because it's now time for them to have sexual activities with the females, but maybe there is a dominant bull in the herd which doesn't allow it to come to the ladies and it has got all this stress and thus very dangerous. So you have to know all this" (Interviewee, 15).

In addition to the above, some interviewees highlighted other things guides should know *"as a guide one should know even about hotels, how many stars they are etc. The population of a place, what they survive on, their sources of income etc."* (Interviewee, 42); *"the world current affairs, the GDP of the country, which minerals bring foreign currency to the country"* (Interviewee, 40) and *"the temperatures, what's going to happen on that day"* (Interviewee, 37). *"Astronomy is also important. The guide must know the sky"* (Interviewee, 18). *"If you are doing a 21 days tour with the clients you must at most fail to answer 1 question from the client, you get asked what type is that bird?, I don't*

know I will check, what's the name of that flower?, I will check, what's the name of that animal?, I will check, it becomes boring now to the tourists you need to be knowledgeable in almost everything, you have to read a lot" (Interviewee, 6)

This analysis therefore shows that a guide should be knowledgeable in almost a bit of everything concerning the destination; starting from the attractions, amenities, accessibility, activities, the socio economic and political environment, to mention just but a few. Thus a guide is to operate as an all-rounder in terms of knowledge dissemination to the visitors. The need for tour/field guides to have knowledge of the destination is confirmed by scholars for example, Zhang and Chow (2004:81-91). Results from the current study's quantitative phase support the above findings as evidenced by the positive mean and Kurtosis scores attained by the knowledge of destination and products variable.

7.5.1.11 Theme 11: Multi-linguism

Interview results also showed that interviewees view multi-linguism as an important competence that tour guides need. One interviewee had this to say *"We have different tourists that come to our country, so we need tour guides to learn other languages like French, Korean and Chinese. There is need to go an extra mile in learning the languages of the tourists, like the basic phrases used in communication"* (Interviewee, 1). This view was supported by another interviewee who commented that *"the biggest challenge we face is that most of the language that was used during training was English when yet we also get to meet Japanese and so many other nationals. So communication is the challenge. There would be communication barriers with the tourists"* (Interviewee, 33).

These findings are in sync with results from the quantitative phase in which multilingual ability attained positive mean and Kurtosis scores which was also found to be consistent with scholarly observations of Chowdhary and Prakash (2009:164).

7.5.1.12 Theme 12: Self-Motivation

A large number of interviewees indicated that tour/field guides need to have “self-motivation” as another salient competence for their profession. It was explained that guides should not be motivated by money to join the industry but should have the genuine love for the trade. Interviewee 13 had this to say; *“Tourism is not an industry that you say I want to join because I want to make money. It will be very difficult for people who want to join because they want to make money. Working in the tourism industry should come from you; you should be somebody who has got people at heart. You should be able to work with people. If you are somebody who just wants to join because your friend is in tourism, or you will get money out of it, you will find it difficult to stay even in one company”*.

In view of the above observations, it is thus concluded that tour/field guides need “self-motivation” in order to perform well, as guides who lack self-motivation tend to *“compromise and become unethical because of money”* (Interviewee, 45). These findings confirm earlier observations by Cavelzani *et al.* (2003:6) that frontline staff needs “self-motivation’. Though this competence has been confirmed to be important, it should however be noted that it was not empirically tested in the study. The quantitative phase of the study aimed to assess tour/field guides’ display of interpersonal competences as perceived by the tourists. Self-motivation is only appropriately self-assessed by the concerned tour guides themselves. Thus it was deemed inappropriate to assess “self-motivation” in the quantitative survey as that would not be objectively assessed by using the customer based approach which the study applied (Delcour *et al.*, 2015:3).

7.5.1.13 Theme 13: Passion

“Passion” is another theme that emerged from the analysis of responses. Comments from interviewees illustrating this theme included:

“The most important quality is enjoying your job, personally yourself” (Interviewee, 15) and *“he must also be an energetic person, able to work for long hours. Let’s say tourists*

want to get to the peak of mount Nyangani, as a tour guide you cannot then say I am tired I cannot carry on with the journey” (Interviewee, 26).

Based on the study results, it is thus argued that similar to Zhang and Chow (2004:81-91)’s findings, passion which the authors also regard to be synonymous with enthusiasm is another important competence of a tour/field guide. Enthusiasm attained a positive mean score of M=4.49 and a Kurtosis of 1.126 in the quantitative phase, thus validating the importance of this theme.

7.5.1.14 Theme 14: Political Intelligence

Quotes illustrating the importance of this theme include: *“do not discuss politics when you are out on a tour” (Interviewee, 12)* and *“you don’t have to ask clients about their religion or political affiliation because it might be offending them” (Interviewee, 8).* Another interviewee had this to say, *“People should try by all means to avoid discussing politics with clients, but sometimes clients put you in a corner. Otherwise try to show that you are defending the sovereignty of the country or at least be as balanced as possible. Try to be balanced. You may be an MDC supporter or a ZANU (PF) supporter Try to balance it all, but above all try to be patriotic” (Interviewee, 45).*

One can thus deduce especially from the later opinion that, within the political intelligence domain, tour guides need to show optimism and positive thinking, especially in the Zimbabwean context that the socio-political situation will improve at some point. While supported by the positive mean score results from the study’s quantitative phase, optimism and positive thinking is also identified as one of the important tour/field guide competences by scholars, for example by Aydin *et al.* (2005:701-719).

7.5.1.15 Theme 15: Presentation

Some interviewees explained that tour guides need to have good presentation skills. The “presentation skills” are synonymous with what had been theorised as “appearing neat and tidy” in the quantitative survey instrument. Comments illustrating the

importance of this competence were: *“A good tour guide must look presentable”* (Interviewee, 12); *“Present yourself well to them so that that they can have faith in you from the onset”* (Interviewee, 16); *“you should be well groomed”* (Interviewee, 34) and *“you need to be presentable”* (Interviewee, 14).

It is thus concluded that similarly to Zhang and Chow (2004:81-91)'s findings tour/field guides need the good presentation competences to succeed in their work. This observation was also validated in the quantitative survey results as the appearing neat and tidy competence attained a positive mean score of $M=4.27$ and however a lowly Kurtosis statistic of 0.190, signifying a relatively low coherence of tourists' opinions on the subject.

7.5.1.16 Theme 15: Research

Analysis of the interview results showed that tour guides need to research extensively and that they should always have current information and should be up to date with the current affairs at either the local, regional or the global scale. For example, some interviewees had this to say: *“And you should enjoy doing a lot of research”* (Interviewee, 15); *“you should read newspapers and don't take that for granted. For example, the tourist will say yesterday I read this and that about Victoria Falls and Harare, did you see it? If you are not aware then already you are inefficient on your side”* (Interviewee, 38). Another interviewee had this to say; *“a tour guide who has finished training has only 10% of what he is supposed to do so one should not stop learning just because they have acquired a license”* (Interviewee 28).

One can thus comfortably argue that the ability to research, as similarly propounded by Salaazar (2006); is also a very important competence needed by tour guides to excel in their field. The quantitative phase of the study did not directly assess tour guides' ability to research as it was felt to be too intrapersonal a skill, which customers would not be competent enough to assess. Nonetheless there are other competences associated with it, that were assessed in the quantitative survey like knowledge of tourists' culture, knowledge of the destination and its products which one would argue

to be, to a large extent, a function of the tour guide's research abilities. Thus by virtue of these other research "dependent" competences having been positively rated in the quantitative survey results to be important by tourists, one can then also infer that "research" is also an important competence that guides should have.

7.5.1.17 Theme 17: Tolerance

Another theme that was elicited from the interview results was "Tolerance". One interviewee had this to say: *"You have to be very tolerant because at times you might go for a trip or may be to Botswana and you do not see a lion, by the time you are about to leave for the other place, they are like asking, where are the lions?"* (Interviewee, 24) another interviewee added *"one should also learn to deal with elderly people. Some will be too old, they will need help...or someone will be too inquisitive you will need to know how to handle such issues"* (Interviewee, 21).

Tolerance is thus emerging to be one of the important competences needed by a tour guide. These results are also supported by earlier findings from Aydin *et al.* (2005:701-719) who identified tolerance to be an important emotional intelligence skill needed by the frontline employees. The positive mean score of $M=4.30$ derived in the quantitative survey serve to validate the importance of this skill. Nonetheless, the Kurtosis statistic of the competence was a negative $-.432$ signifying a very low coherence among interviewees (DeCarlo, 1997:292-307). A possible cause for this low coherence could be that while tolerance skill is considered to be important, not all tourists will tolerate being inconvenienced in their trip by the other tour members who might need extra care like the elderly and the children, thus possibly the negative Kurtosis.

7.5.1.18 Theme 18: Time management

It is also clear from the results that most interviewees emphasised on the time management abilities of a guide. Comments illustrating this theme included: *"be on time when you go and pick up a client, may be 10 to 15 minutes earlier. They are very time conscious"* (Interviewee, 22).

This finding is similar to that of Zhang and Chow (2004:81-91) who also noted that time management or punctuality is an important skill needed by the tour guides. Findings from the quantitative study also validate these results as both the mean and Kurtosis scores for this competence were positive being M=4.48 and 2.815 respectively.

7.5.1.19 Theme 19: Tour leadership skills

Analysis of responses seems to indicate that tour leadership is another important tour/field guide competence. For example, one interviewee had this to say:

“planning before the trip what the tourist need to see, planning ahead what the tourist needs to see, how much they want to spend, the activities they want to do etc. is vital” (Interviewee, 27)

This theme therefore seems to be in consonance with observations by Collins (2000:13) and Pond (1993:17) in which the guide is also referred to as a tour leader, tour administrator, tour conductor or tour manager thus denoting how it is important for the guides to have some leadership skills. The study’s quantitative results also seem to validate these findings as leadership registered a positive mean score of M= 4.03 and positive Kurtosis statistic of. 934.

7.5.1.20 Theme 20: Organising skills

Analysis of responses elicited “organising skills” as an important competence needed by tour/field guides to do better in their work. One interviewee had this to say to illustrate the importance of this theme:

“Be organised in the way you guide like this one where I was a tour leader. I stayed in Zambia, Livingstone, so for the wake up calls I would go and check all that and some had dietary requirements, some did not eat pork and I would check all that. Do you know that a person who is regarded to be boring in tourism industry is the one who will be doing the job in the right way? Because he is trying to make sure things will move well” (Interviewee, 45).

This theme is validated by Hughes (1991:166-172) that tour guides need to be effective in organising tours. Results from the study's quantitative phase also confirmed the above findings in which the organising skills were found to have a positive mean score of $M=4.49$ and Kurtosis statistic of 2.422.

7.5.1.21 Theme 21: Teaching skills

Teaching skills also emerged as one of the important competences tour/field guides should not lack. This observation was supported by one of the interviewees who had this to say:

"A tour guide is a teacher, it's just that you do not have a classroom but is a teacher. So that's why I emphasise knowledge because if a teacher does not have knowledge, there will be nothing to teach in the classroom, so teaching skills are very important for tour guides" (Interviewee, 45).

Consistent with the above findings, the researcher therefore argues that tour guides need teaching skills in order to perform better. This observation is also in sync with findings by the Tourism Authority of Thailand (1993:7) where they found out that a tour guide should give information and answer questions with the skill of a teacher. In the quantitative phase of the study, teaching skills had a positive mean of $M= 4.04$.

To conclude on this sub-section, it should be noted that the analysis of interview responses elicited twenty one, competences (or 24 when factoring in the sub-themes) which were regarded to be important for tour/field guides to possess. The number of competences deducted can thus be considered to be reasonable when especially considering that they were drawn from just but this single study, whereas the forty two competences conceptualised in the quantitative survey instrument had been synthesised from as many studies. The important tour/field guide competences thus identified in this study were communication, confidence, cultural intelligence, responsiveness, ability to solve problems, reading and understanding tourist emotions, research, honesty, hospitality, innovation, knowledge of destination and products, multi-linguism, self-

motivation, passion, political intelligence, presentation, tolerance, time management, tour leadership skills, organising skills and teaching skills. All the above twenty one competences were validated by results from the quantitative survey except for only two namely “self-motivation” and “research” which were not directly assessed during the quantitative survey for reasons already explained.

This section aimed at identifying the important competences tour guides generally need to perform effectively in the field. The next section however, now seeks to zero in on specifically uncovering those particular competences, that tour guides need to co create memorable tourism experiences. It will thus be interesting to establish if these competences will be part of the already identified twenty one generic competences or not.

7.5.2 *Tour guide competences to co-create memorable tourism experiences*

In this section, tour guides were asked to recall a memorable guided tour experience that they had in the past, identify when it occurred, the place where it occurred, duration of trip, the role played by the guide, any competences applied to make the tourist experience memorable. Consistent with other memorable tourism experience studies for example by Kim *et al.* (2012:12-25) and Ritchie and Tung (2011:1367-1387) the researcher also assumed that the remembered positive competences would most likely be the ones needed to co-create memorable experiences.

7.5.2.1 *Theme 1: Ability to entertain*

A large number of interviewees positively recalled how they had entertained their clients during their tours, suggesting that “the ability to entertain” is a competence that can be used to co-create memorable tourism experiences. One interviewee who remembered a gorge tour of the Zambezi River with some old aged Korean tourists in the year 2015 had this to say:

“To entertain the group, so that they do not get weary going up the gorge, I had to

compose a song, a Korean song that talked about the Zambezi River. We had to sing that song together as we went down the gorge, they were very happy, they took pictures, bathed and took pictures and we went up the gorge singing the same song again. They were so excited to the extent that even up to now they are calling me the name “Jambezi” because of their accent they cannot pronounce “Zambezi” so clearly. The song I composed talked about the flow of the Zambezi River, how it flows from its source right through to its mouth in the Indian Ocean, they were very happy. No one fainted, no one was helped and this amused a lot of people because when most old people do the gorge tour they are pulled and helped, I believe that song strengthened the clients” (Interviewee,1).

It is therefore argued that “the ability to entertain” is an important competence needed to co-create memorable tourism experience. The ability to entertain, is also emphasised by Holloway (1981:377-402) which validates the above findings. The ability to entertain was also confirmed to be important through the results of the Principal Confirmatory Factor Analysis performed in the study’s quantitative phase, in which the “ability to entertain” competence was extracted under the “Personality traits” factor (see section 6.8.1).

7.5.2.2 Theme 2: Flexibility

Flexibility emerged from the analysis of responses to be one of the key competences to co-create memorable tourism experiences. Recalling how he managed to achieve his first and only helicopter ride above the Victoria Falls about ten years ago, interviewee 16 had this to say:

“It’s because I had made them visit the village. It was not part of their itinerary originally.... . so they marvelled at the suggestion and really welcomed it. ...So they were really excited with the experience and when they went for a helicopter ride above the Falls, they said no no, no we will pay for you we will go with our driver we will not leave him behind” Interviewee 6 had this to say in addition: “In my itinerary I didn’t have

a village tour but I ended up doing it and it was an extra for the people and they never complained they actually enjoyed”.

It is thus argued that flexibility, which is an important tour guide competence, is also key in the co-creation of memorable tourism experiences. Empirical findings from the quantitative phase’s Confirmatory Factor Analysis validated this competence as flexibility is one of the variables that were retained under the emotional intelligence factor when other initial factor loadings were being dropped. These findings are also consistent with Chowdhary and Prakash (2009:169) who argue that tour guides need to be flexible in their work.

7.5.2.3 Theme 3: Knowledge of local culture

While the Cultural Intelligence Centre (2005) suggests that in cultural settings, employees ought to know the cultural values and beliefs of other people empirical findings seem however, to indicate that the employees (tour guides) should instead know more of their local culture as opposed to knowing more of the tourists’. Thus it emerged during the analysis of responses that knowledge of local culture is another competence needed by guides. One interviewee had this to say to illustrate this theme:

“Yeah especially they loved the history, the history of the African people and how they actually relate to their surroundings. So they were very, very happy about it because some of the information that they get from the internet is not very, very correct as some of the people that write the information are not from the tribes of those people so they do not give precise information. Now I was speaking precisely about the Tonga tradition and I am a Tonga as well, so when I am speaking I am speaking from experience and that becomes exciting and the person who hears me speaking about it become excited because he can tell that the person is speaking from the soul not something that he read in a book” (Interviewee, 8).

This finding is therefore consistent with Kim *et al.* (2012:12-25)’s finding that local culture is a determinant of a memorable tourism experience.

7.5.2.4 Theme 4: Knowledge of local marriage systems

Similar to the preceding theme, knowledge of local marriage systems emerged to be one of the key competences to co create memorable tourism experiences as illustrated by the following comments from the interviewees:

“Now these clients needed to know about polygamy in Zimbabwe in particular and Africa in general so I was kind of a little bit hesitant . . . I started the topic and then when I finished it was now question and answer and they wanted to know everything. How does polygamy occur and how are the duties shared and who is in charge more of the duty roster? Is it the husband who says I will be with wife number 1 2 3 or 4 or is it the first wife? I had to give them all the details as they were and those had a memorable experience. . . That was my most memorable experience just talking about the African culture. We were in the bush to see the animals but now that they wanted to know a culture in Africa which is like taboo and I was willing to share with them, they enjoyed, they had a memorable experience I also enjoyed because they were asking a lot of questions” (Interviewee,19).

This finding is also consistent with Kim *et al.* (2012:12-25)’s finding that local culture is a determinant of memorable tourism experience. Despite the study’s quantitative empirical results having confirmed knowledge of marriage systems of tourists to be key as validated by the Confirmatory Factor Analysis results, the qualitative results however seem to complement these findings by suggesting that guides also need to know more about their own local culture marriage systems as well.

7.5.2.5 Theme 5: Knowledge of destination and products

Knowledge of destination and products also emerged as another key competence to co-create memorable tourism experience as illustrated by the following comment from one of the interviewees:

“It was a bird watching expedition when I took the clients for an early morning cruise to

the river to look for birds and that one became the most memorable tour I had among my other ones because he saw one of the birds he was ever looking for, known as the “African Skimmer”. The other one is called the “Fin foot”. He was desperate, he went through Namibia he could not find one, he went through Botswana he could not find one either. We saw the bird when we had just started the cruise and the day became so memorable to me as it was accompanied by a lot of photographs for me and him, the same tourist will be coming back in May this year” (Interviewee, 3).

Knowledge of birds and where on the destination these would likely be seen was thus instrumental in making the experience memorable. It can therefore be argued that knowledge of destination and products is a key competence to co-create memorable tourism experience. This finding is also validated by the Confirmatory Factor Analysis results of the quantitative survey in which the competence was retained with a factor loading greater than 0.7 (Zikmund *et al.*, 2013:696).

7.5.2.6 Theme 6: Right attitude with respect to service

One interviewee had this to say to substantiate the theme “It was about five or four days here in Victoria Falls. I had twelve blind tourists and twelve who could see. I was really interested with the tour. So I chaffed myself, touring blind people wow! Just imagine touring people who could not see! So I was touring blind people, explaining to the one who could see and him in turn explaining to those who could not see. Those people were very good and they really appreciated and it was so memorable to me” (Interviewee, 31).

It can thus be deduced that the ability of the guide to maintain a right attitude to service when dealing with guest (more so of different abilities as in this story); is what also contributed to the experience becoming memorable. This finding is also consistent with the quantitative survey results where the right attitude to service competence was confirmed in the Confirmatory Factor Analysis by loading under the Emotional intelligence factor. While in literature, right attitude to service can be said to have been viewed to be just an important tour guide competence in general (Ap & Wong,

2001:551; Wang *et al.*, 2007:361–376; Zhang & Chow, 2004:81-91); empirical findings therefore suggest that the competence is not just important but can be applied to elevate the guest experience into a memorable one.

7.5.2.7 Theme 7: Commitment

Analysis of the interview responses also elicited “commitment” as one of the important thematic areas. Interviewee 43 had this to say to validate the theme:

“I was pushing an old lady on the wheelchair in the Victoria Falls sometime last year in 2015. This old lady had told herself that I was not her guide and her actual guide was far ahead with the other tourists and I would not be of much help to her. But the moment I started explaining to her, she became more and more interested. At the end of the trip the old lady was now bragging about that, saying “you should have all said you need some wheelchairs so that you would get your private tour guides like me!” She said what she got was more than what the rest of the group got; she even wrote a recommendation letter to my company appreciating the exceptional service I had given her. So I think my commitment to the job is what really counted here”.

These results corroborate earlier findings from Aydin *et al.* (2005:701-719) that employees would need to have commitment as part of their emotional intelligence skills. Commitment was also validated as one of the key competences to co-create memorable tourism experiences by the Confirmatory Factor Analysis results of the quantitative survey.

7.5.2.8 Theme 8: Leadership skills

Leadership skills also emerged to be one of the key tour guide competences to co-create memorable tourism experiences. Comments illustrating this theme include:

“I will never forget such a trip were I had almost like thirty clients from different places. There were South Africans, Namibians and people from the United States, people from Australia and people from England. In that trip ... they were in one accord everything we

did it looked like they were brothers and sisters, when we went to get some fire wood, to make some fire everybody was involved, cooking, everybody was involved, when we were singing all they did was to learn a couple of lines and later on they blended in like they were part of the guys that knew the song earlier on...in that trip, leadership competence was one of them. Instead of tiring as they were getting here, they enjoyed. This was because of my leadership mostly” (Interviewee, 5).

This finding is in consonance with earlier findings by Salazar (2006:833–852) that leadership is one of the essential competences required by tour guides. It is important to note that leadership, is one of the competences that was also confirmed to be important during the quantitative study’s Confirmatory Factor Analysis as it attained a factor loading above 0.7 and loaded under the Personality Trait factor.

7.5.2.9 Theme 9: Interpreting skills

A tour guide’s ability to interpret was regarded by interviewees as one of the key competences to co-create memorable tourism experiences. One of the interviewees had this to say to illustrate the significance of this theme: *“They were impressed by my language skills as a guide.... they were impressed not only about the answers, but also about the way I answered. So they asked me; have you been a teacher before and I said yes” (Interviewee, 45).*

Similarly to the above findings, Black and Ham (2005:178) acknowledge that tour guides should be equipped by some good interrelation skills to succeed in their work. Interpreting skills were also confirmed by the Confirmatory Factor Analysis to be an important competence to co-create memorable tourism experience.

7.5.2.10 Theme: 10 Problem solving

The analysis of interview responses also elicited “problem solving” as one of the competences that tour guides need to co-create memorable tourism experiences. Quotes from the interviewees that illustrate this theme include;

“So I am happy that I addressed the problem that was going to happen before it became an issue. Half a time people tend to ignore these issues and the next thing you have complaining guests. Once you get the issue, the best way to address on the ground during the tour, during that time, rather than to let them go and then in their feedback they will start complaining after they have left. So you have to address it” (Interviewee, 18).

“The client saw a cobra in the toilet. It was raising up its head ready to strike, it was just behind the door. The client screamed. If I pushed the door it would strike. So I broke the burglar bars and forced him out through the window” (Interviewee, 28).

“So we took our beautiful pictures of the lions. The lions walked, came closer to the vehicle and we took nice videos. When it was time to leave I discovered that one of the tires had gone flat and the sun was almost setting. The lions were about 3 meters away from our jeep which was now stuck. I looked at everyone and they were scared; we were in an open jeep. I eventually struck a plan; I called the other guide to come and drive parallel to my vehicle and asked my clients to move into the other jeep to join the other seven clients without making them step on the ground. That other jeep was now overloaded with 14 clients but they were safely taken to the lodge and I had to remain in the broken down vehicle with an assistant guide until around 9pm when they sent another vehicle. The lions were still lying there” (Interviewee, 20).

The above findings therefore validate earlier observations by Min (2012:155-167) that the ability to solve problems is an important competence of a guide. Results from the quantitative phase nonetheless did not seem to concur with this finding as the “ability to solve problems” variable was not extracted by the Confirmatory Factor Analysis. Possible reason for this could be that the majority of tourists might not have experienced some problems during their tour and thus were indifferent to the question. Nevertheless, the importance of this competence, in general, should not be underestimated as earlier on, the quantitative analysis results had confirmed a positive mean score of $M=4.43$ and a Kurtosis statistic of 1.979 for the variable.

7.5.2.11 Theme 11: Responsiveness

Findings from the study seem to indicate that responsiveness is one of the key competences recalled by quite a number of interviewees, thus validating previous findings by Holloway (1981:389) that guides should be responsive and adjust themselves to the needs of the tourists. This theme is also closely related to the preceding one “ability to solve problems”. One will discover therefore, that in this study, responsiveness was reported mostly in connection with emergency response situations. Interviewees’ views that illustrate this theme include:

“When I realised that the winds were just too much, I pulled off the boat from the river and parked by the banks. I checked if everyone was safe and okay. They really appreciated how I had controlled the boat out of the storm” (Interviewee, 41).

Another interviewee commented: *“I was walking up a hill with clients; I was on the hill and didn’t know that a lion was coming up the hill from the other side. So I was in front and the clients were behind me so this lioness had cubs and I actually walked past the cubs without noticing them on the side so I was now between the mother and the cubs. When the lioness, the mother, noticed that there are some people coming, she charged and when she was coming close I noticed that it was becoming a dangerous situation, I had to fire up a warning shot and she stopped, fortunate enough the cub went to her mother, so she stood there and we were about 5 meters from each other. She stood there grumbling, growling and scratching on the ground and I stood my ground and told my clients to stay motionless. So after that shot I fired, the lion stopped and after 5 seconds she turned away and followed her cub and everything was fine after that”* (Interviewee, 13)

Responsiveness was however not supported by the quantitative phase’s results as the variable failed to load among the extracted competences to co-create memorable tourism experiences. Again the reason for this could possibly have been that the majority of tourists might not have gone through much difficult experiences in the past that required guides to display this ability. Nonetheless, the importance of this skill, in

general terms, is undoubted as it was supported by positive mean and Kurtosis scores of M=4.40 and 0.070 respectively.

7.5.2.12 Theme 12: Optimism and determination

Optimism is another theme that emerged during analysis of the interviews and is classified under emotional intelligence by scholars (Aydin *et al.*, 2005:701-719). While Interviewees commonly recalled some memories associated with optimism and determination during their past experiences with tourists, thus confirming that Optimism and positive thinking are key competences to co-create memorable tourism experiences. Comments that illustrate this competence include:

“Now all the three hundred tourists had arrived at once, on the Zambian side of the border. The border would close at 8pm and this was around 6pm. They had to fill visas manually before the border closed and we had no accommodation for them in Zambia, we had it in Zimbabwe. They agreed to serve my clients and to extend with about 30 minutes more so things started going on well until I don’t know who told the Chief Immigration Officer, because we were dealing with juniors. He shouted to me “madam you are putting this country at risk by keeping the border open”! Do you realise I have a country to protect? He shouted to his guys close the gate! Now it was so disheartening because the guests were waiting. I held the gate and said no sir let them just pass through; I will talk to you tomorrow. I practically held that gate when the security guards where closing it. I said no, no, no, this gate is not going to be closed I want these people to get in. The Chief Immigration Officer said you are fired, I said I do not need a job I just need these people to come in first and then you can keep your job and I will find another one. This happened around 2009” (Interviewee, 24).

It can thus be noted from the example that optimism and determination were applied here to make the guided experience more successful. The researcher therefore concludes that optimism and determination are key competences to co-create memorable tourism experiences. This finding is supported by the results from the quantitative phase of the study in which optimism and positive thinking were extracted in

the Confirmatory Factor Analysis performed to determine the key competences to co-create memorable tourism experiences.

7.5.2.13 Theme 13: Mindfulness of others' cultural preferences

Mindfulness of others cultural preferences and norms was elicited as another theme under this sub-section to validate earlier observations by the Cultural Intelligence Centre (2005) in which they theorise that employees who work in cross cultural settings must have this skill. One of the interviewees had this to say;

“Sometimes I have to crack my head and think how I can make my clients very happy. I research about the group before it comes. I research about things done in America which they want to do when they come here. I research about their culture, for example, if a tourist is coming from Nigeria, I talk about Nigeria winning the Africa Nations Soccer Cup, I pick one or two things that are found in that country, it can be food, it can be soccer, it should be an area where the country is doing well for example, movies if the country has the best actors” (Interviewee, 1).

“Culture is very critical you cannot guide without understanding your culture and where the people are coming from, how do you deal with for example Americans? Americans will present as if no problem has happened, for example let's say you are in an overnight camp, you are cooking they are watching you, you are not washing your hands, you go elsewhere and you come back you must wash your hands clean and make sure everything is clean and they are looking at that. When you are serving food they will say my friend we are okay we will eat tomorrow today we are okay, they will even say thank you it's okay, they talk to you they might not display it to you so you think it was right. If you understand people then it will not be a problem. It's a problem if you don't understand them” (Interviewee, 10).

It can thus be argued from the findings that being mindful of other people's culture and preferences can lead to memorable tourism experiences. This finding is also in consonance with results from the quantitative survey in which the concerned

competence was extracted during the Confirmatory Factor Analysis and loaded under the Cultural Intelligence domain. It also appears that the findings are in sync with the observations by Bharwani and Jauhari (2013:823-843) that it is important for front line staff to have cultural sensitivity and mindfulness of others' cultural preferences and norms before and during interactions.

7.5.2.14 Theme 14: Knowledge of the rules (vocabulary, grammar) of tourists' languages

One interviewee had this to share to illustrate that knowledge of the rules of tourists' languages is a key competence to co-create memorable tourism experiences: *"They were impressed by my language skills as a guide, because they were French and Belgians. I speak very good French. I was able to answer most of their questions to their satisfaction... So they were impressed"* (Interviewee, 45). *"We had a trip to Botswana and we were driving from Victoria Falls and I was telling them about Zimbabwe in general. The clients were very happy about the way I spoke English, they were very happy. The clients were from United States of America. They were impressed by the English"* (Interviewee, 9).

While previous findings from the Cultural Intelligence Centre (2005) theorised that employees working in cross cultural settings need to have knowledge of the rules of other peoples' languages to perform effectively, the current results however extend that theory to suggest that the competence is also vital in the co-creation of memorable tourism experiences.

To conclude on this section, it should be appreciated that about fourteen themes emerged from the analysis of responses and the themes resemble the key competences tour/field guides need to co-create memorable tourism experiences. The competences were found to be the ability to entertain, flexibility, knowledge of local culture, knowledge of local marriage systems, knowledge of destination and products, right attitude with respect to service, commitment, leadership skills, interpreting skills, problem solving, responsiveness, optimism and determination, mindfulness of others' cultural preferences

and norms and knowledge of the vocabulary and grammar of tourists' languages. The majority of these competences were validated by the findings from the quantitative phase of the study.

Competences that emerged in the qualitative study but not validated by the quantitative findings were only two, namely; the problem solving skills and responsiveness. The causes for this discrepancy were noted to be partially linked to the possible lack of so difficult experiences during the guided tours that could have warranted the display of these competences by guides. The relatively short average length of stay of the tourists noted to be 2 nights in the quantitative results (see Figure 6.7 in Chapter six) also meant that the majority of the tourists did not get enough opportunities to experience the problem solving and the emergency responsiveness abilities of the local guides due to the limited length of stay hence limited interaction periods. Nevertheless, since experiences have been noted to be subjective, the variance can also be regarded to be a validation of Tung and Ritchie's (2011:1370) finding that tourism experiences are highly idiosyncratic and will thus appeal differently to different people.

Another important observation from the results is that while several competences have emerged to be important for tour/field guides (twenty one or twenty four when considering the sub-themes as well) only about fourteen competences were noted to be instrumental in the co-creation of memorable tourism experiences. Thus the researcher concludes that not all tour guide competences can facilitate the development of memorable tourism experiences. When developing tour/field guides to become co-creators of memorable tourism experiences, it is thus recommended that trainers adopt a funnel based approach to training. It is suggested that in this training tour/field guides be taught the broader important competences first, with the training subsequently narrowing down to those specific competences that co-create memorable tourism experiences

7.6 Interviewees' demographic characteristics and the memorable tourism experience dimensions

This sub-section seeks to explore if some possible relationships exist between the interviewees' demographic profiles and their respective memorable tourism experience themes. Results from Table 7.2 seem to generate notable patterns among the variables that are worthy of discussion. An important observation is to do with the problem solving skills which appears to be closely associated with the field guides as opposed to the tour guides. From the six (6) interviewees who recalled to have applied this competence in their memorable tourism experiences, four (4) of them were field guides. This is despite the fact that the study had more tour guide interviewees (N=23) than the field guide ones (N=11). Field guides are known for spending longer guided tours with the tourists for as many as twenty one (21) days or more which means the incidence of problems needful of their attention would be generally high. On the other hand, tour guides do not normally spend more than a day with the tourists as they in most cases have to escort tourists during some excursions around the city or heritage buildings. This would translate to a relatively lower occurrence of problems and thus a minimal demand for problem solving skills on their part.

This finding also explains why, the ability to solve problems was ultimately not validated in the quantitative findings as a competence to co-create memorable tourism experiences. The majority of the surveyed respondents reported to have engaged more tour guides as opposed to the field guides (See Table 6.9). In addition, the short average length of stay of the tourists of 2 nights (see sub-section 6.5.1) also meant that they had limited exposure to challenging situations that warranted the demonstration of the problem solving skills by the field guides. The "ability to solve problems," could thus not be retained as a key competence to co-create memorable experiences by the study.

Table 7.2: An analysis of the interviewees' demographic profiles and their memorable tourism experience dimensions

Interviewees	Sex		Type of guide			Age group				Marital status		Working experience			Emergent tourism competences	memorable experience
	Male	Female	Tour Guide	Field Guide	Tour & Field Guide	21-30 Years	31-40 Years	41-50 Years	51-60 years	Married	Single	0-10 years	11-20 years	21-30 years		
1	✓		✓			✓					✓	✓			Ability to entertain, Mindfulness of others' cultural preferences, Knowledge of destination and products	
2	✓			✓				✓		✓			✓		None	
3	✓		✓						✓	✓		✓			Knowledge of destination and products	
4		✓	✓				✓				✓	✓			None	
5	✓		✓					✓		✓				✓	Leadership skills, Knowledge of destination and products	
6	✓		✓				✓			✓		✓			Flexibility	
7	✓				✓		✓			✓			✓		Knowledge of destination and products	
8	✓			✓			✓		312	✓			✓		Knowledge of local culture,	

															Knowledge of destination and products
9	✓			✓			✓			✓			✓		Knowledge of the rules (vocabulary, grammar) of tourists' languages
10	✓			✓				✓		✓				✓	Mindfulness of others' cultural preferences
11	✓		✓					✓		✓			✓		Knowledge of destination and products
12	✓			✓			✓			✓			✓		Knowledge of Local culture, Flexibility
13	✓			✓				✓		✓			✓		Responsiveness
14	✓			✓				✓		✓			✓		Problem solving, Knowledge of destination and products
15	✓				✓			✓		✓				✓	Responsiveness
16	✓		✓					✓		✓			✓		Flexibility
17	✓				✓		✓				✓		✓		Mindfulness of others' cultural preferences

18	✓			✓				✓		✓			✓		Problem solving
19	✓				✓			✓		✓			✓		Knowledge of local culture, Knowledge of destination and products
20	✓				✓		✓			✓			✓		Problem solving
21	✓		✓					✓		✓		✓			Right attitude with respect to service
22		✓	✓				✓				✓	✓			Problem solving
23	✓		✓			✓				✓		✓			Responsiveness
24		✓			✓			✓		✓				✓	Optimism and determination
25	✓				✓			✓		✓				✓	Problem solving
26	✓		✓			✓					✓	✓			Leadership skills

Interviewees	Sex		Type of guide			Age group				Marital status		Working experience			Emergent tourism competences	memorable experience
	Male	Female	Tour Guide	Field Guide	Tour & Field Guide	21-30 Years	31-40 years	41-50 Years	51-60 years	Married	Single	0-10 years	11-20 years	21-30 years		
27	✓		✓						✓	✓				✓	Knowledge of local culture, Interpreting skills	
28	✓				✓		✓			✓			✓		Problem solving	
29		✓	✓			✓				✓		✓			Knowledge of destination and products	
30		✓	✓				✓			✓			✓		Knowledge of destination and products	
31	✓			✓			✓			✓		✓			Right attitude with respect to service	
32	✓				✓			✓		✓			✓		Knowledge of destination and Products	
33	✓				✓			✓		✓			✓		Knowledge of destination and products	
34	✓		✓					✓		✓				✓	Interpreting skills	

35	✓		✓					✓		✓				✓	Interpreting skills
36	✓		✓				✓			✓			✓		None
37	✓		✓					✓		✓			✓		Knowledge of destination and products, Right attitude with respect to service
38	✓			✓			✓			✓			✓		Knowledge of destination and products
39	✓		✓					✓		✓			✓		Knowledge of destination and products
40	✓				✓				✓	✓				✓	Knowledge of destination and products
41	✓			✓				✓		✓			✓		Responsiveness
42	✓		✓				✓			✓		✓			Knowledge of destination and products, Interpreting skills
43	✓		✓			✓					✓	✓			Commitment
44	✓				✓		✓				✓	✓			Knowledge of destination and products, interpreting skills

45	✓		✓				✓			✓		✓			Interpreting skills, Knowledge of the rules (vocabulary, grammar) of tourists' languages
46		✓	✓			✓				✓	✓				Knowledge of destination and products
Totals	40 (87%)	6 (13%)	23 (50%)	11 (24%)	12 (26%)	6 (13%)	17 (37%)	20 (43%)	3 (7%)	38 (83%)	8 (13%)	19 (41%)	18 (39%)	9 (20%)	

Source: Researcher's compilation from the study's qualitative results

Results from Table 7.2 also seem to suggest that the co-creation of memorable tourism experiences using culture related competences was mostly associated with the 31 to 40 years old age group. Out of the four interviewees (Interviewees, 8, 12, 19 & 27) whose memorable experiences were centred on knowledge of local culture, half of the interviewees (8 & 12) were from the 31-40 age group while the rest were widely scattered among the age groups, with Interviewee 19 from the 41-50 years age group and Interviewee 27 from the 51-60 years age group. To further validate this observation, the rest of the emergent culture related competences amazingly loaded onto this age group. For example, all the respondents who recalled “knowledge of the tourists’ languages (vocabulary and grammar)” (N=2) all emanated from this age group and these were interviewees nine (9) and forty five (45). One of the three interviewees who recalled to have applied the “mindfulness of other peoples’ cultures and norms” competence also belonged to the age group under discussion. While one would have anticipated the culture based competences to associate well with the more higher age groups of, example the 41 to 60 years age group due to their presumed wealth of life experiences, it is however the middle aged, the 31 to 40 years age group which seems to have scored highly on this dimension. This is also despite the fact that they were numerically fewer (N=17) than the 41 to 60 years age group which had twenty three (23) interviewees. These findings therefore seem to confirm the importance of culture research skills among tour guides as opposed to reliance on life experiences only.

Other interesting findings from the preceding discussions are that the guides, who recalled their knowledge and understanding of tourists’ languages and cultures competences in the co-creation of memorable tourism experiences, also had memories about their knowledge of the local culture competences. This suggests that cultural intelligence should therefore be viewed holistically as entailing both the tourism supply and demand side cultural competences. Earlier studies by the Cultural Intelligence Centre (2005) have largely theorised cultural intelligence as mostly constituted by one’s understanding of other people’s cultures (demand side culture) side-lining knowledge about out one’s own cultural knowledge. This finding therefore justifies the need for a

further review of the Cultural Intelligence Organisation's conceptualisation of cultural intelligence especially within the context of tourism.

Results from Table 7.2 furthermore seem to indicate an intertwined relationship between knowledge of destination and products and guiding experience. The majority of the respondents (9) who associated knowledge of destination and products with their memorable experiences were in the 11 to 20 years work experience range while fewer (6) were in the 0 to 10 years category. This is also despite the fact that the 0 to 10 years work experience category had more interviewees (N=19) than the 11 to 20 years which had fewer interviewees (N=18). The noted relationship of knowledge of destination products and work experience, therefore serves to confirm the vitality and associate effect of experiential based approaches in inculcating the knowledge based competences to co-create memorable tourism experiences among tour guides. Having explored the relationship between the interviewees' demographic characteristics and the competences to co-create memorable tourism experiences, the next section looks at the education and training interventions required to develop memorable tourism experience competences among tour guides.

7.7 Education and training interventions required to develop memorable tourism experience competences in tour guides

This section seeks to address sub-objective 3.5 which sought to determine education and training interventions required to develop memorable tourism experience competences in tour guides by means of an empirical analysis. To help address this, related sub-questions are also discussed.

7.7.1 Tour/field guide training programmes received by the interviewees

The researcher felt it necessary to ascertain the training background of the interviewees before belabouring them with the key questions on the education and training interventions required. Figure 7.3 profiles the types of training the interviewees had received before.

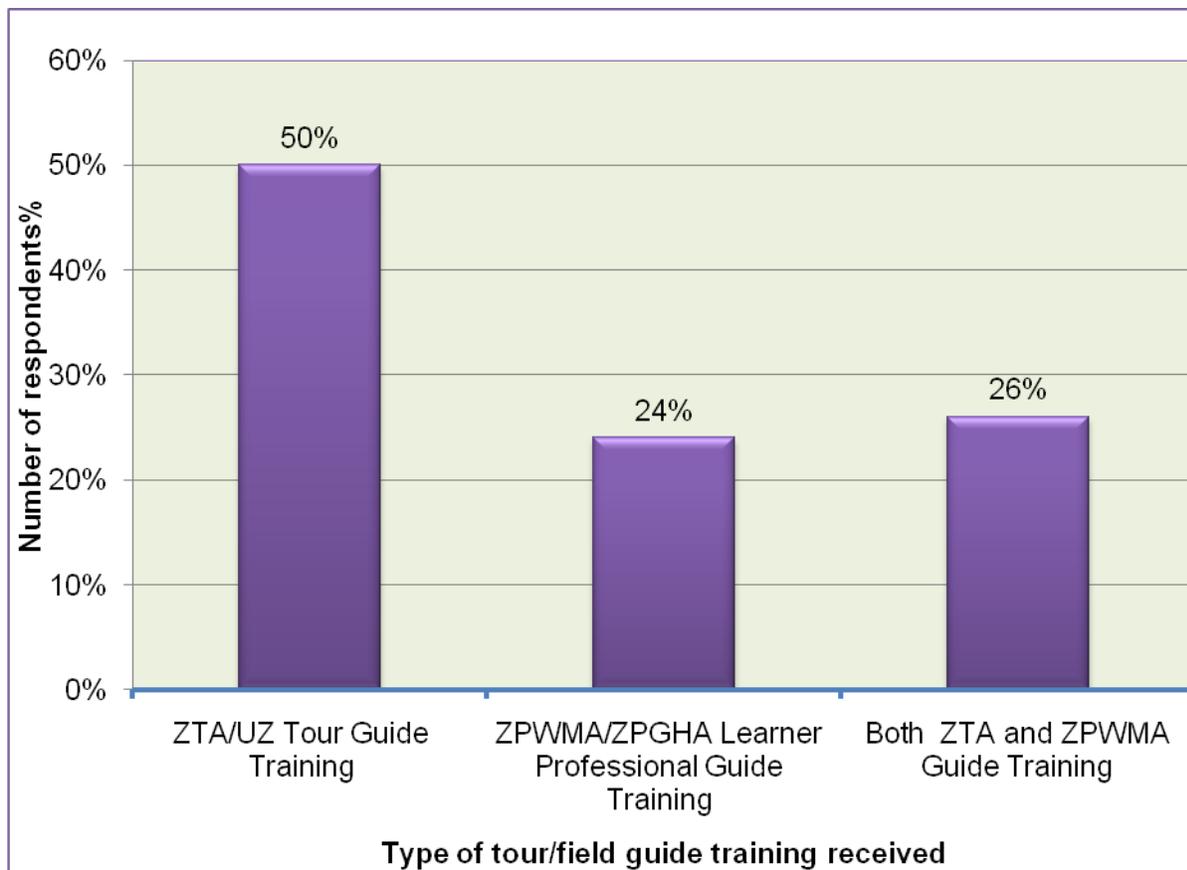


Figure 7.3: Type of tour/field guide training received

Figure 7.3 shows that the interviewees had gone through the Zimbabwe Tourism Authority/ University of Zimbabwe Tour Guide (ZTA/UZ) Training or the Zimbabwe Parks and Wildlife Management Authority/ Zimbabwe Professional Guides and Hunters Association (ZPWMA/ZPGHA) training or both training programmes. This shows that the interviewees were quite relevant and knowledgeable to respond to the research questions on tour guide education and training systems in Zimbabwe as they were familiar with the education and training programmes under study. The highest number of interviewees, 50% had however only undergone the ZTA/UZ Tour Guide Training Programme.

7.7.2 Memory of the courses covered in the training programmes

Interviewees were asked to recall the subjects or the courses that they covered in their respective tour/field guide training programmes. Since the study centred on “memorable” tourism experiences, the researcher was interested in establishing the extent to which interviewees recalled the subjects covered during their training. The motivation for this question was that if the training should develop a guide who is able to co-create “memorable” experiences, then the training “pad” or the curriculum should itself be memorable as well in the mind of the guide. The analogy of the preacher having to be converted first before converting others, thus applies here. It was noted during the literature analysis that the theorised competences to co-create memorable tourism experiences such as emotional intelligence and cultural intelligence can be developed through training (Benton & Lynch, 2009:6; Du Preez, 2012:50; The Bethel College -GE-Seniors report, 2014:8).

The researcher therefore argues that the memorable experience “value chain” should start from the training programme itself, or rather the trainers themselves, before being passed on to the trainees and subsequently to the tourist. This means that the subjects taught or the training processes applied should at least become like “flashbulb memories” in the tour guides who underwent the training, as what they learnt is supposedly believed to be what would largely influence how they discharge their roles when in the field. “Flashbulb” memories, are defined as extremely vivid, long lasting memories of significant events (Myers, as cited by Larsen, 2007:7–18).

It is with these observations in mind that the researcher asked interviewees the extent to which they recalled the subjects taught during their respective tour/field guide training programmes. The results are therefore discussed in the following sub-sections.

7.7.2.1 The Zimbabwe Parks and Wildlife Management Authority/ Zimbabwe Professional Guides and Hunters Association training

Analysis of the interview responses showed that the majority of interviewees managed

to recall all the subjects taught in this curriculum. Comments given by interviewees regarding this included:

“We had 4 subjects namely habits and habitats, law governing safari industry and the fourth one general knowledge. It was in 2007” (Interviewee, 8). *“We covered 4 subjects, there is firearms, law, habits and habitat and the fourth one is knowledge about Zimbabwe, it was in 1999”* (Interviewee, 9). Other interviewees commented *“There was ballistics, which was to do with rifles, general knowledge, there was fauna and flora. We also did the law”* (Interviewee, 18); *“Habits and habitats, fire arms and ballistics then a general paper and the law parks and wildlife”* (Interviewee, 31) and *“Habits and habitats, national parks law, tourism act, safari act, then general knowledge like current affairs, I did the course in 2003”* (Interviewee, 40).

The overall impression from the interviewees was that they managed to recall all the subjects offered in the Zimbabwe Parks and Wildlife Management Authority/ Zimbabwe Professional Guides and Hunters Association training as provided for in the syllabus. This shows that the interviewees had a vivid memory about the subjects they received in the course. The only aspect which most interviewees missed to report on was the internship component. These findings corroborate earlier observations by Ndlovu (2012:12) that Zimbabwe’s procedures for obtaining a professional guides license through the ZPWMA and ZPGHA are known to be one of the most rigorous, extensive and well respected throughout Africa. This is evidenced by the marked consistency and coherence of responses from the different interviewees in line with the subjects learnt, thus testifying to the rigorous nature of trainings candidates would have gone through during their training.

7.7.2.2 Zimbabwe Tourism Authority/ University of Zimbabwe tour guide training course

A review of the responses proffered with respect to this course showed that the majority of interviewees failed to vividly remember most subjects learnt in this course, portraying

a marked variance with the preceding course. Comments illustrating this observation include:

“The UZ one, eeh I did accounts, marketing yeah I will think of some” (Interviewee, 6); *“Uhhhhhm yes, handling the client, management, finances I think they taught us everything”* (Interviewee, 11); *“Yeah I still remember some; communication skills. I did it in 2011”* (Interviewee, 21); *“Basic financial management, green tourism and laws. I have forgotten, but it’s there in my certificate”* (Interviewee, 33); *“Finance, tourism”* (Interviewee, 34).

The overall impression drawn from the analysis of responses is that the majority of interviewees failed to vividly recall the specific subjects for which they were trained in this course. According to the ZTA/UZ (2015:1) training curriculum, candidates are trained in 9 key subjects namely overview of Zimbabwe and Southern Africa tourist attractions and resources, green tourism and efficient management of the environment, legislative and policy issue in tourism development, business ethics and corporate social responsibility, marketing and customer relationship management, business communication and public relations, principles of financial management and bookkeeping, itinerary development and practical approaches to tour guiding and practical project. That all the interviewed trained tour guides failed to recall even 50% of the subjects learnt, raises some questions on whether what they are applying in the field has got bearing with what was learnt in the course at all. Let alone, the glaringly lack of consistency and coherence among interviewees, on the few subjects remembered, leaves one to wonder if the training programme is hence robust enough to prepare guides who are able to facilitate the development of memorable tourism experiences.

7.7.2.3 Perceptions of guides who have received both training courses

A comparative analysis of responses from guides who had undergone both training courses cemented the emergent observation that the ZPWMA/ZPGHA’s training curriculum is more memorable than the ZTA/UZ training curriculum. Comments from interviewees illustrating this included:

“Oh yes very well, in Learners I did habits and habitats and then the law, general information and the ballistics because when you are training in national parks you have to know your gun and firearms. On tour guide (ZTA/UZ) training it was just general information” (Interviewee, 32). Another interviewee had this to say *“With ZTA/UZ, yeah we covered umnnnn, I have forgotten, but it’s the learners’ professional guide (ZPWMA/ZPGHA) which I still remember most. We covered habits and habitats were we looked at animals, trees, firearms, then we had Law and General paper”* (Interviewee, 44).

Interviewee 20 had this to say, *“for the Parks training, we touched on habits and habitats, national parks laws, I think we touched on ballistics and fire arms, hey ZTA what did we cover? I think we covered general knowledge on Zimbabwe, we covered green tourism, ecotourism umnnnn what else? Did we cover communication? Yeah I have forgotten I will have to check I think I still have my transcript with me”*.

It is evidently clear from the comparative responses, that the ZTA/UZ training curriculum is less vividly recalled than ZPWMA/ZPGHA with the guides wanting to prove their training by the show of training certificates rather than by the demonstration of knowledge acquired from training. It is important to note that the ultimate object of training is for one to apply or practice in the field that which was acquired from the training. Since most of the subjects learnt in the tour guide training course could not be recalled, then one wonders how then these tour guides would translate their learning into practice and more so to elevate the guest experiences into memorable ones as the “value chain” seems to be broken from the onset. It is thus not surprising to note that the most significant memorable experiences presented in this chapter, were mostly extracted from the interviews with the field guides as opposed to the tour guides.

The findings therefore seem to validate earlier observations from the quantitative survey that in terms of overall guided experience in Zimbabwe, field guides were identified with the best ratings while tour guides were identified with rather mediocre ratings. These findings are also consistent with observations from the literature that the training of field

guides in Zimbabwe is very rigorous, taking at least three years (Nyahunzvi & Njerekai, 2013:6) and thus more superior to that of tour guides, which only lasts for three months before one is certified. Thus Interviewee 25, had this to sum it up; *“you will find out that the guides affiliated to the national parks are the most excellent ones and the ones affiliated to ZTA, the old dogs are good but the new ones it takes time for them to become good”* (Interviewee, 25).

7.7.3 Coverage of subjects that enable the co-creation of memorable tourism experiences in the ZPWMA/ZPGHA and ZTA/UZ training courses.

The researcher also sought to assess the extent to which the theorised competences to co-create memorable tourism experiences were covered in the respective training syllabuses. Interviewees were thus asked to share their views on the identified key competences of emotional intelligence, cultural intelligence and personality traits. During the interviews, interviewees were given some cues, where necessary, in order for them to fully understand the concepts they were being interviewed upon. These “cues” included highlighting the constituencies of Emotional Intelligence, Cultural Intelligence and Personality traits as conceptualised in the study.

7.7.3.1 Emotional intelligence

Analysis of responses commonly revealed that emotional intelligence is being scarcely addressed in both training programmes with the overall sentiments from interviewees being that these skills are acquired more from experience in the field than from the training programmes received. Interviewees’ views are hereby presented according to the two key tour/field guide training programmes in Zimbabwe.

ZTA/UZ Tour guide training course

Some of the comments to illustrate interviewees’ views on the extent of ZTA/ UZ’s coverage of emotional intelligence aspects include: *“I wouldn’t really say they cover those topics”* (Interviewee, 14); *“Yeah we didn’t do much on this”* (Interviewee, 44); *“We*

didn't cover a lot but we need to. As long as you are dealing with a person you need to have emotional intelligence" (Interviewee, 36). *"I did not learn this from the courses but from experience"* (Interviewee, 41). *"It was just general information during the training and most of the staff is learnt through experience"* (Interviewee, 43).

On a more positive note, some interviewees had this to say, *"It was there but they did not go deep, they could not go deeper, they said you would have to pay a certain amount to go deeper"* (Interviewee, 11); *"This programme by UZ, helped me quite a lot because I remember very well earlier on before the training, if the client would go berserk I would also go the same. But when I went through this programme I learnt a lot"* (Interviewee, 7).

It can be noted that though there are some isolated cases of interviewees testifying to have learnt emotional intelligence from the ZTA/UZ training, it seems the majority of the interviewees were of the opinion that the discipline was scratched on the surface.

One should however note that after the Confirmatory Factor Analysis of the survey's quantitative phase was conducted during data analysis, the "knowledge of destination and products" competence initially theorised to be falling under the "personality traits" factor however nested under the "emotional intelligence" factor. Given that there was a common agreement among interviewees that they gained some knowledge about the destination and products from the training, one can thus argue that the ZTA/UZ tour guide training should not be branded to be an outright failure in terms of developing the emotional intelligence in guides. Quotes to illustrate this include *"they also impart lots of knowledge, the good thing about them is, they come here and as I am speaking there is a class going on"* (Interviewee, 5) and *"they teach you to be knowledgeable"* (Interviewee, 4).

These comments therefore serve to confirm that the ZTA/UZ tour guide training programme still has some success stories in as far as emotional intelligence training of guides is concerned. If comments on what motivates most tourists when visiting are anything to go by, Zimbabwe's guides can therefore be argued to be even performing

well in emotional intelligence. As one interviewee commented on the major reason why tourists tour; *“mostly its information, information, they just need more information, if they have that, then that’s it. Clients come here and just to get more information from us. Most of our services are about informing the clients, they need to know about Zimbabwe, they need to know about the Victoria Falls, they need to know about the Great Zimbabwe, they need to know about the Chinhoyi Caves, Lake Kariba and all sorts of things”* (Interviewee, 5).

Following up on the preceding quotation, one can therefore argue that with “information” or “knowledge” on the destination and products, a guide should therefore be counted as “highly” emotionally intelligent due to the relatively higher weight attached to the competence when compared with the other competences within the same factor. This argument is validated by the findings from the study’s quantitative survey results on competences to co-create memorable tourism experiences. In the results “knowledge of the destination and products” was noted to be among the top rated competences among the emotional intelligence factor, being only second to “honest and trustworthiness” competence in terms of importance when using either the mean or the Kendal Rank analysis scores. These results are shown on Table 7.3. While this argument may have some merit, one should however not discard the mere fact that “knowledge of destination and product” is not everything in terms of Emotional Intelligence. Even though the competence has been noted to be among the most important in the factor, its importance should not be taken to supersede or overshadow the significance of the other competences more so when combined.

Table 7.3: Importance ranking of the emotional intelligence competences

Emotional intelligence competences	Mean Value	Kendal Rank statistic
Honesty and trustworthiness	4.46	26.48
Knowledge of the destination and tourism products	4.45	26.37
Having a sense of responsibility	4.41	25.86
Commitment	4.41	25.79
Right attitude with respect to service	4.36	25
Optimism and positive thinking	4.32	24.36
Adaptability and flexibility	4.29	23.96

Source: Researcher's compilation from the quantitative results

It is also important to note that “communication” is also another competence that guides remembered from their ZTA/UZ training programme. Comments illustrating this include “*Yeah I still remember some, communication skills; I did it in 2011*” (Interviewee, 21) and “*I also did communication skills, the ability to deal with people of different temperaments*” (Interviewee, 37). Though this competence was remembered by most of the guides, results from the Confirmatory Factor Analysis did not validate this competence and thus was dropped. This resultantly, led to knowledge of destination and products therefore being the only competence among the seven emotional intelligence competences to co-create memorable tourism experiences that the ZTA/UZ tour guide programme can be credited for.

ZPWMA/ZPGHA Professional guide training

Here are some of the views of interviewees on the extent to which emotional intelligence skills were covered in the training:

“We did cover all that. But that was from other trainings not particularly National Parks because the company that I work for conducts their own training programme”

(Interviewee, 12); *“emotional and cultural intelligence are experience based and they were not taught in the National Parks guide training programme”* (Interviewee, 28); *“there was nothing much in the learner’s guide but it’s something that you develop as you grow. It was not something that was being taught”* (Interviewee, 9) and *“it was on general information on the learner guide programme”* (Interviewee, 32)

It can thus be concluded that the ZPWMA/ZPGHA programme is also deficient in terms of emotional intelligence training basing on the findings expressed in the comments of the interviewees. The only seemingly positive comment suggesting that the area was covered suggests that it was situated in the general information section of the syllabus which is still weak an argument, given the weight scholars as well as this study have placed on emotional intelligence. If it is substantial that the subject is embedded within the general information section of the syllabus, then that will also serve as a clear testimony that the training institution has not fully appreciated the value which the subject should be accorded when developing the co-creators of memorable tourism experiences.

Nonetheless one should note that “knowledge of destination and products” competence which initially had been conceptualised to fall under the “personality traits” factor, later on nested under the “emotional intelligence” factor after the Confirmatory Factor Analysis of the study’s quantitative phase. In view of this development, it would thus be grossly unfair to ascribe a total failure to the ZPWMA/ZPGHA training programme, as most candidates acknowledged to have acquired knowledge on the destination and products from the training.

Examples of comments illustrating these views include: *“I acquired knowledge on behaviour of animals, some of the breeds, trees the regulation of the national parks”* (Interviewee, 44); *“I learnt about grasses, trees animals and so forth I learnt that knowledge is important, I also learnt how to use a gun”* (Interviewee, 28) and *“With the field guides all the guides are exceptional, all the guides are knowledgeable, no matter where I have gone whether Hwange, Matopos and Gonarezhou”* (Interviewee,20).

It is therefore concluded that out of the seven competences constituting the “emotional intelligence” factor (see Table 7.3); only one is what was confirmed by the qualitative results to be what the ZPWMA/ZPGHA is significantly training to its candidates. This therefore validates earlier observations that the programme is deficient in emotional intelligence training.

Regression analysis results from the quantitative phase of the study showed that emotional intelligence has the greatest influence on the tour/field guide’s ability to co-create memorable tourism experience with a regression coefficient of 0.54. The relationship between emotional intelligence and memorable experience was also found to be significant (emotional intelligence and memorable experience: $\beta = 0.382$, $p < 0.05$). Given the ascending value being attached to emotional intelligence in the co-creation of memorable tourism experience by scholars for example Bharwani and Jauhari (2013:827) and the validation from the current study, one would thus expect the subject to be thoroughly addressed with the weight it deserves in the syllabi of both guide training programmes. It should be noted that literature is awash with a plethora of suggestions regarding education and training in emotional intelligence were the two local tour guide training institutions can borrow a leaf. These training approaches have been proposed by scholars such as Bar-on *et al.* (2007:1-14); Goleman (1995:305); Lynn (2006:48); Singh (2006:60); Sparrow and Knight (2006:10), Stein and Book (2006:35-53) and Du Preez (2012:44).

7.7.3.2 *Cultural intelligence*

Like emotional intelligence, the overall impression deduced from the analysis of responses was that, cultural intelligence is being lukewarmly addressed oscillating from moderate to low levels in both training programmes. The majority of interviewees also felt that these skills are developed more by experience and interaction with the tourists. Comments from the Interviewees are presented according to the training programme.

ZTA/UZ Tour guide training course

Comments from interviewees included: *“No we didn’t do culture” (Interviewee, 6); “I don’t remember us doing those things” (Interviewee, 45); “We did a bit” (Interviewee, 34); “I learnt them from day to day interactions with tourists; UZ training does not go deep in the cultural issues. Cultural intelligence covered but not in depth” (Interviewee, 1) and “I was taught that to the extent of knowing that if it is a Russian tourist you would treat him this way. If he is British you treat him this way” (Interviewee, 37).*

Concurring with interviewee 37, another interviewee had this to say *“I learnt to know the type of clientele I will be dealing with, because all the clientele are not the same. They have their own behaviour, the Russians have their own behaviour, the Japanese have their own behaviour and Chinese have their own behaviour. So while you are welcoming them at that point you can pick from the response” (Interviewee, 39).*

One can conclude from the above quotes that cultural intelligence is being taught in the ZTA/UZ tour guide training course but to somewhat a limited extent as also evidenced by its lack of a clear cut titling among the subjects on the curriculum. In addition, it seems that while the subject could be imbedded in the other subjects, the training approach seems to be generalised and lacking a specific redressing of particular cultural themes proposed by literature (e.g., by The Cultural Intelligence Centre, 2005) and as validated in this study. From the responses, it seems the UZ/ZTA training approach focuses more only on two facets of cultural intelligence which are mindfulness of others’ cultural preferences and norms and knowledge of cultural values and religious beliefs of tourists cultures when yet there are more other facets validated by literature, that also need to be trained on such as, knowledge of legal and economic, marriage systems, the arts and crafts of tourists’ cultures to mention but a few (the Cultural Intelligence Centre, 2005). The findings however validate “knowledge of local cultures” as a key competence needed by tour/field guides to co-create of memorable tourism experiences which is similar to what was theorised by Kim *et al.* (2012:12-25). This discussion therefore acknowledges that cultural intelligence training efforts are being

done but it is recommended that a more holistic training approach be assumed in the current ZTA/UZ training syllabus to encompass the other identified cultural themes still lacking in the training.

ZPWMA/ZPGHA Professional guide training

Comments illustrating interviewees' opinions on the extent to which cultural intelligence is being covered in the ZPWMA/ZPGHA Professional guide training included:

“Ah no, we were not taught about the culture in their (tourists) country. But we were taught about Zimbabwean culture and the training was just on the surface” (Interviewee, 9); “Emotional and cultural intelligence are experience based and they were not taught in the National Parks guide training programme” (Interviewee, 28) and “It wasn’t covered much but it was touched a little bit” (Interviewee, 8) and “not at all that’s why I was advocating that they come up with a compilation of local cultural practices by tribes” (Interviewee, 20).

Another interviewee had this to say, *“Not really, but that one (cultural knowledge) comes as self-responsibility, you just need to read wide to understand that. That’s why I say when you have qualified as a guide you don’t need to sit, but you have to read, you need to be a wide reader. Understanding cultures is very important. But when you are doing your guide training you do not get to cover much of it” (Interviewee, 12).*

The above quotes therefore serve as a clear testimony that only “scant” efforts are being done in the training course to inculcate cultural intelligence in guides. While the training course should be commended however, for at least encompassing local culture, nonetheless as one of the interviewees again mentioned, the work is being done “but on the surface’. Thus more depth is needed in the training in order for the guides to reach the bar of co-creators of memorable tourism experiences. Additionally, as validated in the quantitative study results, cultural intelligence has about 9 key constituents that need to be attended to during training (see Table 6.24 in Chapter six). Ironically, there seems to be a dearth of training on all these cultural intelligence training themes, save for local

culture, though the training is to a very limited extent. It is thus in the same vein, recommended that the ZPWMA/ZPGHA professional guide training syllabi be reviewed to encompass the other missing, yet pertinent; cultural intelligence variables as was also suggested to the ZTA/UZ training course discussed above. There are several cultural intelligence training proposed by scholars for example Macnab (2012:68); Earley and Mosakowski (2004:139-146) and Thomas (2006:78-99).

7.7.3.3 *Personality traits*

Interviewees' views on the extent to which personality trait competences are being covered in the syllabuses are again presented under each training course.

ZTA/UZ tour guide training course

Through analysis of interviews, it was found that four sub-themes were elicited in the training of personality trait based competences by the UZ/ZTA training programme. These sub-themes are presented in Table 7.3 together with the supporting quotes.

As noted from Table 7.4, four sub-themes were identified from the personality trait competences that interviewees felt were being addressed in the ZTA/UZ training programme. These sub-themes are mainly “knowledge of destination and products”, “organising skills”, “leadership skills” and “interpreting skills”.

Table 7.4: Personality sub-themes identified in the UZ/ZTA training programme

Personality Sub-theme	Traits	Illustrative quotes
Knowledge of destination and products	of and	<i>“After the course I began to know much about Zimbabwe in general and even outside. You cannot be a guide without knowing this”</i> (Interviewee, 29).

Organising skills	<p><i>"I have developed great customer relations skills and how to effectively organise and run a tour (Interviewee, 46).</i></p> <p><i>"After the course I began to know how to do an itinerary" (Interviewee, 29).</i></p>
Leadership skills	<p><i>"I learnt my supervising skills and my tour management skills" (Interviewee, 7).</i></p>
Interpreting skills	<p><i>"I gained composure from the training, whereby they teach you how to stand in front of people presenting, confidently speaking" (Interviewee,- 43).</i></p>

It should however be noted that, in the quantitative phase of the study, when the Confirmatory Factor Analysis was performed to establish the key competences to co-create memorable tourism experiences, the "Knowledge of destination and products" sub-theme nested under "Emotional Intelligence" as opposed to the originally theorised "Personality Traits" factor. In addition, while interviewees again commonly agreed that they learnt "organising skills" during their tour guide training; the sub-theme failed to load at > 0.70 during the Confirmatory Factor analysis and was thus excluded.

Implications for the two observations noted above, are therefore that only two competences eventually remained under the Personality traits thematic area in 6.4. These are the "leadership skills" and "interpreting skills". Benchmarking these competences against the number of final competences that loaded under the "Personality Traits" factor, during the Confirmatory Factor Analysis, it is therefore concluded that the ZTA/UZ tour guide training is only but addressing two out of the six personality trait competences (at ceteris paribus) needed by tour guides to co-create memorable tourism experiences. The study recommends therefore that significant effort be directed towards enhancing tour guide training in personality trait competences, placing a stronger emphasis on the deficient areas. The deficient competences in the curriculum are noted to be the "ability to understand and manage others' emotions", "ability to entertain", "acting skills" and the "counselling skills". These competences are not only responsible for developing an "ideal" tour guide, as observed in earlier

researches (Cavelzani *et al.*, 2003:6; Holloway, 1981:377-402; Cohen *et al.*, 2002:919-932), but will highly position one to be a co-creator of memorable tourism experiences as established in this study.

ZPWMA/ZPGHA Professional guide training

From the analysis of responses, two sub-themes emerged in the personality trait based competences training in the ZPWMA/ZPGHA Professional guide training programme. These sub-themes were found to be knowledge of destination and products and interpretation skills. These sub-themes are presented in Table 7.5 together with the supporting quotes.

Table 7.5: Personality sub-themes identified in the ZPWMA/ZPGHA training program

Personality Traits Sub-theme	Illustrative quotes
Knowledge of destination and products	<i>“I learnt about grasses, trees animals and so forth, I learnt that knowledge is important”</i> (Interviewee, 28) and <i>“I acquired knowledge on behaviour of animals, some of the breeds, trees, the regulation of the national parks and guns”</i> (Interviewee, 44)
Interpreting skills	<i>“I gained confidence from the lecturers, the trainings. The lecturer gave us confidence during the training. It’s not easy to stand in front of people especially the international tourists. When you are presenting something you have to show confidence”.</i> (Interviewee, 31)

As noted from Table 7.5, two sub-themes were elicited from the Interviewees’ responses on their views about the personality trait competences being trained in the ZPWMA/ZPGHA training programme. These sub-themes are mainly knowledge of destination and products and interpreting skills. Again since in the study’s quantitative phase “knowledge of destination and products” nested under the “emotional intelligence” factor after the Confirmatory Factor Analysis, it means that “interpreting skills” is the only personality trait based competence that ZPWMA/ZPGHA training programme will be credited with in their training, according to the results. This translates

to about one out of six (at *ceteris paribus*) of the “Personality Traits” factor competences to co-create memorable tourism experiences extracted during the quantitative phase’s Confirmatory Factor Analysis.

Though the margin of differences could be very slender, one can thus comparatively conclude that guides from the ZTA/UZ tour guide training course have better personality trait competences than the ZPWMA/ZPGHA ones. This view is validated by some interviewees who highlighted that “*mostly they (ZPWMA/ZPGHA guides) study about wildlife, nature and conservation that is what they specialise on, there is nothing much on management of tourism*” (Interviewee, 9); “*it’s mostly to do with flora and fauna. They deal in-depth with tree identification, animal identification, behaviour*” (Interviewee, 19) which according to interviewee 42, “*is not the full area of guiding*”.

If guides from the ZPWMA/ZPGHA are to be co-creators of memorable tourism experiences, it is therefore recommended that the programme also address the areas of lack in personality trait competence training. These include “ability to understand and manage others’ emotions”, “ability to entertain”, “acting skills” and the “counselling skills” and “leadership skills”. The importance of these skills among the tour guides is validated by scholars (Cavelzani *et al.*, 2003:6; Cohen *et al.*, 2002:919-932; Holloway, 1981:377-402) and should be emphasised.

7.8 Other weaknesses of the education and training of tour/field guides in Zimbabwe

This section seeks to explore interviewees’ views on the other weaknesses of the education and training systems in Zimbabwe in order to make comprehensive recommendations regarding training of tour guides to co-create memorable tourism experiences in Zimbabwe. Through analysis of the interviews, it was found that six themes constituted the other weaknesses of the education and training of tour/field guides in Zimbabwe. These themes are “a disjointed training curricula”, “limited knowledge areas”, “exorbitant training and license renewal fees”, “highly centralised

tour/field guide training”, “lack of practical oriented trainings” and “lack of refresher course trainings”.

7.8.1 Theme 1: Disjointed tour guide training curricula

A number of interviewees felt that tour/field guide training in Zimbabwe is highly disjointed and not properly institutionalised. Interviewees felt that as long as the two key tour guide training institutions continue to train in parallel models, the country will not be able to produce the best of guides. For example, interviewee 19 pointed out that;

“The field guides deal in depth with tree identification, animal identification, behaviour and everything sort of but when they come into town, it’s a little bit different for them and they will struggle with the guiding, but if they are in the bush, they are home and dry. Then come ZTA license, once the guide gets into the bush, they are kind of lost, but there is nowhere they can avoid the bush as the country’s major attraction is the wildlife and nature. For example, getting to Victoria Falls you come through the bush, Kariba the same thing, you have got Matopo, you have got Nyanga, it’s the same thing, you go to Chimanimani its more of the same thing and I think personally that the ZTA/UZ and national parks trainings should be integrated to compensate for each other’s weaknesses” (Interviewee, 19).

The findings seem to concur with the earlier observations by Nyahunzvi and Njerekai (2013:5) that there is a lack of an integrated and standardised national training curriculum for the local tour guides.

7.8.2 Theme two: Limited knowledge areas

The overall impression from interviewees about this theme was that there are some limited knowledge areas in both training curricula. It was felt that the ZPWMA/ZPGHA training programme is more biased towards the flora and fauna related subjects while neglecting other pertinent aspects of tour guiding such as the financial management and guest relations. According to Weiler and Ham (2002:52-69), guides should be

trained in three aspects: guiding, products or resources and tourists. Nonetheless, it appears like the ZPWMA/ZPGHA guides are mostly being trained on the products or resources as opposed to the other pertinent areas. Black and Weiler (2005:26) argue that tour guides must be trained to become interpreters who can plan, design and present personal and non-personal interpretation as this is viewed to be their most predominant role.

One interviewee had this to say:

“I think they should incorporate a lot of other things in their guide training rather than just training in wildlife, flora and fauna, National Park laws, rifle handling and things like that. There is need to diversify, even guest relations and financial management, I think there is need to incorporate them. I am happy that the UZ one has been incorporating that. It has been part of their training programmes” (Interviewee, 18).

Concurring with the above, Interviewee 29 had this to say *“the ones trained in learner’s professional guides’ course are not very good in the meet and greet aspects of tourist interaction as they specialise so much on the wildlife issues; the trees and birds and so forth. They do not learn about accounts or itinerary development as they focus more on the field training, the bush environment”*.

It can thus be noted from the comments that though the ZPWMA/ZPGHA is regarded as to be among the best guide training courses in Africa (Interviewees 2, 6,19 and 20); it still has some weaknesses that need to be addressed as elaborated above. Similarly to the ZPWMA/ZPGHA training programme, the ZTA/UZ training curriculum was noted for certain content weaknesses on subjects to do with the fauna and flora. One interviewee noted that *“in terms of game, the fauna and flora; there is really nothing in the training, but you would really need that understanding so that you have a basic appreciation of that. This is because whilst guiding in a resort town like Victoria Falls, a tourist can see an animal or some flowers and may start asking you on that”* (Interviewee, 43).

In addition, another eminent weakness of the ZTA/UZ tour guide training programme

was noted to be on the training duration, with the three month long training period regarded to be too short a period to develop a well-grounded guide. Some interviewees had this to say to validate these observations: *“The challenge that I will cite is about the course being a short course. During that short duration you need to grab all the things very fast, in a very short space of time. I think they need to extend the time”* (Interviewee, 7); *“possibly like I said, the course is too short, to me it’s like introduction”* (Interviewee, 45) and *“this tour guide training course being offered nowadays it’s a fast track thing where at the end of the day it will kill the industry”* (Interviewee, 39).

The variations in training durations for the two main guide training courses in Zimbabwe seems to be microcosmic of the global tour guide training arena as there appears to be no universally agreed time frame for training, with training durations ranging from as low as 3 to 4 days duration (Black & King, 2002:103-117) to as high as up to three (3) years (Chowdhary & Prakash, 2009:16). Nonetheless, taking cognisance of the study’s empirical findings, the researcher would recommend that the ZTA/UZ tour guide training course’s duration be reviewed upwards from the current three months. The study has noted that the ZTA/UZ tour guide training graduates are viewed to be lesser performers in comparison to those from the ZNPWMA/ZPGHA characterised by a longer training duration of up to 3 years. Holding other factors constant, one would thus argue that the training duration also has a bearing onto the training outcomes, thus suggesting that the ZTA/UZ tour guide training programme must be increased in order for its respective guides to have more time to assimilate and develop the desired training outcomes.

Linked to the short duration of the training course has been the consequent flooding of the market place with average tour guides who are deemed to be inadequately trained as some interviewees pointed out: *“tour guides are now being mass produced and they are flooding the market”* (Interviewee, 28) and *“I do not think our training is adequate you know you sit in a class for about three months and you are given a certificate and you go out and guide? Comparing with other places that I have been like Egypt, you rarely find a tour guide without a PhD”* (Interviewee, 20). Challenges associated with the oversupply of guides have also been noted elsewhere by scholars. Hu and Wall

(2013:217) note that this enables employers to hire guides at negligible or no cost and to agree to serve tour groups at below cost. It can therefore be noted that there is need for the review of the training curricula in order to accommodate the issues being raised.

Interviewees also felt that a foreign language training component was lacking in both training programmes curricula as noted from Interviewee 33 *“The biggest challenge we face is that most of the language used during the training is English when yet we also get to meet Japanese and so many other nationals. So communication is the challenge. There would be communication barriers with the tourists”*.

These findings on the limited knowledge levels of the ZTA/UZ training programme are again, on the whole, in consonance with earlier observations by Nyahunzvi and Njerekai (2013:5) that the curriculum was too general and insufficient.

7.8.3 Theme 3: Exorbitant training and license renewal fees

The overall impression from the interviewees about this theme was that the training fees and license renewal fees for both programmes are very expensive. Comments illustrating this include:

“It’s not easy for learner guides to get hunting experience...the fees are on the exorbitant prices” (Interviewee, 14) and *“getting the tour guide certificate is expensive. ...the licenses are renewed every year and they are very expensive and most of the guides are not even employed and are operating on a freelance basis”* (Interviewee, 2).

Other interviewees added *“I have two licenses and both of them need to be renewed yearly which means I have to pay for the National Parks license and I have to pay for the ZTA license. I need both licenses but I have no money to pay for them because they are expensive”* (Interviewee, 25). *“The full professional guide license is not a friendly license, it’s very, very expensive such that it’s more of a preserve for the rich but they must offer a license that is more affordable to the average person. But when you want*

to go up there at the top what's needed is cumbersome it's a restriction it's a problem" (Interviewee, 19).

The above comments thus serve to confirm the expensive nature of the tour/field guide training programmes in Zimbabwe which will then tend to segregate the poor income earners from the field. These findings also validate previous observations that the tour guide training tuition costs are perceived to be high and not in line with the low salaries of the tour guides (Nyahunzvi & Njerekai, 2013:5).

7.8.4 Centralised tour guide training arrangements

The majority of interviewees concurred that there is a limited availability of tour/field guide training centres and facilities in Zimbabwe, with the key training bodies mostly situated in the country's capital city, Harare. Some of the comments that were put forward to support this theme include:

"UZ they are only based in Harare, so for them to come here it's just like once in a blue moon" (Interviewee, 11); "everything is centralised if you want to do the learners" professional guide you have to travel but I think they have to devise ways to say, this course we are going to do the learners guide programme in Victoria Falls now and in Kariba this other time. So you find that, that is the biggest challenge. So at the end we end up doing it on our own, but if the mother bodies would decentralise that that would be helpful" (Interviewee, 24). "The only challenge with professional guides training it's only that you have to take the examinations either in Harare or Bulawayo which means more money for accommodation, food and transport. For the tour guides its better because the instructors from UZ will come to Victoria Falls but not so often" (Interviewee, 40).

A similar situation was also observed in some other destinations. In a study conducted by Chowdhary and Prakash (2008:293) one of the important concerns raised in their study of the tour guiding field in India, was the inappropriate and insufficient infrastructure for training and continuous learning for tour guides. A paucity of resource

centres such as libraries offering information on travel, tourism, hospitality and related industry was notable in their findings. The study's results therefore demonstrate the need to decentralise training and the associated learning resources to more centres in the country in order to provide better tour guide training opportunities to potential trainees.

7.8.5 Theme 5: Theoretical orientation

Another theme that emerged during analyses of the responses is "Theoretical orientation". It was commonly cited by scholars that the training programmes especially the ZTA/UZ training is more theoretical and immensely lacking in terms of practicals. Though the ZPWMA/ZPGHA professional guide training is considered to be practical intensive again, the exorbitant fees associated with it were considered to be too detractive to learner guides who would want to upgrade themselves to a full professional guide. Hence they would remain working as learner guides and deficient of particular practical skills they would only after becoming a full professional guide. Comments that were proffered to support this theme include;

"Most of these guides are just being given the license without going on attachment. So as long as you have passed you are now deemed to be a guide and then you are thrown into the deep end yet there are still a lot of things you will have to learn" (Interviewee, 19). "But the trainee tour guides are mostly being taught theory and not practical and would need to be attached to the senior guides for more knowledge and experience" (Interviewee, 28).

Another interviewee had this to say *"My ZTA/UZ tutors of course they may be academics, but they did not have that kind of knowledge of what was happening in the tourism industry because, they did not have the practical knowledge about the industry. For example, they would ask us what is Kayaking? What is river guiding? The lecturers will be asking you when they are the ones supposed to tell us. We were the pioneers in the training programme and we could tell that most of the tutors were actually learning from us. Instead of us learning from them, they were actually learning from us. We*

were giving them information which they would then use for the subsequent intakes” (Interviewee, 39).

One can therefore clearly note from the preceding comments that there is a serious weakness in the manner in which the training programmes are being conducted, with more practical skills training being needed not only by the trainees but even by some of the trainers themselves. These findings also confirm earlier observations by Njerekai and Nyahunzvi (2013:5) that there is a lack of opportunities for trainee tour guides to learn practically in Zimbabwe.

7.8.6 Theme 6: Refresher courses

Most interviewees were of the opinion that they are being let down by the tour guide training institutions in as far as the refresher courses are concerned. It was felt that the training institutions are just training and dumping the guides without even a concern for follow ups even on quality checks. Thus one interviewee had this to say;

“We need a lot of refresher courses. I feel that’s were our mother body is failing us. Because now if you are getting the new tourist who has got different expectations from when I got my license so whatever I have got now, I am doing it on my own you know, I am upgrading myself on my own whereas if I have a refresher course so that’s where the mother body should be assisting us there” (Interviewee, 24).

These findings seem to confirm earlier observations by Smith (1992:135-157) suggesting that, training providers generally lack a clear focus when it comes to the evaluation of tour guide trainings that they undertake. Black *et al.*, (2001:153) argue that programme evaluation is essential to ensure that the programme is meeting the needs of the industry, employers and trainees and ensures that the programme is kept current and relevant to changes in an ever-changing industry. Thus the identified lack of refresher level trainings and post training monitoring in tour guide training in Zimbabwe, will as theorised by Ap and Wong (2001:560) hinder efforts to enhance the professionalism of tour guides.

This sub-section has looked at the weaknesses of the tour guide trainings as perceived by the guides themselves. The next section looks at the suggested strategies to enhance tour guide education and training systems in Zimbabwe.

7.9 Other strategies to enhance tour/field guide education and training systems in Zimbabwe

Having examined the various weaknesses in the education and training of guides in Zimbabwe, this section seeks to explore the strategies that were proposed by interviewees to enhance the tour/field guide education and training in Zimbabwe. Six themes were elicited in as far as the responses to this section were concerned and also formed a sound basis for the study's recommendations to be discussed in eight.

7.9.1 Theme 1: Unification of the ZTA/UZ and the ZPWMA/ZPGHA training programmes

A number of interviewees suggested that the two key tour/field guide training programmes be integrated to create a one stop license for guides in Zimbabwe. Some of the comments to support this include: *"I think they should combine the tour guide license and the learner's license to come up with one that will include both, so that the guide is complete with all the aspects needed"* (Interviewee, 9). *"But if it was me I would unify both courses because you find that the ZTA license is not as hard as one offered by National Parks...and then you will find out that the guides affiliated to the national parks are the most excellent ones and the ones affiliated to ZTA average. So the best I think will be to unify the two courses so that we have something which is uniform"* (Interviewee, 25). Another interviewee had this to say: *"There is no need for offering these parallel licenses. They have to bring together what they offer onto the table and you as the university you assess and see how they can be merged and come up a curriculum there. Then you launch that one stop license"* (Interviewee, 19).

One can therefore conclude that there is need to review the curricula for both programmes and see how they can be integrated to develop a well rounded up guide.

This observation seems to be in sync with Chowdhary and Prakash (2009:185)'s view, in their case study of India, that there should be better coordination and a mutually accepted structure between tour guide licencing authorities. An improved coordination of tour guide training in the Zimbabwean context would thus ensure that they do not operate independently and parallel to each other which results in a lot of duplication of effort.

7.9.2 Theme 2: Training curricula review

The study noted from the responses that the extant tour/field guide training curricula should be reviewed in order to address the obtaining content deficiencies and training duration related challenges. Of particular note, is the need to strengthen the training curriculum on the identified weak knowledge areas more especially, those linked with the competences to co-create memorable tourism experiences. One interviewee pointed out *“include other subjects in the ZTA training like culture and psychology”* (Interviewee, 20). Another interviewee added that *“tour guides should be taught on culture and to include it in their interaction with tourists. Culture should be added as a new subject in the curriculum and also we should reflect our culture to them and we should quickly feel involved in our culture as well”* (Interviewee, 3). This theme resonates well with earlier observations by Chowdhary and Prakash (2009:190) who commented that the content of tour guide training programs should be focused on the larger interests of all stakeholders.

The training duration for the ZTA/UZ training course should again be addressed as observed by one interviewee who remarked *“[a] person who qualifies through this course cannot say I am tour guide. They need more, more time; I think the course can be lengthened by even a month or two for intensive training”* (Interviewee, 45).

A possible solution to the aforementioned challenges on the duration of training course, is that the course can be delivered at different levels, such as certificate level, diploma level or even degree level. This view is consolidated by interviewee 45 who commented that *“we can have some levels of training like from certificate level diploma and degree*

to enrich the data”. This recommendation is in sync with the practice elsewhere, for example, in countries like India (Prakash & Chowdhary, 2010:53–65), China (Huang & Weiler, 2010:853) and South Africa (De Beer, 2011:67) which have some tier tour guide training models that tend to facilitate the efficient training of guides. These different levels of training range in some cases, for example between national, regional and local levels (Huang & Weiler, 2010:853).

The certificate can actually be made compulsory for all the trainee guides with the subsequent stages like the diploma and degree being enrolled voluntarily. The tour guide licensing bodies like ZTA and ZPWMA can then stipulate that after a certain period of obtaining a certificate, one should have advanced to a diploma and degree.

It has also been noted in the empirical results that there is a serious lack of foreign language components in the extant current tour guide training programmes as expressed by Interviewee 33: *“The biggest challenge we face is that most of the language used during the training is English when yet we also get to meet Japanese and so many other nationals. So communication is the challenge. There would be communication barriers with the tourists”*. In tandem with the above observation, it is generally agreed that guides need to attain at least some ability to converse and understand the language of their target markets (Weiler & Ham, 2002:56).

Nonetheless since it is virtually impossible to train for foreign language during the guide training program (Chowdhary & Prakash, 2009:190) the study therefore recommends that the current tour guide training curriculum be reviewed to recognize tour guides’ language skills needs. The study therefore further recommends that a provision for credits for those who have knowledge of a foreign language other than English be established (Chowdhary & Prakash, 2009:190).

7.9.3 Theme 3: Field/practical based training approaches

Interviewees commonly concurred that the delivery of training programmes especially for the ZTA/UZ tour guide training course should be vastly improved having to infuse the

field and practical based approaches into the training programme. It was noted that there is need for field trips during the trainings as there are guides who are graduating but without knowing even a single destination in Zimbabwe (Interviewee, 26). This strategy validates earlier remarks by Chowdhary and Prakash (2009:186) that field trips and field-based should be an integral part of the tour guide training pedagogy. Studies by Nyahunzvi and Njerekai (2013:5) also echo the same sentiments in which they highlighted that supervised fieldwork practicals should be part of the tour guide training curriculum.

The study also noted that the trainers themselves should have the practical experience or exposure of the guiding profession rather than to teach only from their academic knowledge. Were possible, it was therefore encouraged that the training institution, involve the experienced guides in the delivery of their tour guide training courses. One interviewee thus had this to say *“It shouldn’t just be the institutions training but experienced guides should be part of the lecturers and be part of the examinations and the course”* (Interviewee, 19). Other comments gleaned from the responses to support this theme include; *“More practical orientated training should be introduced”* (Interviewee, 46); *“trainee guides should get attached to experienced guides, to accompany them on tours before they embark on their own tours”* (Interviewee, 40) and *“the programme should include some field work. The University should recruit people who are knowledgeable about the field, people with practical knowledge and not only theoretical knowledge”* (Interviewee, 39).

It is thus noted from the comments that the issue of practical industry exposure should start from the trainers themselves and then cascade down to the trainees in order to achieve the better results from the trainings. These findings resonate well with Huang and Weiler (2010:853)’s earlier observation that “train the trainers” programmes targeting tour guide trainers were observed to be important. In addition Zhang and Chow (2004:90)’s suggestion that professional and experienced guides could be invited during tour guide training programmes to share their experiences is also validated given that numerous skill deficiencies were noted in most of the local tour guide trainers.

7.9.4 Theme 4: Review of tour guide training fees

In view of the identified exorbitant training fees and licensing fees, interviewees generally concurred that government should intervene and provide more support to the human capital development of the sector. For example, one interviewee remarked that *“Government or national parks should open up a training school for the less privileged who have this ambition to take on this profession and the fees have to be a little bit affordable to everyone”* (Interviewee, 2).

Another interviewee had this to say *“this is where I am saying the government should chip in because when you are going for your proficiency test as a professional guide, this is where it becomes very difficult, most of the learner professional hunter/ guides, cannot advance to a professional level because its expensive for them so if you are going for your proficiency, that’s when you get to realise that to have your own rifle, that’s over a thousand United States dollars (US\$1000)/ you need to have a vehicle of course, but if government could come up with maybe a vehicle available in the camp for temporary hire and to say we can rent you a rifle, we can rent you a car, we have tents available and they give a package to say, 4 or 500 hundred dollars and then you get everything that is required for your examination and you can actually go and use it and then return it back”* (Interviewee, 12). These comments therefore serve to demonstrate that initiatives should be done even at government level to ease the highly expensive training conditions of the guides. This observation therefore seems to give credence to earlier observations by Nyahunzvi and Njerekai (2013:5) that one of the key issues of concern to tour guides in Zimbabwe are the perceived high costs of the tuition.

7.9.5 Theme 5: Decentralisation of tour/field guide training programmes

It was noted from the responses that most guides would want the training programmes to be decentralised from the capital city to all the key resort areas in the country like Kariba, Great Zimbabwe and Nyanga. This was mentioned with specific regards to the professional guides training were one has to travel to either Bulawayo or Harare to sit for the professional guide examinations. Comments made to support this theme include:

“They should find an office maybe like here in Victoria Falls, may be if they can do it may be once every month (training); it will be wonderful. We need these people so you see they are staying in Harare our capital city which is more than 900 km away, so if they can find a small office here, not a big one the better for us” (Interviewee, 11).

It is thus noted that with more decentralised training arrangements, more capable tour guide students will get the opportunities for training. These results seem to corroborate previous findings by scholars, for example, Hu and Wall (2013:207) who observed that tour guides trainings are decentralised to local levels in some countries. For example, in Australia, each state has its own tourism training body that conducts all accredited courses according to the guidelines set down in the curricula (Hu & Wall, 2013:207).

Again in China for example, the China National Tourism Administration [CNTA] being the top level body, rarely organises training sessions directly for tour guide but most of the tour guide training activities are undertaken by training centres affiliated to them at provincial- or city-level tourism administrations (Huang & Weiler, 2010:852). In addition, many universities with tourism programmes were also noted to receive contracted tour guide training from local tourism authorities (Huang & Weiler, 2010:852).

7.9.6 Theme 6: Refresher courses

Closely associated with the preceding theme of “decentralisation” was the aspect of refresher courses. Most interviewees felt that the tour guide training institutions should introduce some follow up refresher courses so that guides would continuously be refreshed on the trained areas. Interviewee 18 had this to say *“I think there is need for refresher courses because people they will train and after that they work and forget some of the staff they got from training. Guiding is quite dynamic and it’s an ongoing field and you don’t learn and just get to acquire everything from the training”*.

Refresher courses will thus ensure that the skills among the tour guides remain relevant and that previous trainings are retained and kept current, given the dynamic nature of the tourism industry. Consistent with these findings, Chowdhary and Prakash

(2008:290) point out that guides must periodically participate in refresher courses to keep current. Elsewhere, government level tour guide training institutions have thus introduced refresher programmes on a regular basis to train guides, for example, the Ministry of Tourism, Government of India (Chowdhary & Prakash, 2009:162).

7.10 Chapter conclusion

This chapter presented, analysed and discussed the results from the qualitative phase and tried as much as possible relate them to the earlier findings from the quantitative phase. Major conclusions from this chapter are that tour/field guides concurred with the tourists that the guided tour experiences in Zimbabwe are satisfactory. The chapter also confirmed earlier findings from the quantitative phase that field guides are better performers than tour guides. These observations were also supported by the subsequent findings that the ZPWMA/ZPGHA is more rigorous in nature, taking a longer training period than the ZTA/UZ training which is only done in three months. These variations in intensity of trainings were noted to be key in determining the quality of the guide produced at the end of the training programme. It was also noted that not all the identified important tour guide competences are instrumental in the co-creation of memorable tourism experiences.

The study assumed that the competences that were recalled by interviewees would be the ones most likely to enable guides to be co-creators of memorable tourism experiences. This assumption was in tandem with the approaches used in previous memorable tourism experience studies for example by Kim *et al.* (2012:12-25) and Ritchie and Tung (2011:1367-1387) The following competences were thus noted to be key in enabling tour guides to co-create memorable tourism experiences: the ability to entertain, flexibility, knowledge of local culture, knowledge of local marriage systems, knowledge of destination and products, right attitude with respect to service, commitment, leadership skills, interpreting skills, problem solving, responsiveness, optimism and determination, mindfulness of others' cultural preferences and norms and knowledge of the vocabulary and grammar of tourists' languages. The majority of these

competences were also validated by the findings from the quantitative phase of the study.

The study noted a dearth of trainings on the key competences to co-create memorable tourism experiences in the extant tour guiding training programmes. “Knowledge of destination and products” was the only key variable under emotional intelligence that was positively noted in both programmes. Among, the key recommendations advanced by the researcher, the review of the extant training curricula was viewed to be very key as this would provide the avenues for the introduction and integration of the emotional intelligence, cultural intelligence and personality trait factors into the curriculum. The next chapter presents the conclusions and recommendations of the study.

CHAPTER 8: CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

8.1 Introduction

The purpose of this final chapter is to summarise the key findings from the study, making conclusions and recommendations regarding the present research's main goal and objectives. The study's main goal was to assess tour guide competences required to co- create memorable tourism experiences and how they are developed. By using a mixed methods approach, the study was able to identify generalizable issues associated with the key tour guide competences to co create memorable tourism experiences. Apart from achieving the aforementioned research goal, this study also achieved the five stated objectives detailed in Chapter one and the associated sub-objectives:

1. The first objective was to do a literature based analysis of memorable tourism experiences and how tour guides can influence the development of memorable experiences. This objective was achieved in Chapters two and three where literature on theories related to experience creation, the memorable tourism experience, the role of tour guides in the co- creation of memorable tourism experiences, education and training interventions required for tour guides to co- create memorable tourism experiences just but to mention a few, were interrogated.
2. The second objective, namely to explore and analyse Zimbabwe's tour guide educational and training systems by means of a literature review was achieved in Chapter four. This objective was achieved by analysing literature on subjects that include types of guides in Zimbabwe, tour guide training institutions in Zimbabwe, key components or courses of Zimbabwe's tour guide training curricula, challenges of tour guide training in Zimbabwe.
3. The third objective sought to provide an overview of the methodological approach followed in the empirical phases of the study. This objective was fulfilled in Chapter five by using a mixed method research approach characterised by a

concurrent triangulation of both the quantitative and qualitative methods. On the quantitative side, a seven (7) page questionnaire was used to assess, among others; tourists' perceptions on the key tour guide competences to co create memorable experiences. On the qualitative side, an interview guide was administered to 46 tour and field guides mostly to elicit their perceptions on the key competences to co create memorable tourism experiences as well as their sentiments on Zimbabwe's tour guide education and training systems.

4. The study's fourth objective sought to establish the tour guide competences required to co-create memorable tourism experiences in the Zimbabwe tour guiding industry by means of an empirical analysis. This objective was addressed together with its five sub-objectives, namely: to assess tourists' and tour guides' perceptions on the nature of tour guiding experience being offered in Zimbabwe's tour guiding industry by means of an empirical analysis; to assess tourists' and tour guides' perceptions on the important tour guide competences (in general) by means of an empirical analysis; to determine the tour guide competences (specifically) important in the co-creation of memorable tourism experiences in Zimbabwe by means of an empirical analysis; to examine the performance of tour guides on the identified memorable tourism experience competences by means of an empirical analysis and to determine education and training interventions required to develop memorable tourism experience competences in tour guides by means of an empirical analysis. Objective three (3) and its train of sub-objectives were fulfilled by Chapters six, seven and eight that presented the empirical findings for the objective and sub-objectives in question.
5. The fourth objective sought to provide an overview of the methodological approach followed in the empirical phases of the study. This objective was fulfilled in Chapter five by using a mixed method research approach characterised by a concurrent triangulation of both the quantitative and qualitative methods. On the quantitative side, a seven (7) page questionnaire was used to assess, among others; tourists' perceptions on the key tour guide competences to co create memorable experiences. On the qualitative side, an interview guide

was administered to 46 tour and field guides mostly to elicit their perceptions on the key competences to co create memorable tourism experiences as well as their sentiments on Zimbabwe's tour guide education and training systems.

6. The fifth objective was to draw conclusions and make recommendations regarding tour guide competences for the co-creation of memorable tourism experiences in Zimbabwe. This last objective is addressed in the present chapter (Chapter eight) as the conclusions are detailed in section 8.3 while the recommendations are outlined in section 8.4.

8.2 Unique contribution

The study's unique contribution is going to be discussed from the theoretical, methodological and practical contribution perspectives.

8.2.1 Theoretical contribution

This study argued that previous research on the tour guiding field has paid little attention on how tourism frontline staff, particularly, tour guides can co create memorable tourism experiences. With the global economy having shifted from a service to an experience based economy (Kim *et al.*, 2012:13; Ritchie *et al.*, 2011:419; Sthapit, 2013:30); the ability of the human factor to deliver memorable experiences was confirmed to have emerged to be very key in the tourism industry world-wide (Bharwani & Jauhari, 2013:827). Notwithstanding these observations, the conspicuous paucity of scholarly attention on the subject as noted by Carmody (2013:680) was thus considered to be "ironic" and providing the gap which the study attempted to fill. The study therefore contributes to the existing body of knowledge by establishing the key tour guide competences to co-create memorable tourism experiences as it was motivated by academic calls for greater knowledge in the area (e.g. by Bharwani & Jauhari, 2013:837; Dalton, 2011:176; Kim, 2013:13; Sthapit, 2013:81; Tung & Ritchie, 2011:1368).

Thus the essence of the study was to extend the frontiers of knowledge in tour guide competences specifically by “unearthing” those specific competences to co create memorable tourism experiences, from the pool of the other competences traditionally considered to be important in tour guiding. Consistent with the preceding argument, the study therefore managed to distinguish between the important tour guide competences in “general” and the “key” tour guide to co-create memorable tourism experiences. Thus from a theoretical perspective, the study has revealed that the tour guide competences to co create memorable tourism experiences do not remain to be regarded as ambiguous and abstract concepts but can be identified. The most important contribution therefore, is that, this study developed, to the best understanding of the researcher, the first ever, empirically tested model of key tour guide competences to co-create memorable tourism experiences (see Figure 6.16) which was concurrently validated by the study’s qualitative findings. No previous study has developed a similar model to the best knowledge of the researcher. The current study is therefore perceived to be not only new but also a unique building block onto the previous scholarly attempts to understand the antecedents of a memorable tourism experience.

8.2.2 Methodological contribution

Secondly, this study contributed to methodology by employing a concurrent mixed method strategy that investigated both the demand side and the supply side of tourism in order to formulate a mutually acceptable model of tour guide competences to co-create memorable tourism experiences. This approach was opposed to the usual sequential approaches usually applied in mixed method studies. It also made a contribution by adopting a mixed methods approach to collect and analyse research data. Both qualitative and quantitative methods were used, yielding more detailed and reliable results.

Without taking anything from the earlier work of scholars, for example, Kim *et al.* (2012:12-25) and Sthapit (2013); the researcher acknowledges their efforts to have established the determinants of a memorable experience, but nonetheless, this was

only as viewed from one side “the tourists’ perspectives”. It is argued therefore that their work seemingly overlooked the aspect of “co-creation” by not factoring in the views of the tourism suppliers; the frontline staff, who happen to be “co-partners” with the tourists in the creation of memorable tourism experiences. The current study is thus, methodologically different in that it also considers the views of the co-creators of tourism experiences, the tour guides, in validating the competences model for the creation of memorable tourism experiences. It is thus argued that, while previous studies (e.g., Kim *et al.*, 2012:12-25; Tung & Ritchie, 2011:1367–1386; Sthapit, 2013:1-100) have identified the determinants of memorable experiences, their typologies are argued to not have examined the impact of the “human factor” of the tourism industry’s supply chain in the creation of memorable tourism experiences. The present study is therefore a unique attempt in that it therefore elicited the antecedents of a memorable tourism experiences cognisant of what the tourism “human factor” can actually do (that is the tour guide competences) to facilitate the development of the intended experiences in the tourism consumers. A closer attempt by Bharwani and Jauhari (2013:837) but for the hospitality sector’s frontline staff was noted to have been just but a preliminary conceptual framework which was not subjected to empirical testing.

8.2.3 Practitioner contributions

From a practical dimension, the study addresses the perceived ambiguity in the area of memorable tourism experiences by “delineating” the particular competences frontline staff can actually apply to enhance the development of memorable tourism experiences. The study therefore enables practitioners to realise that they can facilitate MTEs by moving away from a reliance on the “machine gun approach” of indiscriminately applying all the traditional competences of a guide during customer interactions, but can simply concentrate on the more relevant competences. The model to co-create memorable tourism experiences developed in this study suggests that it is composed of three competence clusters namely tour guides’ personality traits, emotional intelligence and cultural intelligence (PEC). Constituting only a total of twenty two (22) scale items, immediate information can be gained from this scale which could help practitioners to

provide appropriate interventions to enhance tour guides ability to facilitate memorable experiences. The management of tour companies can efficiently prioritise or allocate their resources during tour guide human capital development initiatives. For example, according to the measured model, emotional intelligence was noted to be the highest contributor to the co-creation of memorable tourism experiences, among the other scale factors. This suggests that tourism managers can possibly thin out irrelevant or less important skills development initiatives when developing tour guides and supply more resources on cultivating the most critical skills.

8.3 Conclusions

Based on the study's research objectives, the literature and empirical findings, the following conclusions were made.

8.3.1 Conclusions from literature review

The first objective was to do a literature based analysis of memorable tourism experiences and how tour guides can influence the development of memorable experiences. The following conclusions arose from this objective:

8.3.1.1 Conclusions from Chapter 2

- The study noted that a paradigm shift has transpired in the world economy, with an economic progression having occurred from the provision of goods and services to memorable experiences. The creation of memorable tourism experiences (MTE) was thus noted to be one of the new key drivers of destination competitiveness and sustainability (*C.f.2.1*).
- The study also noted that it is possible for tourism suppliers to delineate experiences; separating inadvertent experiences, which occur by happenstance to from the commercial experiences (in this context the “memorable tourism experiences) which can be purposefully designed and created to deliver experiential outcomes for the consumer. The scholar noted that quality

experiences do not occur by accident but can be consciously designed or co-created by the visitor and the supplier (C.f.2.3).

- The study also noted that tour guides, as the front-liners in the tourism industry, have a direct impact on tourist experience with incompetent guides causing adverse effects on tourists' enjoyment of their holiday experience. A tour guide's human interaction skills were identified to be so critical that they should be managed in such a manner so as to co-create value with tourists (C.f.2.7).
- The author proposed a conceptual model for competences required to co-create a memorable experience. These competences were bundled under the framework of Tour Guide Interactional Intelligence (TGII); constituting of personality traits, emotional intelligence and cultural intelligence (PEC) competences (C.f.2.7).

8.3.1.2 *Conclusions from Chapter 3*

- The study noted that the traditional tour guide training curricula and delivery approaches are not successful in developing the specific competences required for tour guides to co-create memorable tourism experiences such as the education and training programmes normally adopt a "one size fits all" approach that ignores individual complexities (C.f.3.3).
- It was observed that all the theorised TGII competences namely the Personality traits, Emotional Intelligence and Cultural Intelligence (PEC) competences are trainable. Several training approaches were linked with the development of these competences. These included the self-directed learning, self-coaching approaches, experiential learning approaches and social learning approaches. (C.f.3.4 to c. f. 3.5).

8.3.1.3 *Conclusions from Chapter 4*

- An evaluation of the ZTA-UZ Tour guide training syllabus against the body of literature on tour guide training curricula revealed that ZTA-UZ Tour guide

training syllabus is void of the following subject areas contained in literature: adventure and recreation activities, information and technology computers, tour guiding management, wildlife and survival skills, professional tour guiding and leadership, wildlife and ecology and foreign languages. These were noted to be about fifty percent (50%) of the tour guide training curricula components identified from the literature demonstrating the shallowness of the current training content of the programme from an international perspective (C.f.4.4).

- More importantly, the ZTA-UZ tour guide training curriculum was noted to be seemingly silent on the critical subjects of tour guides' personality traits, emotional intelligence and cultural intelligence, which were empirically confirmed to be the key antecedents of a memorable tourism experience. This confirms serious deficiencies in the current tour guide training curriculum that need to be urgently addressed (C.f.4.5).
- The ZPWMA and the ZPGHA professional guide training curriculum is also notable for being silent on subjects which the body of literature has confirmed to be important for guides to know such as marketing, communication skills, group and camp management. (C.f.4.5).
- The ZPWMA and the ZPGHA professional guide training curriculum was also noted for concentrating more on the legal aspects of wildlife management while ignoring the host-tourist interactional dimensions that have been noted to be crucial in the development of memorable tourism experiences (C.f.4.5).

8.3.2 Conclusions from the empirical research

The empirical research for this study included a survey of the departing tourists from Zimbabwe and interviews with the tour and field guides. From the empirical findings, the following conclusions were made:

- The majority of the tourists surveyed (93%) were satisfied with their guided tour experiences with only five percent (5%) of the respondents getting dissatisfied by their guided tour experience in Zimbabwe. These findings were validated by the

results from the qualitative results as the majority of the interviewees (76%) felt that tourists are getting satisfied with their guided tours experiences in Zimbabwe (*C.f.6.5.5. & c.f.7.4*).

- In terms of overall guided experience in Zimbabwe, field guides were identified with the best or superior ratings while tour guides were identified with rather mediocre ratings (*C.f.6.5.3*).
- The initially theorised forty two (42) scale items of tour guide competences were all rated to be generally important for the tour guides as revealed by the quantitative study's results based on the positively skewed mean scores obtained. When these competences were subjected to a factor analysis, they were reduced to five important factors namely passion, dedication, emotion understanding, influencing skills and cultural intelligence. The most important of the five factors was passion, with the highest mean value of 4.67. Influencing skills were found to be least important with a mean rating of 3.59 (*C.f.6.6, c.f.6.6.1 & c.f. 7.5*).
- In terms of performance on these "generally important" tour guide competences, guides were noted to be positively performing on all the initially identified forty two (42) scale items of the tour guides' performance areas. However when these performance areas were subjected to a factor analysis, they were reduced to four factors. These were identified to be: cultural intelligence, tour management, professionalism and social skills. The best performance rating of guides on the "generally important" tour guide competences were considered to be in the professionalism factor which had the highest mean rating of 4.24 and followed by social skills which had a mean value of 4.20. The least performance factor was considered to be the cultural intelligence which had the lowest mean of 3.79 (*C.f.6.7 & c.f.6.7.1*).
- Analysis of the interview responses elicited twenty four (24) important tour/field guide competences which validated the quantitative findings. The number of important competences that emerged from the qualitative study (24) was therefore considered reasonable given that they were only drawn from just but this current study. Comparatively, the forty two competences benchmark conceptualised in

the quantitative survey instrument had been synthesised from as many literature sources consulted with during the literature review (C.f.7.5.1).

- It is therefore concluded that if operators are not concerned about the co-creation of memorable tourism experiences, they can simply have to direct most of their efforts on the identified “generally important” tour guide competences which are passion, dedication, emotion understanding, influencing skills and cultural intelligence. Nonetheless, for the co-creation of memorable tourism experiences, a further consolidation of the already noted important competences would be required (C.f.6.6.1 & c.f. 7.5).
- A principal confirmatory factor analysis of the empirical findings confirmed that personality traits, emotional intelligence and cultural intelligence are the key tour guide competences for the co-creation of memorable tourism experiences and this validated the proposed study’s hypotheses: The study had proposed the following hypotheses: (C.f.6.8.2.1).

H1: there is a positive and significant relationship between a tour guide’s personality traits and memorable tourism experiences.

H2: there is a positive and significant relationship between a tour guide’s emotional intelligence and memorable tourism experiences.

H3: there is a positive and significant relationship between a tour guide’s cultural intelligence and memorable tourism experience.

- The three hypotheses were validated by the study’s regression analysis results (C.f.6.8.2.1).
- The confirmation of the study’s hypothesis also meant the validation of the study’s proposed conceptual framework. The three key competences to co-create memorable tourism experiences were noted to consist of twenty two further “sub-competences” which permutated as shown by Figure 8.1 (C.f. 6.8.1).

- About fourteen (14) of the twenty two (22) “sub-competences” that tour/field guides need to co-create memorable tourism experiences were validated by the findings from the qualitative phase of the study (C.f.7.5.2).
- The study further noted from the qualitative results, that in terms of cultural intelligence; apart from knowing much about the tourists’ cultures, guides should also be trained to understand more about the diverse aspects of their local culture. Guides were noted to be in most cases handling some “culture hungry” tourists (C.f.7.5.2.3).

The study concluded that cultural intelligence should be viewed holistically as entailing both the tourism supply and demand side cultural competences as opposed to some studies which only want to view it as constituting one’s ability to understanding the other people’s cultures (demand side culture) thereby side-lining knowledge about one’s own cultural knowledge (C.f.7.6).

Results from Table 7.2 (C.f.7.6) suggested that there is an intertwined relationship between knowledge of destination and products and guiding experience with better experienced guides having more knowledge about the destination and products. This suggested the possible effectiveness of experiential based training approaches in inculcating the knowledge based competences among tour guides.

- Among the key tour guide competences to co-create memorable tourism experiences, the greatest influencers were noted to be emotional intelligence, followed by personality traits and with the least influence coming from the cultural intelligence (C.f.6.8.2.1).
- The study concludes that not all “important” tour guide competences are instrumental in the co-creation of memorable tourism experiences as only twenty two (22) of the forty two (42) important competences from the quantitative phase and fourteen (14) from the twenty four (24) “important” competences from the qualitative phase, were rated to be the most “key” for co-creating memorable tourism experiences (C.f.7.5.1& 7.5.2).

- The conducted paired sample *t*-test analysis to assess the performance of the local guides on the key competences to co-create memorable tourism experiences showed that no positive performances were registered at any statistically significant confidence levels for emotional intelligence. With emotional intelligence having been concluded to be the largest contributor to the co-creation of memorable tourism experiences, one would have expected an avalanche of positive performances by the local guides in this competence cluster. The failure to record even a single statistically significant positive performance in this most superior domain serves to confirm the poor performance of the local guides as rated by the tourists, in as far as the co-creation of memorable tourism experiences by the local guides is concerned. This is despite the fact that the tourists were largely satisfied with their guided tours in Zimbabwe as earlier own alluded to (*C.f.6.9*).
- If the tour guides were thus rated to not have performed well (at statistically significant levels) on the key competences to co-create memorable tourism experiences and yet the majority of tourists expressed satisfaction with their current performance in guided tours, fresh questions will therefore emerge about the relationship between memorable tourism experience and tourist satisfaction. Though testing this relationship was not the study's key focus area, the results hence seem to suggest that tourists can still remain satisfied by a trip even though not much has been offered in terms of the "memorable experiences". Such a finding would therefore challenge the heralded importance of memorable tourism experiences as determinant destination competitiveness, if tourists can still get satisfied without their provision. One can thus conclude that given the study's results, destinations can still remain competitive without having migrated their offerings to the memorable experience realm. This observation calls for further interrogations in future researches (*C.f.5.5 & c.f.6.9*).
- The study noted that the ZTA/UZ training curriculum is less vividly recalled than ZPWMA/ZPGHA with the majority of the graduates from the course wishing to

prove their training by the show of training certificates rather than by the demonstration of knowledge acquired from training (C.f.7.7.2.3).

- Analysis of responses commonly revealed that the personality traits, emotional intelligence and cultural intelligence are scarcely addressed in both training programmes with the overall sentiments from interviewees being that these skills are acquired more from experience in the field than from the training programmes received. Thus suggesting the possible effectiveness of experiential training methods if adopted and implemented in the training of these competences (C.f.7.7.3).
- Additional weaknesses from the current education and training of tour/field guides in Zimbabwe were noted to be “a disjointed training curriculum”, “limited knowledge areas”, “exorbitant training and license renewal fees”, “highly centralised tour/field guide training”, “lack of practical oriented trainings” and lack of refresher course trainings.
- The study therefore concludes with the following model for the co-creation of memorable tourism experiences (see Figure 8.1):

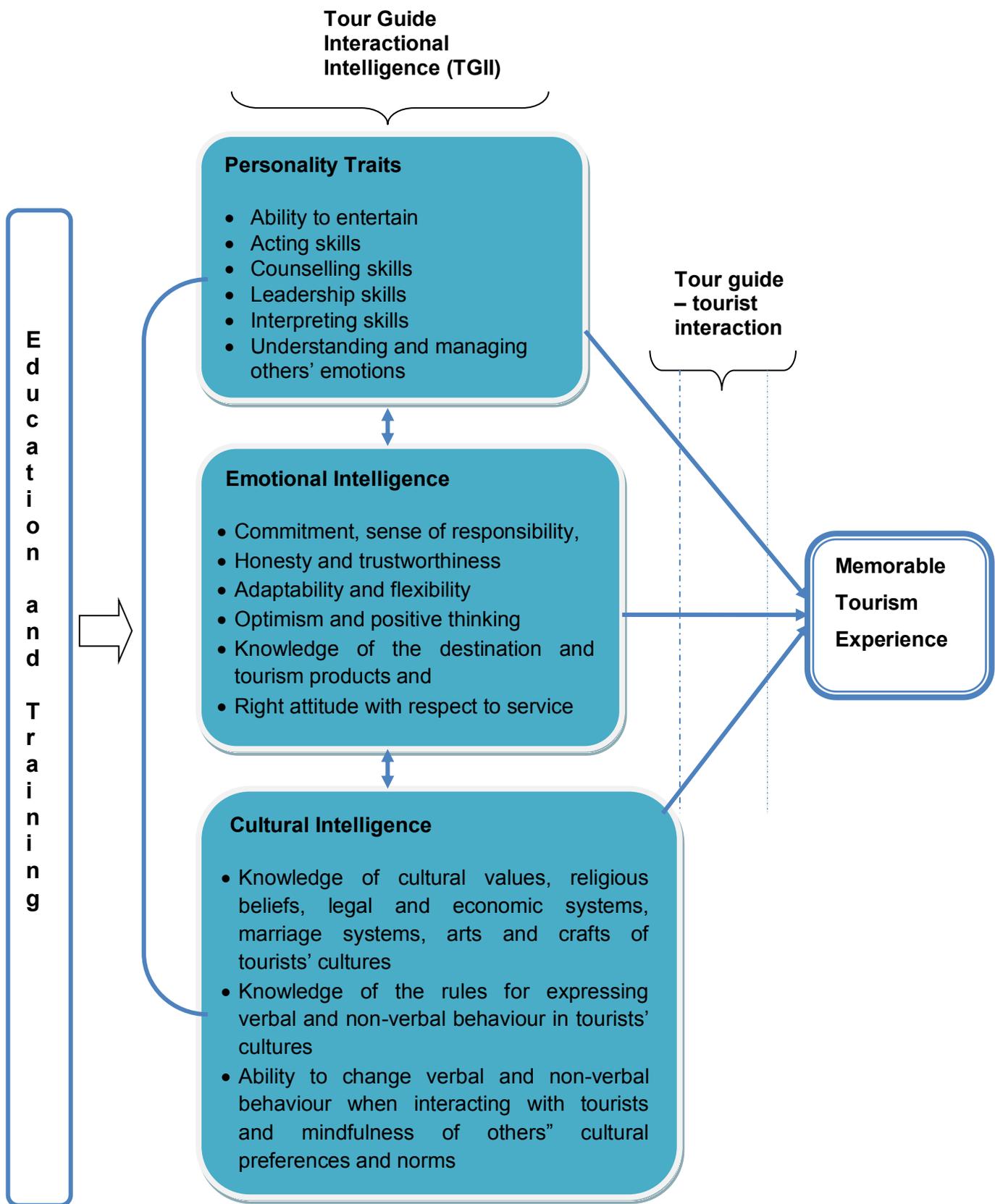


Figure 8.1: A model of competences required by tour guides to co-create memorable tourism experiences.

Source: Author's framework based on the empirical findings

8.4 Recommendations

Based on the research findings from the respondents and the literature (for example e.g Ang *et al.*, 2007:335-371, Bharwani & Jauhari, 2013:832; Lim & Aylett, 2007:4; Walls, *et al.*, 2011:166-197 and Wong & Lee, 2012:15), the study recommends that the identified tour guide competences to co-create memorable tourism experiences be developed by instituting a robust raft of training interventions. The following recommendations are therefore made:

8.4.1 Review training content and curricula

Designing the content and the best training delivery mechanism for a tour guide curriculum is a challenge, but it is recommended that the training of guides should start with the identification of exit level outcomes (Chowdhary & Prakash, 2009:163). Most of the recommendations in this section are therefore motivated by the desire to influence the development of the “envisaged exit level outcomes” for Zimbabwe’s tour/field guide training programmes, which are chiefly the competences needed by the tour guides to co-create memorable tourism experiences. Nyahunzvi and Njerekai (2013:7) acknowledged that it is the content of training curriculum that improves the skills of tour guides with the courses that a tour guide training curriculum contains having a significant impact on the level of professionalism and expertise on the tour guides. As already been alluded to, the syllabi being used to train guides in Zimbabwe, does not offer much content, producing tour guides who are ill-prepared for guided interpretation (Nyahunzvi & Njerekai, 2013:5).

8.4.1.1 Incorporate the missing “basic” tour guide knowledge areas

A review of the ZTA-UZ Tour guide training syllabus should consider incorporating missing subject areas, recommended from literature analysis, which include: adventure and recreation activities (Prakash *et al.*, 2011), information, computers and technology, (Salazar, 2006), tour guiding management (Ap & Wang, 2001; Chan, 2010; Chow, 2004; Jonasson & Scherle, 2012), wildlife and survival skills (Salazar, 2006), wildlife

and ecology and foreign languages (Collins, 2000; Pond, 1993; Prakash *et al.*, 2011 & Salazar, 2006). On the other hand, the ZPWMA and the ZPGHA professional guide training curriculum is recommended to consider incorporating; among others, content on marketing, communication skills and group and camp management, adventure and recreation activities, information computers and technology and foreign languages. These subjects which were noted to be missing in the respective curricula will assist the local tour guide training programmes to benchmark with the international tour guide training curriculum content standards as noted from literature.

8.4.1.2 Incorporate learning programmes on the identified PEC competences to co-create memorable tourism experiences

The extant tour/field guide training curricula should, in addition to the preceding recommendation, be revised to encompass the identified competences to co-create memorable tourism experiences, namely the personality traits, emotional intelligence and cultural intelligence. Due consideration under the personality traits should focus on inculcating a guide's ability to entertain, acting skills, counselling skills, leadership skills, interpreting skills and understand and manage others' emotions. Emotional intelligence competences that need attention in the reviewed syllabus should include addressing guides' commitment, sense of responsibility, honesty and trustworthiness, adaptability and flexibility, optimism and positive thinking, knowledge of the destination and tourism products and right attitude with respect to service. Cultural intelligence competences that will need emphasis during the training should include knowledge of cultural values, religious beliefs, legal and economic systems, marriage systems, arts and crafts of tourists' cultures. Other cultural intelligence competences should include knowledge of the rules for expressing verbal and non-verbal behaviour in tourists' cultures, ability to change verbal and non-verbal behaviour when interacting with tourists and mindfulness of others' cultural preferences and norms.

Still under the cultural intelligence competence, the study also recommends; as noted from the qualitative results, that apart from knowing much about the tourists' cultures,

guides should also be trained to understand more about the diverse aspects of their local culture. This was largely because guides were noted to be in most cases handling some “culture hungry” tourists.

8.4.1.3 Train a foreign language

It was noted in the empirical results that there is a serious lack of foreign language component in the extant current tour guide training programmes when yet most respondent tour guides expressed need for foreign language courses in the curriculum. Prakash *et al.* (2011) and Salazar (2006) advocate for the inclusion of foreign languages in tour guide training curricula. The study therefore recommends that the extant tour guide training programmes in Zimbabwe should encompass a foreign language component in their curricula. This will also serve to reinforce the cultural intelligence of the guides.

8.4.1.4 The training duration for the ZTA/UZ training course – longer is better

It is difficult to set the exact duration of training programmes as they vary from case to case ranging from as low as 3 days duration (Black & King, 2002:103-117) to up to 3 years (Chowdhary & Prakash, 2009:166). It is however the study’s recommendation that the ZTA/UZ training course be lengthened from the current three months period so as to “reasonably” and “adequately” attend to the training content and knowledge deficiencies noted in the current syllabus. The ZPWMA and ZPGHA’s three yearlong training is considered to be fair.

8.4.1.5 Cafeteria self-directed learning approaches

It is the study’s recommendation that the ZTA/UZ tour guide training programme consider providing a “cafeteria approach” to training delivery as is being partially applied in the ZPWMA/ZPGHA programme. This recommendation is being proffered in the realisation that if the training duration will be increased for the course, a fresh challenge of the training time constraints will emerge for the trainee guides especially those who

are already working in the industry. This can be solved by using the “cafeteria approach” to training delivery whereby the entire tour guide training contents can be divided into smaller modules, which the students can learn using the self directed and self coaching approaches. Furtherstill, there can be a few compulsory and a few optional modules and the learner may have more freedom in terms of choosing his/her pace of learning and timing. Once the required numbers of courses or credits are earned, the trainees are then entitled to a particular level or type of tour guiding license. This approach is very applicable for the impartation of the PEC competences as the literature confirmed that they can be developed through self-directed or self-coaching techniques. For example Stein and Book (2006:35-53) proposed a three step self-coaching approach to emotional intelligence education and training while Lynn (2006) proposed a six step one. Du Preez (2012:49) recommended a three phased integrated selfcoaching approach to emotional intelligence development approach. All these approaches are at the disposal of the trainees when the suggested cafeteria model of learning is effected.

8.4.1.6 Experiential based training approaches

The study noted especially for the ZTA/UZ tour guide training, that the guiding was considered to be too theoretical even though it is supported by a practical based research project component. It is therefore recommended that field trips, more field-based activities and more practical based teaching and learning approaches be infused into the programme and become an integral part of pedagogy. This recommendation is consistent with Cushner and Brislin (1996:29) and MacNab (2012:70)’s observations on the importance of experiential education especially when it comes to the inculcation of cultural intelligence competences. The tour guide training course can thus be restructured to allow for certain periods where trainee guides are required to be on industrial attachment to accompany experienced guides on tours where they would then learn through the social learning practices and observation approaches from the experienced guides. The social learning processes may for example be provided through the post-experience group discussions during which trainees can engage in discussions in order to understand further important concepts of their training. MacNab,

(2012:70) argues that such social learning platforms will enable the trainees to correctly model their behaviour in potentially challenging cross-cultural situations.

During their attachment to these experienced guides, it is recommended that the trainees undergo through MacNab (2012:70)'s seven stage experiential training approach (c.f.3.5.3.4). Attachment to the experienced guides can help ensure that best practice is shared. A provision for credits should then be set to be awarded to trainees who would have satisfied this experiential learning requirement.

8.4.1.7 Engage experienced guides for classroom training delivery

The study recommends that experienced guides be invited to deliver guest presentations on targeted knowledge/ experiential areas of the training programme. Apart from the empirical findings from the study, Nyahunzvi and Njerekai (2013:5) earlier on had observed that the majority of lecturers for the tour guiding course did not have either any formal tour guiding qualifications or practical experience as tour guides which compromised their delivery standards. The study additionally recommends that, the tour guide training institutions should formally provide spaces for trainee guides to meet and discuss experiences with the senior guides during the training presentations. Such interventions would be aimed at opening up more experiential learning opportunities for the trainee guides through interactions with the senior guides.

8.4.1.8 Apply integrated tour guide education and training methods

The study recommends that some integrated tour guide training methods be applied during the training to minimise the traditionally “dull” classroom teaching approaches. This would enable those trainees who are noted to be uncomfortable to learn from one teaching/learning style to benefit from the other styles. It was mostly noted from the ZTA/UZ tour guide training that the lecturers mostly rely on the use of the power point lecture delivery method which is severely affected when power outages are experienced as there will be no back up power supplies on the training venues. Training should thus encompass the use of multiple techniques in both the classroom such as the problem

based small-group discussions, video viewing and critiquing, written exercises, debates, counselling, positive thinking exercises, coaching sessions, role-playing activities of many kinds and chalkboard sessions. Practical field based exercises to demonstrate the developed competences such as conducting guided tours around the local environs should also be implemented.

8.4.1.9 Introduce an Apprenticeship Training Scheme for the ZTA/UZ trained tour guides.

Since the study noted that the ZNPWMA/ZPGHA field guides were generally rated more positively than their ZTA/UZ trained tour guide counterparts it is recommended that an Apprenticeship Training Scheme be thus introduced in the later tour guide training programme. The study observed earlier on that it is mandatory under the ZNPWMA/ZPGHA training programme that the learner guides undergo a two year apprenticeship whereby they will be attached to an experienced fully licenced professional guide. By introducing this apprenticeship mode of training delivery in the ZTA/UZ it is hoped that the exit level competences of these guides will consequently improve. This view was validated by Bolli and Hof (2014:6) who noted that apprenticeship training led to changes in apprentices' personality traits.

8.4.2 Evaluation of the training

The study empirically noted that very limited attempts are being made to evaluate training of tour guides in Zimbabwe. Post training evaluations should be treated as integral components of tour guide training as they influence the development of improved future training interventions. The study therefore, recommends that tour guide training evaluations be conducted systematically to test any post training changes in trainees' competence related behaviours and performance. This recommendation resonates well with Cherniss and Goleman (1998:7)'s observation that evaluation is the final phase of the training process and it must at all times be an inherent part of the training process, since it is only in this way that the effectiveness of performed activities can be measured.

The study therefore recommends that some trainee self-assessing methods be administered. These would involve some pre- and post-training self-assessment questionnaire being administered to each ZTA/UZ or ZPWMA/ZPGHA trainee on the first and last day of each course. The statements in the questionnaire should correspond to the tour guide training course's planned learning outcomes to enhance, for example; the competences to co create memorable tourism experiences. Hence the trainee tour guides can be asked to independently rate themselves as "not capable", "somewhat capable", or "capable" on the PEC scale containing, for example, the identified twenty two (22) competences to co-create memorable tourism experiences.

The results from the self-assessments would then assist the individuals to recognise the extent of their own learning and areas still in need of improvement. This exercise would as well provide feedback to the tour guide trainers concerning the overall success of the training in delivering the desired learning outcomes and to determine the "effective" training methods and the particular inputs that lead to it.

Follow-up assessments of trainees' learning and behaviour several months (e.g. three months) after the training can reveal weaknesses or strengths that immediate post-training evaluations might have missed. The study recommends that follow-up assessments with the trainees be conducted to assess them as they will be working in the real guiding field. The assessments can either be conducted by the trainers themselves or other observers who can be engaged as "mystery shoppers".

8.4.3 *Train the trainers*

The study also noted that the trainers themselves need to have more practical exposure in the guiding profession rather than for them to teach only from their academic knowledge. An earlier study on Zimbabwe's Tour Guiding sector by Nyahunzvi and Njerekai (2013:5) also elicited similar observations that the bulk of the lecturers for the ZTA/UZ tour guiding course had no any formal tour guiding qualifications or practical experience as tour guides. Thus practical industry exposure should first target the trainers themselves and then cascade down to the trainees. It is further recommended

that the tour guide trainers be trained in pedagogy including curriculum development as well. It should not be assumed that any ZTA/UZ or ZPWMA/ZPGHA trainer is trained to be a trainer or a training curriculum developer. This means that certain “tail end” curriculum delivery inefficiencies being noted in the current programmes could be nipped in the bud during the train the trainer interventions.

8.4.4 Training programme evaluation

Apart from the already discussed micro based tour guide training evaluations, the study also recommends that the broader tour guide training programs be not only regularly but holistically evaluated in consultation with the tourism industry stakeholders. There should be inputs from, for example, tour and travel companies regarding the tour guide trainings’ course contents as they will at the end of the day want to engage competent guides. Programme evaluations will thus ensure that the training programmes remain current and relevant in an ever-changing tourism environment. It was noted from literature and from the empirical results, that there is a paucity of data available on the evaluation of guide training programmes not only in Zimbabwe but globally (Black *et al.*, 2001:153).

In Zimbabwe it was for example, noted that in the renewal of the professional guide learners’ license, the ZPWMA would need the learner guides to support their renewal application with a confirmation letter from a fully licensed professional guide that they are under their training supervision and tutorship. The study however noted that in reality the learner guides are in most cases not operating under the tutorship of the fully licensed guides due to the costs involved. Thus in reality, they will be operating independently without any training whatsoever from the purported tutors. The tutors would only appear on the picture when the license renewal period has come, as it is a legal requirement for a learner guide to have a confirmation letter from a tutor to renew their license. Most learner professional guides were therefore noted to be disgruntled by this requirement as it was only seen to enrich the tutors as they would get paid by the learner guides for only writing the recommendation letters. Thus the ZPWMA was felt

not to be doing enough evaluation and monitoring of the training of learner guides by their professed tutors. It therefore does not need one to be a rocket scientist to appreciate that the need for regular evaluations of the tour guide training programmes as this will assist the tour guide training institutions to check on their effectiveness.

8.4.5 *Refresher courses*

The study also noted the need for some refresher courses especially among the free-lance tour guides. Guides who are contracted to some tour companies alluded to undergo some refresher trainings through their company in house training arrangements. It is therefore recommended that some follow up refresher courses be continuously offered to the guides in practise. These refresher courses can be treated as opportunities to learn new knowledge or to gain specialised knowledge in the sector which would include for example, awareness about new tourism products on the destination or region, new tourism policy enactments or any new social issues.

8.4.6 *Establish an e-learning portal*

Closely related to the preceding point, is the recommendation for the establishment of a continuous e-learning portal accessible to all the registered and licensed guides in Zimbabwe. Some concerns were earlier on raised about the tour guide training initiatives being centralised in the major cities of Harare and Bulawayo. Thus the portal will be important for supporting guide training initiatives by providing a platform where guides can be accessible to current updates on the goings at the various levels of the tour guiding field.

8.4.7 *Decentralise the professional guide examination system*

The study also recommends that the examinations for the professional guide's course be decentralised from the major cities of Harare and Bulawayo as this proves to be costly for the trainees in terms of the travelling and subsistence costs when taking the examinations. It is recommended that the examinations be decentralised to all the major

tourism centres of the country were most of the trainee guides are resident. This will be consistent with the practise in other countries where tour guide training is decentralised to local levels. For example, as noted earlier on, in Australia, each state has its own tourism training body that conducts all accredited courses according to the guidelines set down in the curricula.

8.4.8 Allow for specialisation

Given the new tourism development thrust in Zimbabwe in which tourism is being diversified from wildlife to other new niche forms of tourism including cultural tourism, business tourism, medical (health tourism); industrial tourism, shopping tourism, agro-tourism, sports tourism, religious tourism and historical and heritage-based tourism products (National Tourism Policy, 2011:16) it is recommended that the development of tour guides be deliberately tailored to deal with these newly emerging tourism nuggets. It is currently difficult for one to identify the specialist guides in Zimbabwe as they are only registered under the generalist categories of being either a tour guides or professional guides (field guide) with the national classification criteria not allowing for further differentiation. The study therefore recommends that local guides be classified as is done by Singapore Tourism Board where there can be specialist guides available for arts, architecture, food, heritage, nature, specialised interest, general and taxi. This will assist not only tourists but the tour operators in selecting the most appropriate guides for their organised tour arrangements.

8.4.9 Promote the development of women tour guides

It was noted from the qualitative study that only six out of the forty six interviewees (13%) were females. As guide training is conducted in future, it is recommended by the study that conscious efforts are made to promote women to join the profession. On gender reasons, in some cases there are female tourists who may not feel comfortable to have some of their personal challenges attended to by male guides in a trip. Tourism stakeholders should therefore be encouraged to make the working conditions attractive for women tour guides.

8.4.10 Review of tour guide training and licensing fees

In view of the noted high tour guide training and licensing fees, it is recommended that the government intervenes and provide more support to the trainee tour guides. Particular support should be channelled with respect to the requirements for the full license professional guides examination where one has to bring a rifle, which is in most cases over a thousand United States dollars (US\$1000); a four wheel drive vehicle and tents, among others. It is recommended that such material resource requirements be possibly provided for hiring by the government, but on subsidised rates.

8.4.11 Unification of the ZTA/UZ and the ZPWMA/ZPGHA training programmes

In view of the perceived heavy tour guide licensing fees noted in Section, 8.4.10 it is also recommended that both the ZTA/UZ and the ZPWMA/ZPGHA training programmes be integrated to create a one stop license for guides in Zimbabwe. This will improve the coordination between the licensing authorities. Currently both institutions operate independently and parallel to each other but with numerous duplication of effort and jurisdiction. Nyahunzvi and Njerekai (2013:5) regard tour guide training in Zimbabwe as fragmented and characterised by a lack of an integrated and standardised national training curriculum. It is therefore recommended that if there is a mutually accepted structure that will oversee the training and licensing of guides in Zimbabwe, there will be an improvement and better coordination of guide trainings. Currently the ZPWMA/ZPGHA training is viewed to be producing a better guide than that from the ZTA/UZ programme. By integrating the two programmes, it is hoped that such disparities will be effectively dealt with as the guides would be developed from the same mill. It is therefore recommended that a further review of both programmes be done and the integration areas be explored so as to develop a well rounded up guide.

To conclude on this section, the findings and recommendations presented here, though they seem centered on Zimbabwe's tour guiding sector, they should not be viewed as unique to the local sector alone they are likely to be applicable and transferable to other destinations or other small tour companies that specialise in guided tours. This means

the research may also provide valuable lessons for other players in the tour guiding sectors elsewhere who could be facing more or less similar issues and challenges.

8.5 Limitations of the study

Limitations are usually found in the process of research (Xu & Chan, 2010:117-194) and this study is no exception. The results of the present study should thus be interpreted with caution because of its inherent limitations, noted as follows:

- Due to unavoidable time and resource constraints, it was only possible to conduct the study in the Victoria Falls region. Although this is Zimbabwe's prime tourism region (Chikuta, 2015:178) and this is where the majority of the registered and ZTA/UZ trained tour guides are resident (at least 90%); it was felt that the study should have targeted other regions of the country as well. As a result, further insights into the key tour guide competences to co-create memorable tourism experiences were not realised, which could have potentially offered more insight into the study.
- The study focused mainly on the tour and field guides and did not encompass the guides from the built heritages and monuments, for example, from the museums. These could have offered valuable insights to the study's research question. The researcher however noted that, in Zimbabwe, these are mostly developed through in-house training programmes and are not necessarily required to be registered by the Zimbabwe Tourism Authority, thus they were not part of the database obtained from ZTA that the researcher used to contact the guides for the interviews.
- This research does not include other tourism industry sectors such as the hospitality, which shows that there is scope for further study on competences to create memorable tourism experiences in other tourism sectors.
- Lastly, though the study has justified the importance of adopting a mixed methods approach, it should however be noted that there are some imminent limitations in using the approach. Mixed methods researchers are noted to face

two kinds of problems when it comes to publishing in academic journals. Firstly it is to do with the tendency by some journals that are believed to have a methodological bias toward either quantitative or qualitative research, which can therefore limit the publication of mixed methods studies in their journals (Bryman, 2007:8-22). Secondly, the other limitation is to do with the need to discuss two sets of results (QUAL+QUANT) which make mixed methods results generally long, which according to Bryman (2007:8-22) makes it difficult to publish the synthesised findings in journals due to the length restrictions usually imposed on authors by the journals.

8.6 Recommendations for future research

This study's limitations provide the directions for future studies.

1. Firstly, this study focused only on tour guide competences. Therefore, future studies should explore the competences of the different frontline employees in the tourism industry for example, in the hospitality sector so as to compare and validate the results from the present study.
2. It should also be appreciated that although the study's model has elicited the key competences to co-create memorable tourism experiences as the TGII comprising of PEC factors, it is however important to realise that other factors may also play a critical role in the relationship between tour guide performance and the development of memorable tourism experiences in the tourists. For example, future studies might explore how the noted intervening variables in the model such as physical environment, ambience and other customers affect this relationship.
3. It is further recommended that future studies explore the relationship between the competences to co-create memorable tourism experiences and tourists satisfaction. The major reason is that, in the current study, tourists were noted to be satisfied with their guided tours while at the same the local guides were perceived to have not performed well in co-creating memorable tourism

experiences. It will thus be important to further examine the relationship between memorable tourism experiences on tourist satisfaction.

4. Considering the data collection method used, since the quantitative phase of this study largely involved the collection of data at a single point in time (the Victoria Falls International Airport) it was unable to measure potential changes in respondents over time. It is therefore, recommended that a longitudinal study be conducted and examined to establish if it could further contribute to the body of research concerning the relationships between the tour guide competences and the development of memorable tourism experiences.
5. Since the study focussed mostly on Zimbabwe, it is recommended that future studies consider a multinational geographical scope of study for example targeting the Southern Africa region at large. Such a study would therefore explore how tour guiding can also be further developed at that level for example interrogating the feasibility of introducing a common Southern Africa Development Community (SADC) tour guide academy for uniformity throughout the region
6. In addition, sequential mixed method designs starting with in-depth explorations followed by quantitative surveys would be also be useful for validating the current model or developing a better understanding of the key tour guide competences to co-create memorable tourism experiences. This study, being the first of its kind, to the best knowledge of the researcher, to assess the key guide competences to co-create memorable tourism experiences and using a concurrent mixed method, thus provides a platform for replication elsewhere.

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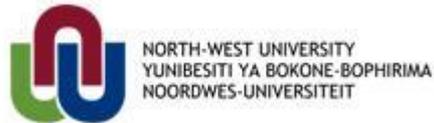
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Faculty of Economics and Management Sciences
Tourism Research in Economic Environs and Society (TREES)

Dear Respondent

Re: Academic Research Questionnaire

My name is Brighton Hurombo and I am studying for a *Doctor of Philosophy* degree in Tourism Management at the Potchefstroom Campus of the North-West University. My research is entitled: “**Assessing key tour guide competences to co-create Memorable Tourism Experiences**”. The attached questionnaire is an important survey designed to assess your opinions about pertinent issues related to the topic in question. Your answers to this 8 to 10 minutes questionnaire will assist the tour guiding sector to better serve you in future. I would very much appreciate if you answer all the questions carefully. All your information shall be strictly confidential and will be used for academic purposes only.

Please note:

- Your participation is voluntary and you can withdraw at any time.
- The answers will only be used for academic research purposes.
- If you have any queries about the survey, please contact any of the undersigned.
- Show your answer by ticking appropriately or filling the spaces provided.

Thank you for your time and help.

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SECTION A: YOUR BACKGROUND INFORMATION

A-1. What type of visitor are you? Local International

A-2. If international, state your country of origin **A-2.1** Nationality?.....

A-3. Gender: Male Female

A-4. Marital status: Single Married Divorced

A-5. Please indicate your age (in years): 19 and below 20-24 25-29 30-34
35-39 40-44 45-49 50-54 55-59 60-64 65 +

A-6. Did you engage a guide in some of your tours in Zimbabwe? Yes No

A-6.1 If yes, indicate the type of guide you engaged (please tick all that apply)

Tour Guide Field (Safari/ River/ Boat/ Helicopter) guide Others

A-7. If yes to question **A-6** above at which particular destinations in Zimbabwe did you use the guide(s)?

A-8. Which activities did you participate in while being guided by a tour/ field guide in Zimbabwe?
.....

A-9. Who were you travelling with in your guided tour (s)? (Tick all that apply)

Alone With family with my partner/spouse With friend(s)

With strangers Other (please specify).....

A-10. What was the main purpose of your travel? Pleasure Family gathering Relaxing

Visiting Friends / Relatives Volunteer Business Transit

Religion/pilgrimages Education and training Other (please specify).....

A-11. If you are an international visitor, have you visited Zimbabwe before? Yes No

A-12. If yes, how many times? Once Twice Thrice 4 times 5 times

More than five times **A-13.1** When did you last visit Zimbabwe?

A-13. What was the average length of stay in your tour(s)? (.....) nights

A-14. What is your highest educational qualification? Secondary or high school education

Technical/ vocational qualification Undergraduate degree Masters degree

PhD Other (please specify)

SECTION B: THE NATURE OF TOUR/ FIELD GUIDING EXPERIENCES IN ZIMBABWE

B-1. How interested are you with guided tours?

Very Disinterested Somewhat disinterested Neutral Somewhat interested Very interested

B-2. How satisfied or dissatisfied are you with the guided tour(s) experience you had in Zimbabwe?

Very dissatisfied dissatisfied unsure satisfied very satisfied

B-3 How would you rate your overall guided tour experience in Zimbabwe?

Unmemorable fair good very good memorable

B-4. Does Zimbabwe have the ideal type of tour/field guides?

Not at all slightly somewhat very much extremely

B-5. Would it matter if you did not have a tour/field guide?

Strongly disagree disagree neutral agree strongly agree

SECTION C: IMPORTANT TOUR/ FIELD GUIDE COMPETENCES

Based on your experience in your tour(s) in Zimbabwe, please circle the appropriate number to rate the importance of the following tour/field guide competences in contributing to the quality of your tour(s) experience. The scale can be interpreted as follows:

(1) Not important at all (2) Unimportant (3) neutral (4) important (5) very important

	Tour/ Field Guide competence	1	2	3	4	5
C-1	Enthusiasm	1	2	3	4	5
C-2	Ability to entertain	1	2	3	4	5
C-3	Acting skills	1	2	3	4	5
C-4	Effective communication	1	2	3	4	5
C-5	Interpreting skills	1	2	3	4	5
C-6	Counselling skills	1	2	3	4	5
C-7	Leadership skills	1	2	3	4	5
C-8	Organising skills	1	2	3	4	5
C-9	Time management	1	2	3	4	5
C-10	Ability to solve problems	1	2	3	4	5
C-11	Knowledge of the destination and tourism products	1	2	3	4	5
C-12	Honesty and trustworthiness	1	2	3	4	5

(1) Not important at all (2) Unimportant (3) neutral (4) important (5) very important

C-13	Appearing neat and tidy	1	2	3	4	5
C-14	Ability to pay attention to detail	1	2	3	4	5
C-15	A sense of humor	1	2	3	4	5
C-16	Multilingual ability	1	2	3	4	5
C-17	Right attitude with respect to service	1	2	3	4	5
C-18	Ability to coordinate within group members	1	2	3	4	5
C-19	Teaching skills	1	2	3	4	5
C-20	Having a sense of responsibility	1	2	3	4	5
C-21	Adaptability and flexibility	1	2	3	4	5
C-22	Optimism and positive thinking	1	2	3	4	5
C-23	Commitment	1	2	3	4	5
C-24	Self-confidence	1	2	3	4	5
C-25	Tolerance	1	2	3	4	5
C-26	Ability to understand and manage others' emotions	1	2	3	4	5
C-27	Handling relationships	1	2	3	4	5
C-28	Influencing and persuasion skills	1	2	3	4	5
C-29	Seeking and assimilating feedback	1	2	3	4	5
C-30	Anticipating tourist needs	1	2	3	4	5
C-31	Responsiveness	1	2	3	4	5
C-32	Team capabilities	1	2	3	4	5
C-33	Conflict resolution skills	1	2	3	4	5
C-34	Mindfulness of others' cultural preferences and norms	1	2	3	4	5
C-35	Knowledge of legal and economic systems of tourists' cultures	1	2	3	4	5
C-36	Knowledge of the rules (vocabulary, grammar) of tourists' languages	1	2	3	4	5
C-37	Knowledge of cultural values and religious beliefs of tourists' cultures	1	2	3	4	5
C-38	Knowledge of the marriage systems of tourists' cultures	1	2	3	4	5
C-39	Knowledge of the arts and crafts of tourists' cultures	1	2	3	4	5
C-40	Knowledge of the rules for expressing non-verbal behaviours in tourists' cultures	1	2	3	4	5
C-41	Ability to change verbal behaviour when interacting with tourists	1	2	3	4	5
C-42	Ability to change non-verbal behaviour when interacting with tourists	1	2	3	4	5

SECTION D - ZIMBABWE TOUR/FIELD GUIDES' PERFORMANCE

Please circle the appropriate number to rate the performance of tour/field guides in Zimbabwe based on your experience with them during your visit. The scale can be interpreted as follows:

(1) Extremely poor (2) poor (3) neutral (4) good (5) extremely good

	Zimbabwe Tour /field guide performance	1	2	3	4	5
D-1	Enthusiasm	1	2	3	4	5
D-2	Ability to entertain	1	2	3	4	5
D-3	Acting skills	1	2	3	4	5
D-4	Communication effectiveness	1	2	3	4	5
D-5	Interpretation skills	1	2	3	4	5
D-6	Counselling abilities	1	2	3	4	5
D-7	Leadership skills	1	2	3	4	5
D-8	Organising skills	1	2	3	4	5
D-9	Time management	1	2	3	4	5
D-10	Ability to solve problems	1	2	3	4	5
D-11	Knowledge of the destination and tourism products	1	2	3	4	5
D-12	Honesty and trustworthiness	1	2	3	4	5
D-13	Appearing neat and tidy	1	2	3	4	5
D-14	Attention to detail	1	2	3	4	5
D-15	Sense of humor	1	2	3	4	5
D-16	Multilingual ability	1	2	3	4	5
D-17	Attitude with respect to service	1	2	3	4	5
D-18	Ability to coordinate within group members	1	2	3	4	5
D-19	Teaching skills	1	2	3	4	5
D-20	Sense of responsibility	1	2	3	4	5
D-21	Adaptability and flexibility	1	2	3	4	5
D-22	Optimism and positive thinking	1	2	3	4	5
D-23	Commitment	1	2	3	4	5
D-24	Self-confidence	1	2	3	4	5
D-25	Tolerance	1	2	3	4	5
D-26	Ability to understand and manage tourist emotions	1	2	3	4	5
D-27	Handling of tour relationships	1	2	3	4	5
D-28	Influencing and persuasion skills	1	2	3	4	5
D-29	Seeking and assimilating your feedback	1	2	3	4	5
D-30	Ability to anticipate tourist needs	1	2	3	4	5
D-31	Responsiveness	1	2	3	4	5
D-32	Team capabilities	1	2	3	4	5
D-33	Conflict resolution skills	1	2	3	4	5

		(1) Extremely poor	(2) poor	(3) neutral	(4) good	(5) extremely good
D-34	Mindful of your cultural preferences and norms	1	2	3	4	5
D-35	Knowledge of legal and economic systems of your culture	1	2	3	4	5
D-36	Knowledge of the rules (vocabulary, grammar) of your language	1	2	3	4	5
D-37	Knowledge of cultural values and religious beliefs of your culture	1	2	3	4	5
D-38	Knowledge of the marriage systems of your culture	1	2	3	4	5
D-39	Knowledge of the arts and crafts of your culture	1	2	3	4	5
D-40	Knowledge of the rules for expressing non-verbal behaviours in your culture.	1	2	3	4	5
D-41	The ability to use verbal behaviour appropriately in your culture	1	2	3	4	5
D-42	The ability to use nonverbal behaviour appropriately in your culture	1	2	3	4	5

SECTION E – TOUR/FIELD GUIDE COMPETENCES TO CO-CREATE MEMORABLE TOURISM EXPERIENCES

A memorable tourism experience is defined as an experience that visitors not only remember but also treasure long after the event is over. Please recall a Memorable Tourism Experience that was facilitated by a tour/field guide in your trip in Zimbabwe.

E-1. To what extent do you remember the experience asked in E above?

not at all slightly somewhat very much Extremely

E-2. As you recall your Memorable Tourism Experience, please circle the appropriate number to rate the extent you agree or disagree that the following tour/field guide competences facilitated the development of that experience. The scale can be interpreted as follows:

(1) Strongly disagree (2) disagree (3) neutral (4) agree (5) strongly agree

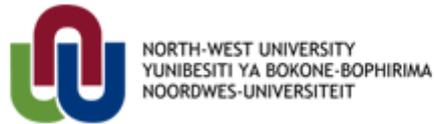
	Tour/ Field Guide competencies	1	2	3	4	5
E-2.1	Enthusiasm	1	2	3	4	5
E-2.2	Ability to entertain	1	2	3	4	5
E-2.3	Acting skills	1	2	3	4	5
E-2.4	Effective communication	1	2	3	4	5
E-2.5	Interpreting skills	1	2	3	4	5
E-2.6	Counselling skills	1	2	3	4	5
E-2.7	Leadership skills	1	2	3	4	5
E-2.8	Organising skills	1	2	3	4	5
E-2.9	Time management	1	2	3	4	5
E-2.10	Ability to solve problems	1	2	3	4	5
E-2.11	Knowledge of the destination and tourism products	1	2	3	4	5

(1) Strongly disagree (2) disagree (3) neutral (4) agree (5) strongly agree

E-2.12	Honesty and trustworthiness	1	2	3	4	5
E-2.13	Neatness and tidiness	1	2	3	4	5
E-2.14	Ability to pay attention to detail	1	2	3	4	5
E-2.15	A sense of humor	1	2	3	4	5
E-2.16	Multilingual ability	1	2	3	4	5
E-2.17	Right attitude with respect to service	1	2	3	4	5
E-2.18	Ability to coordinate within group members	1	2	3	4	5
E-2.19	Teaching skills	1	2	3	4	5
E-2.20	Having a sense of responsibility	1	2	3	4	5
E-2.21	Adaptability and flexibility	1	2	3	4	5
E-2.22	Optimism and positive thinking	1	2	3	4	5
E-2.23	Commitment	1	2	3	4	5
E-2.24	Self-confidence	1	2	3	4	5
E-2.25	Tolerance	1	2	3	4	5
E-2.26	Ability to understand and manage tourists' emotions	1	2	3	4	5
E-2.27	Handling relationships	1	2	3	4	5
E-2.28	Influencing and persuasion skills	1	2	3	4	5
E-2.29	Seeking and assimilating feedback	1	2	3	4	5
E-2.30	Ability to anticipate tourist needs	1	2	3	4	5
E-2.31	Responsiveness	1	2	3	4	5
E-2.32	Team capabilities	1	2	3	4	5
E-2.33	Conflict resolution skills	1	2	3	4	5
E-2.34	Mindfulness of others' cultural preferences and norms	1	2	3	4	5
E-2.35	Knowledge of legal and economic systems of tourists' cultures	1	2	3	4	5
E-2.36	Knowledge of the rules (vocabulary, grammar) of tourists' languages	1	2	3	4	5
E-2.37	Knowledge of cultural values and religious beliefs of tourists' cultures	1	2	3	4	5
E-2.38	Knowledge of the marriage systems of tourists' cultures	1	2	3	4	5
E-2.39	Knowledge of the arts and crafts of tourists' cultures	1	2	3	4	5
E-2.40	Knowledge of the rules for expressing non-verbal behaviours in tourists' cultures	1	2	3	4	5
E-2.41	Ability to change verbal behaviour when interacting with tourists	1	2	3	4	5
E-2.42	Ability to change non-verbal behaviour when interacting with tourists	1	2	3	4	5

*****Thank you for your time and willingness to share your opinions*****

Appendix 2



Faculty of Economics and Management Sciences Tourism Research in Economic Environs and Society (TREES)

Dear Respondent

Re: Academic Research Interview Guide

My name is Brighton Hurombo, and I am studying for a *Doctor of Philosophy* degree in Tourism Management at the Potchefstroom Campus of the North-West University. I am also a lecturer in the Department of Travel and Recreation at the Chinhoyi University of Technology. My research is entitled: “**Assessing key tour guide competences to co-create Memorable Tourism Experiences**”. I am requesting you to participate in my study as an interviewee tour/field guide in which I will be seeking your opinions on some issues related to the topic in question. Attached is the interview guide with the interview questions.

Please note:

- Your participation is voluntary, and you can withdraw at any time without penalty.
- The answers will only be used for academic research purposes.
- If you have any queries about the interview, please contact any of the undersigned.

Thank you for your time and help.

PhD Tourism Management student
Brighton Hurombo (Student No.: 24836044)
House No. 11
Musengi Close
Mzari, Chinhoyi
Zimbabwe
Mobile No.: +263-774071155
Email: hurombob@cut.ac.zw

Research Project Promoter
Prof M. Kruger
North West University
Private Bag X6001
Potchefstroom
South Africa 2520
Mobile No.:+27 18 299 1980
Email: Martinette.Kruger@nwu.ac.za

INTERVIEW GUIDE – TOUR/ FIELD GUIDE

1. a) What is your opinion on the nature of tour guiding experiences currently offered by tour/field guides in Zimbabwe? Cues: Poor, good, excellent?
b) Please justify your answer.
2. Are tourists getting satisfied with their experiences with tour/ field guides in Zimbabwe? Explain your answer.
3. What do you think are the most important competences needed by tour/field guides in general to perform effectively?
4. Do you happen to have a memorable tour guiding experience that you had in the past? If yes briefly describe it.
 - 4.1 What role did you play to make the tourist's experience memorable?
 - 4.2 Please recall 5 (or more) competencies which you applied to make the tourists' experience memorable.
5. What tour/field guide training programs have you received before?
 - 5.1 Do you remember the subjects covered? When conducted and where? How often? Duration? Offered by who?
6. To what extent did you cover the issues to do with emotional, cultural intelligence and personality traits in the training you have cited above? Elaborate yourself.
7. What were the weaknesses/ challenges experienced in the previous tour guide training cited above?
8. What strategies do you think should be done to enhance (effectiveness of) tour guide training programs in future?
9. Demographic related questions: What is your profession Tour/ Field Guide? What is your nationality? What is your marital status? Your age range? Academic qualification? Work experience?



Wild Horizons

1021 Holland Road Ext, P. O. Box 159, Victoria Falls, Zimbabwe

Tel/Fax: +263-13-44571, 44426, 42313, 42029, E-mail: info@wildhorizons.co.zw, Website: www.wildhorizons.co.za

3 March 2016

The Research Project Promoter
Department of Tourism Research in Economic Environs and Society
Faculty of Business Management
Potchesfroom Campus
North West University
South Africa

Dear Prof M. Kruger

Research confirmation: Brighton Hurombo

This letter serves to confirm that Brighton Hurombo conducted interviews with our guides during the period from 17 to 29 February 2016. Approval was granted on the basis that the research was for academic purposes only. We wish him good luck in his academic endeavours.

In need of more information or clarity, do no hesitate to contact the undersigned

Faithfully

Mahachi Victor Mark

Assistant Operations Manager



Mallet Drive
P.O. Box 10 Victoria Falls, Zimbabwe
Telephone: (013) 44751-9/44761,
Fax: (013) 42354,44762
International Code: (+263 13)
Telex: 51651
E-mail: VicFallsHotel@victoriafallshotel.com
website: www.victoriafallshotel.com



Appendix 3b

THE VICTORIA FALLS HOTEL

3 March 2016

The Research Project Promoter
Department of Tourism Research in Economic Environs and Society
Faculty of Business Management
Potchesroom Campus
North West University
South Africa

Dear Prof M. Kruger

Confirmation of Research: Brighton Hurombo

This letter serves to confirm that Brighton Hurombo administered questionnaires to our guests through our guest services desk during the period from the 18th of February to the 2nd of March 2016. His research was authorised for academic purposes only in line with his PhD research project entitled 'Assessing key tour guide competences to co-create memorable Tourism Experiences'.

Yours sincerely

Sarah Musaidzi

Reservations Project Manager

A handwritten signature in black ink, appearing to be 'Sarah Musaidzi', written over a circular stamp or mark.

03 March 2016

The Research Project Promoter
Department of Tourism Research in Economic Environs and Society
Faculty of Business Management
Potchesroom Campus
North West University
South Africa

Dear Prof M. Kruger

RE: Research Confirmation Letter

This letter serves to confirm that Brighton Hurombo administered questionnaires to our guests through our guest services desk during the period from the 17th of February to the 2nd of March 2016.

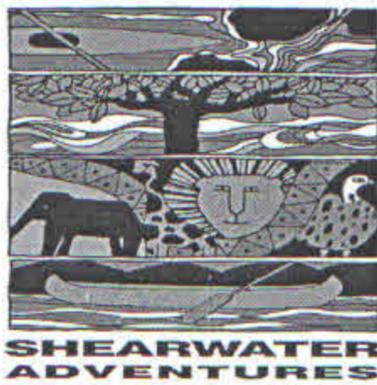
Approval was granted on the basis that the research is for academic purposes only.

Yours sincerely,


Modester Bonda



HUMAN RESOURCES MANAGER



**SHEARWATER
ADVENTURES**

Box 125 Victoria Falls

Tel:+263 13 40056/8;Fax:+263 13 43496

4 March 2016

The Research Project Promoter
Department of Tourism Research in Economic Environs and Society
Faculty of Business Management
Potchesfroom Campus
North West University
South Africa

Dear Prof M. Kruger

RE: RESEARCH CONFIRMATION FOR BRIGHTON HUROMBO

This letter serves to confirm that we allowed Brighton Hurombo to conduct a survey on our guides and tourists in line with his PhD research project entitled 'Assessing key tour guide competences to co-create memorable tourism experiences'. He carried out his research from 17 February to 2 March 2016. We wish him all the best in his studies.

Regards  

Anald Musonza – General Manager

Shearwater Operations- Botswana, Zambia & Zimbabwe

P.O Box 125, Sopers Arcade, Parkway Drive, Victoria Falls, Zimbabwe

Cell: +263 777 154 309 Tel: +263 13 44471 Fax: +263 13 44471 Skype: anald.musonza

SHEARWATER ADVENTURES (PVT) LTD
0 6 MAR 2016
P. O. BOX 125, VICTORIA FALLS
TEL: 031-40056/8, 44471/3

p i o n e e r i n g s p i r i t s i n c e 1 9 8 2





38 West Drive, Victoria Falls, Zimbabwe, Tel: +263 13 45017/8, Cell: +263 774 750 633 /

+263 717 197 308, info@africatraveltourvicfalls.com

3 March 2016

The Research Project Promoter
Department of Tourism Research in Economic Environments and Society
Faculty of Business Management
Potchesfroom Campus
North West University
South Africa

Dear Prof M. Kruger

Confirmation of research: Brighton Hurombo

This letter serves to confirm that Brighton Hurombo conducted interviews to our tour guides and also administered some questionnaires to our tourists in line with his PhD research project entitled 'Assessing key tour guide competences to co-create memorable tourism guiding experiences'. He did his research during the period from the 19th to the 29th of February 2016.

Yours Sincerely

Managing Director

Lovemore Machipisa

AFRICA TRAVEL TOURS
P. O. BOX 604
VICTORIA FALLS ZIMBABWE
TEL: +263 134 5017/8
CELL: +263 772 747 993
+263 712 375 138



P. O. Box CT781
Victoria Falls
Tel: 013 44063
Cell: +263 778 659 632
E mail: vicfallstour@zol.co.zw

3 March 2016

The Research Project Promoter
Department of Tourism Research in Economic Environs and Society
Faculty of Business Management
Potchesfroom Campus
North West University
South Africa

Dear Prof M. Kruger

Research confirmation: Brighton Hurombo

This letter serves to confirm that we allowed Brighton Hurombo to conduct a survey on our guides and tourists in line with his PhD research project entitled 'Assessing key tour guide competences to co-create memorable tour guiding experiences'. He carried out his research during the period from 17 February to 2 March 2016.

Yours sincerely

Albatross Ncube
Operations Manager

Victoria Falls Tour Link

P.O. Box CT781, Victoria Falls, Zimbabwe
Stand 692 Aerodrome, Victoria Falls, Zimbabwe

Tel/Fax : + 263 13 44063 Cell :+ 263 778 659 632

VICTORIA FALLS TOUR LINK
P.O. BOX CT 781, VICTORIA FALLS
TEL./FAX: 013-44063
Email: vicfallstour@zol.co.zw
www.victoriafallstourlink.com
CELL: +263 778 659 632/772 272 703

Appendix 3g



3 March 2016

The Research Project Promoter
Department of Tourism Research in Economic Environs and Society
Faculty of Business Management
Potchefstroom Campus
North West University
South Africa

Dear Prof M. Kruger

CONFIRMATION OF RESEARCH: BRIGHTON HUROMBO

This letter serves to confirm that Brighton Hurombo interviewed me on the 25th of February 2016 in line with his PhD research project entitled 'Assessing key tour guide competences to co-create memorable tour guiding experiences'. Please do not hesitate to contact the undersigned if you may need further information.

Yours Sincerely,

A handwritten signature in black ink, appearing to read "Tendai Mdluli", is written over a light blue circular stamp.

WILDERNESS SAFARIS
P.O. BOX 288
VIC FALLS
TEL : 43371-

Tendai Mdluli

Zambezi Region Trade and Relationship Manager

Appendix 3h

T +263 13 44344-6

E res.sprayview@cresta.co.zw



Cresta Sprayview Victoria Falls
Corner Reynard Road and Livingstone Way
P.O. Box 70
Victoria Falls

www.crestasprayview.com

3 March 2016

The Research Project Promoter,
Department of Tourism Research in Economic Environs and Society
Faculty of Business Management
Potchesfroom Campus
North West University
South Africa

Dear Prof M. Kruger

Confirmation of Research: Brighton Hurombo

This letter serves to confirm that Brighton Hurombo administered a survey on our guests from the 19th of February to the 3rd of March 2016 in line with his PhD research project. The survey was approved for academic purposes only. Please do not hesitate to contact the undersigned if you may need further information.

Yours sincerely

A handwritten signature in blue ink, appearing to read "Patience Musonza".

Patience Musonza

GENERAL MANAGER



Appendix 4

Organisations at which research was administered:

	Name of organisation
1	Wildhorizons
2	Shearwater adventurers
3	Africa Travel
4	Tour link
5	Victoria Falls Hotel
6	Elephant Hills Hotel
7	Victoria Falls Safari Lodge
8	Love for Africa
9	Adventure Zone
10	Cresta Sprayview Hotel
11	Dingane tours
12	Victoria Falls International Airport



CIVIL AVIATION AUTHORITY OF ZIMBABWE

P.O. BOX 7716, CAUSEWAY, HARARE

Tel: 263-4-585073-88
Fax: 263-4-585096
E-mail: dchawota@caaz.co.zw

3rd Level, Harare International
Airport Terminal Building
Harare

Office of the General Manager/ Chief Executive Officer

17 February 2016

Brighton Hurombo
11 Musengi Close
Mzari
Chinhoyi

Dear Sir

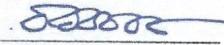
**SUBJECT: AUTHORITY TO CARRY OUT A RESEARCH PROJECT AT CIVIL
AVIATION AUTHORITY OF ZIMBABWE**

I refer to the above matter.

We are pleased to advise you that authority has been granted for you to carry out research on "Assessing key tour guide competences to co-create memorable tourism experiences".

The approval has been granted on condition that a copy of the research will be submitted to the Authority through the Human Resources Director and that the research is for academic purposes only.

Yours sincerely
Civil Aviation Authority of Zimbabwe


D. CHAWOTA
General Manager/CEO

I Brighton Hurombo I. D. No. 24-120826 N 24
of 11 MUSENGI ST Mzari, Chinhoyi (physical address)
confirm that this research is for academic purposes only and I will submit a copy of the
dissertation to the Authority.

Signature 

Date 26/02/2015

Appendix 6



NORTH-WEST UNIVERSITY
YUNIBESITHI YA BOKONE-BOPHIRIMA
NOORDWES-UNIVERSITEIT
POTCHEFSTROOM CAMPUS

Mr. B Hurombo
House Number 5772
Golfcourse Muzari
Chinhoyi
ZIMBABWE
00263

Private Bag X6001, Potchefstroom
South Africa, 2520

M and D Department
Internal Mailbox 460
Tel: 018 299 2629
Web: <http://www.nwu.ac.za>
Email: Melleney.CampbellJacobs@nwu.ac.za
2013.01.30

University number: 24836044

Dear Mr. Hurombo

APPLICATION FOR ADMISSION: PHD TOURISM MANAGEMENT

We are pleased to inform you that you have been accepted as a student.

The curricula and admission requirements for the above-mentioned qualification are set out in the Faculty's calendar available at: <http://www.nwu.ac.za/e-yearbook-index>. Your attention is specifically drawn to **Rules A.1, A.4 and A.5**. Please study it thoroughly. This information is available at <http://www.nwu.ac.za/content/application-master-doctorate-studies>. The medium of instruction at the Potchefstroom Campus is Afrikaans. A student may, however, obtain permission from the University to write any test or examination, assignment, mini-dissertation, dissertation or thesis in English.

Students are referred to the calendar of the relevant faculty regarding the time allowed for the completion of their studies.

THE REGISTRATION PROCEDURE

Your registration form is included in this package.

You are kindly requested to do the following on your registration form

- verify your personal details;
- verify the qualification for which you are enrolling;
- indicate the modules for which you have to register; and
- **sign the form and send it back to your advisor** (contact details below).

Be sure to also submit the following documents when you send your registration form to your advisor:

- Proof of payment / letter from your bursar*.
- All outstanding documents (if applicable).

*The bursar or your employer needs to provide a letter indicating that they will pay your application, registration and tuition fees.

You may register on campus, via email or fax, after which a Proof of Registration will be issued to you by your advisor.

We kindly refer you to the "Guidelines for M & D First Year Registration" for more information regarding your registration for 2013.

Please register as indicated in the attached manual.

NB: University cards will only be issued upon completion of registration and will be activated within 24 hours after registration and may be collected at Protection Services. If you cannot collect the card, you must request in writing that it be sent by mail.

The undergraduate students will be registering at that time; therefore, it is suggested that you settle the minimum fees payable either by internet or directly into the University's bank account.

PAYMENT OPTIONS FOR REGISTRATION AND COURSE FEES

Information regarding payment for studies is available at PUK-studyfees@nwu.ac.za

Your student number should be used as reference for all payments.

Bank	Account number for direct payments	Internet payments: Beneficiary selected from	Account name
ABSA	40-7009-9350	ACCOUNT PAYMENTS	NWU STUDENT
FNB	6216-190-7335	PUBLIC RECIPIENTS	NWU STUDENT
NEDBANK	1713-378-531	APPROVED BENEFICIARIES	NWU STUDENT
STANDARD BANK	33-038-446-5	COMPANIES	NWU STUDENT

Payments can also be made on campus, at the **cashiers in the JOON VAN ROOY BUILDING (F1)** from 08:00 to 15:30 on weekdays.

Your contact person from now on will be:

Advisor at M & D Records	Email	Tel no	Fax
Me. Marietha Gericke	11746343@nwu.ac.za	018 299 4006	0872315291

Please note:

30 March 2013 is the last day on which students will be allowed to register for 2013.

It is a privilege to welcome you to postgraduate studies and we trust that you will be most successful. The University wishes to offer you its best services.

Yours sincerely



Ms M (Melleney) Campbell-Jacobs
FOR CAMPUS REGISTRAR

DECLARATION

I, Clarina Vorster (ID: 710924 0034 084), Language editor and Translator, and member of the South African Translators' Institute (SATI member number 1003172), herewith declare that I did the editing of the thesis of mr B Hurombo (student no 24836044) from the North-West University.

Title of the thesis: Assessing key tour guide competences to co-create memorable tourism experiences

C Vorster

10/6/2016

C Vorster

Date

9 Lanyon Street

Potchefstroom

2520

082 440 4102