

RESEARCH IN HOSPITALITY MANAGEMENT

VOLUME 3

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Aims and Scope

Research in Hospitality Management is a peer-reviewed journal publishing articles that make an original contribution to the understanding of hospitality and to the theory and practice of international hospitality management.

The journal has three main sections, reflecting the three major foci of its contributions. The first section, 'Hospitality Management Studies', includes articles related to the study of and the study for hospitality. The study of hospitality refers to studies about the essence and ethics of hospitality from a social sciences perspective, while the study for hospitality refers to a more disciplinary approach according to the quintessential managerial areas of Finance, Human Resources, Operations, Marketing & Sales, and Technology.

The second section, 'Hospitality Management Education', is devoted to articles about curriculum content and delivery methods for training and educating hospitality managers. Considering the size and scope of the hospitality industry, and the number of staff and students involved, studies on efficient, effective, and innovative ways of developing hospitality competencies are considered indispensable.

The third section, 'Student Research Projects', allows excellent student work to be published. Student work can relate to excellent BA dissertations or MA theses.

Research in Hospitality Management also accommodates short communications, working papers, book reviews, and discussion papers.

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RESEARCH IN HOSPITALITY MANAGEMENT

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Forbes Travel Guide. 2010. *About Forbes travel guide*. Available at <http://www.forbestravelguide.com/mobil-travel-guide-rating.htm> [accessed 10 May 2010].

Hensens W, Struwing M, Dayan O. 2010. Guest-review criteria on TripAdvisor compared to conventional hotel-rating systems to assess hotel quality. *EuroCHRIE Annual Conference, 25–28 October, Amsterdam, the Netherlands*.

Lashley C, Lynch P, Morrison A. 2007. *Hospitality: a social lens*. Amsterdam: Elsevier.

Molz J. 2007. Cosmopolitans on the couch. In: Molz J, Gibson S (eds), *Mobilizing hospitality: the ethics of social relations in a mobile world*. Ashgate. pp. 78-99.

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Stenden



Editorial: Studying hospitality – an agenda

Research in Hospitality Management — co-edited by myself, Sjoerd Gehrels and Wichard Zwaal at Stenden University — intends to fill a unique niche in hospitality journal publications. Fundamentally, the journal provides a platform that recognises the breadth of research activities being undertaken within the academic community. Firstly, hospitality is concerned with the obligations, duties and interactions between guests and hosts, in an array of settings, principally but not exclusively domestic in nature. Secondly, the topic of hospitality is broad in that it has been universally used to describe a cluster of commercial activities covering hotels, restaurants, bars and other organisations providing food, drink and accommodation largely as profit-making businesses. Following from this, Stenden University prepares people to manage hospitality businesses. The Stenden *Research in Hospitality Management* journal will also provide a setting in which academics and students are able to publish findings from their work and experiences.

The journal can be said to embrace both the study *of* hospitality and the study *for* hospitality occupations. The study of hospitality and hospitableness extends the study beyond the commercial provision to include both private and cultural settings. Many would argue that genuine hospitality only occurs in the private domain, and that commercial hospitality is limited because hospitality is always offered at a price. Studying hospitality in different cultural and historical contexts shows that the requirement for hosts to protect and honour guests, particularly strangers, is a feature of human societies throughout history and across the globe.

Furthermore the study of hospitality encourages critical thinking and the engagement with an array of social sciences. Anthropology, sociology, social psychology, philosophy, etc., all provide valuable insights into hospitality and hospitableness, but they also encourage critical thinking and questioning of practice, even in commercial settings. Learning to ask the question ‘why?’ is the core feature of a robust education. It empowers the questioner with a lifelong approach to learning that includes, but extends beyond, work settings. The paper by MacLaren, McMillan and O’Gorman is an example of this cultural and critical strand. *The hospitality of Nepali tea houses: redefining the boundaries of empowerment* is set in a context in which commercial hospitality provision has empowered women via an economic activity normally denied them in a somewhat traditional patriarchal culture.

Tsayem and Cavagnaro’s paper, *Encouraging normative smoking behaviour*, is also informed by a social science view. It deals with developing an understanding of smoking behaviours of those who smoke in areas designated as non-smoking from a social psychology perspective. Smokers and non-smokers are members of two different groups, the latter group (as institutional managers) setting up norms of behaviour which smokers clearly violate. The research shows that in part these smoking prohibitions fail to recognise the needs of smokers and assume that a blame culture will suffice. To stop individuals smoking outside entrances it is necessary to supply somewhere appropriately set up for smokers and to ensure signage is properly designed and most importantly adequately enforced. Interestingly, the piece is informed by student research and a student authored dissertation.

Grounded theory application in doctorate research by Gehrels is a valuable link across the study of hospitality and entrepreneurship. Informed by the author’s own work experiences and links with those operating these businesses, the paper provides qualitative insights into the lived experiences of people working in independent restaurants. Grounded theory represents a different perception of the science of research. This paper confirms that a qualitative stance provides rich insights into working in, and owning, small high quality restaurants. These firms occupy an overlap between the domestic and the commercial domains of hospitality in which the pursuit of entrepreneurial objectives is frequently muted by non-entrepreneurial concerns.

Student employment in hospitality and tourism: insights from a recent study by Lashley reports on research exploring the nature of student part-time employment whilst at university. Nottingham hosts two major universities, and a substantial further education provision. The study suggests that whilst students do work in paid employment, this is not uniform across the whole student body. Students in higher education were less likely to work than in FE, and students in the early years of the programme are more likely to engage in employment than those in the final year. Interestingly, from a hospitality management perspective, these clearly able young men and women are almost exclusively employed in ‘routine unskilled’ roles and are rarely promoted to supervisory or managerial positions.

Chibili's *The strategic employment experience matrix* reports on research conducted into employee satisfaction at work. Employee turnover costs a great deal to most firms. Though rarely costed, it is an important priority to professional hospitality managers, even when unemployment is high and labour replacement appears easy. This study reports on the development of a questionnaire aimed at measuring employee satisfaction informed by Herzberg's two-factor theory and a study demonstrating its use and value to managers within the sector. The design and development of jobs and work roles has to be a key consideration of managers in the hospitality sector.

Hospitality management students' cognitive style by Hans Otting is concerned with research informing the education of students on hospitality management programmes. Cognitive style refers to the way students perceive, process and evaluate information. Though it is not reporting on student learning style preferences, there are clearly overlaps between cognitive styles and learning styles. The paper suggests that students on hospitality courses are drawn to concrete settings and are 'habit bound and resistant to change'. Most importantly from an educator's perspective, they tend to be resistant to creativity and theoretical learning. These insights suggest that those designing and delivering hospitality management programmes have to address these resistances.

Flowing from this research into student cognitive style preferences, case studies are an important teaching tool that aid student learning in concrete settings. Eringa and Yin's paper, *How to develop student-centered management cases* suggests that whilst case studies represent a valuable learning resource, they are frequently overly difficult and complicated for the students concerned. In part this is due to a failure to consider the cognitive needs of the potential audience, and can thereby represent a barrier to student learning. The paper goes on to describe a model with which to inform the design and writing of cases studies. It is important that case studies are employed as key teaching and learning techniques because in addition to assisting concrete learners, they also allow students to gain insights from an array of stakeholders and settings which they might not have encountered or considered in the past.

Assen and Zwaal's paper, *The evaluation of career-oriented dialogues in a social constructivist learning environment*, explores the development of career narratives amongst students on a hospitality management course. The paper argues that student career coaches have an important role in setting students on a career path from an early stage. By creating a vision of where ultimate futures lie, students learn and work with a directed purpose and sense of mission. Key to this will be developing and presenting an array of role models that provide examples of potential careers. The paper suggests that currently coaches are too passive and need to play a more active role in career development.

Leadership is an important consideration of the employee experience in hospitality firms. Spitzbart's paper reports on student research project exploring leadership styles. The *Impact of transactional versus transformational leadership on job satisfaction in the hotel industry* reports on this student research project. The piece confirms earlier studies that leadership style is a crucial element of hospitality management. It has a major impact upon work experiences and can produce a well-motivated workforce, or result in high levels of employee turnover. The paper, in particular, uses the conceptual frameworks which consider transactional or transformational leadership styles.

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Student employment in hospitality and tourism: insights from a recent study

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Students' motives for working are primarily economic, though the proportion of the student body engaged in paid employment in this study is less than 50%. There is also evidence that this varies between students. Students in the final year of their programme were much less likely to work part time, and students in the further education (FE) sector were more likely to be engaged in paid employment than students at university. Students are attracted to work in hospitality organisations because jobs are plentiful and the work is generally appealing. Bar and restaurant work, in particular, allow students to work in contexts that have overlaps with their social life. The demand for labour at times when they are available, or when they can fit in two or three shifts around course work commitments increases the attractiveness to students. The impression created by this study is one of marginality from the student's perspective. Although economic considerations are indeed paramount as stated above, there is little sense of paid employment being an essential and key concern for students, particularly in the university sector. The impression created was that paid employment, was nice to have but not necessarily essential for most of these respondents. Perhaps most worryingly, students are not being developed as employees in most of the establishments concerned. Their work remains largely, routine and unskilled and they are supported with minimal amounts of training, are poorly paid, and are rarely promoted into supervisory or management positions.

Keywords: student work, casualisation, routine unskilled work, hospitality work

Introduction

This paper reports on the student survey element of a research project exploring the employment of students in hospitality and tourism organisations in Nottingham. The research explored current practices and experiences with both students and employers with a view to ensuring a better quality of recruits for the sector. This paper focuses on findings which identify current work patterns of the city's students together with the main employing sectors and job locations of full-time students working in part-time jobs in Nottingham.

Nottingham was chosen as the location for the study as a convenient sample area because of the location at the time of the research team within one of the city's universities. The research informed the development of a pilot study aimed at improving the employment of students in the tourism and culture sector. Initially, the study explored the nature of student employment across Nottingham and explored the numbers of full-time students who work part-time, their working patterns, job locations, reasons for working and long-term ambitions in relation to their current employers.

Nottingham city's population is 273 000 people, although the conurbation of Greater Nottingham is home to 633 000 people (Lashley, 2011). There are over 60 000 students, aged 18 plus, enrolled at the two universities and the student population at the main city centre further education (FE) colleges represent approximately 10 000, most of whom are 16 to 18 years old, though there is a small higher education provision in the FE sector through the delivery of

higher national programmes, foundation degrees and some full honours degree programmes. The research reported on in this paper was based upon face-to-face interviews with 1 549 students and the sample frame reflected the number of students at Nottingham's two universities and three city centre further education colleges. The research also included 135 telephone interviews with local hospitality and tourism employers, though findings from this aspect of the research are presented in another paper (Lashley, 2011).

Background

Employment practice in the hospitality and tourism sector has been dominated by 'casualisation' (Lucas, 2004). Employers, faced with peaks and troughs in demand for hospitality and tourism services that are further exacerbated by unpredictable environmental factors such as changes in weather or socio-political events, and seasonality, have adopted numerically flexible employment strategies (DfEE; 1999). Casual and part-time staff has allowed labour supply to be increased and decreased as customer demand varied. Student labour has been a key source of supply to meet the need for flexible supply (Canny, 2002). The demand for employees is often consistent with student study patterns; evenings, weekends and non-class time allow students to be flexible in their take-up of paid work (Curtis and Lucas, 2001; Lashley, 2005b; Jha, 2006).

The demand for added seasonal labour in Nottingham is itself a response to the student economy. The local economy is stimulated by the added spending on accommodation, food and drink, retailing and leisure activities by in-coming students in Nottingham. The report suggested that a conservative estimate showed that disposable student income alone adds an additional £6 million per week to the city's economy during the academic year (Lashley, 2011). Bar, café, restaurant, retail and leisure organisations find that they need to recruit extra employees to meet this seasonal influx of increased demand. The research showed that some employers deliberately recruit students to meet the added demand created by the student economy. However, many respond by recruiting additional part-time and casual staff for busy trading periods, only some of which happen to be students.

Most importantly, students generally meet the requirement of employers for service personnel who have good social skills and are able to generate customer satisfaction through appropriate levels of customer care (Warhurst et al., 2004). In many cases, students enter their first hospitality and tourism sector job with a high level of human capital because of their backgrounds. Past experiences as guests in restaurants, café bars and hotels ensure that students frequently understand the needs of service culture and customer expectations of frontline service staff behaviour, because they themselves have been regular customers. These qualities cannot be over-stressed, because in a situation where many jobs are typically undertaken by 'routine unskilled staff' with minimal training provided on the job, these social skills have been frequently identified by employers reporting both skill shortages and skill gaps (Lashley et al., 2002; Lashley and Rowson, 2005).

The trend towards more engagement in the labour market, by students, is not a uniquely British experience. Van der Meer and Wielers (2001) note that there is increasing incidence of student employment across most OECD countries, even in countries with limited traditions of student employment such as France and Spain. Curtis and Lucas (2001) estimate that there were one million students active in the British economy and that was set to grow by another 15% in 2011. The proportion of students working is difficult to assess and the subject of some disagreement, however, it is hard to disagree with Curtis and Lucas's view (2001: 39) that for significant number of students, 'their status has changed from full-time student to a combined status of student and worker'. It is also important to recognise that student employment represents a significant element of the labour market (Nixon et al, 2004).

Whilst there is a number of reasons why full-time students undertake paid employment, the key reason for the increases in student labour market participation is generally reckoned to be economic (Lucas & Ralston, 1996; van der Meer & Wielers, 2001; Jha, 2006; Barron & Anastasiadou, 2007). In a report for Aston University Student Shop, Jha (2006) estimated that total student debt in 2003–2004 had risen to £13bn and that the average student owed £8 430. Some estimate that average student debt will be £43 000 by 2023 and this will represent 83% of the first salary (Jha, 2006). In these circumstances, many students have strong incentives to find paid employment whilst they are studying as a means of reducing their debt level at the end of the course, and it is likely that these pressures will increase.

Although students represent an important source of the 'right kind of employee', for employers it is not necessarily a rational strategic choice. In other words, employers are exercising a kind of strategic pragmatism whereby they seek part-time workers and appoint students without deliberately seeking out students. They look for part-time and casual employees who are 'well spoken with a smart appearance' (Nixon et al., 2004: 2), and many of those who match these 'soft skill' requirements (Lucas, 2004) happen to be students. Certainly, when mapped with students' increased motivation to find paid employment, employer recruitment of students might be said to represent a 'coincidence of interests' (Nickson et al., 2004: 2).

This research reports on some findings related to this wider set of emerging issues for part-time student employment. The study will report on the numbers of students on full-time courses who work in part-time or casual employment; it will build an understanding of how much time they are employed on a regular basis, as well as the additional skills that are required if any, and levels of stability amongst the student employee workforce together with insights into how students secure jobs and in which sectors of the local economy.

Research approach

The research upon which this paper is based involved an integration of local, regional national sources of data about hospitality and tourism to gather estimates of employment levels, as well as claimed skill shortages and skill gaps together with levels of turnover amongst the sector's workforce. The research also undertook a substantial number of face-to-face questionnaire-based interviews with students at key locations in the local universities and colleges, as well telephone interviews with a stratified sample of local employers. This paper reports chiefly on the results of the student interviews.

Aims

This paper reports on one major aspect of the research project:

- To establish current levels and characteristics of full-time student employment in Nottingham.

Key issues

The research project was undertaken as a precursor to East Midlands Tourism's signature initiative aimed at both securing improved labour market performance through improved demand for and supply of high quality labour. Ultimately the region wanted to gain competitive advantage through high quality service provided to visitors. The research issues identified below informed the research and student profiles of those who are delivering improved frontline service behaviours.

Employment of students

The study intended to explore the use of students in the sector. Issues such as tenure and job role, training, recruitment processes, totals amongst the workforce and seasonal demand for student labour informed the project. The study gained insights into the current processes by which

employment takes place, including any rigidity within the current demand for labour, and potential barriers to employment. Pay, rewards and promotion issues were explored. The study considered generic skills needs and schemes for the recognition and certification of transferable skills, as these would enable employers to take account of prior training and work experience.

Skills sets and students

Previous studies have suggested that student recruitment would fall into a particular segment of the hospitality and tourism labour market (Lashley et al., 2002). Typically, jobs undertaken by students are likely to be low skilled and poorly paid, with low barriers to entry to the job (Warhurst et al., 2004). There is a potentially high level of supply, often through young people new to the labour market, or students working in part-time, casual or temporary posts. Pay rates are either on the national minimum wage or pitched at a point close to the legal minimum wage rate. For younger employees, the pay rate is below the adult national minimum wage. Opportunities to find alternative employment on the part of the employee, and alternative employees on the part of employers, tend to encourage high levels of staff turnover. In these circumstances managers do not see staff turnover as a major problem because labour is easily replaced and it can be a useful means of managing workforce flexibility and cost reduction.

The student body

The study established the nature of the current student body and student engagement in employment. It explored the characteristics of those in, or seeking, employment, including programme subjects, stage of the programme, organised work placements, the extent that student work was used as a source of evidence to develop transferable skills and future work competence. The study explored students' motives for working, needs from jobs, ambitions and thoughts about future careers in the sector. It also took account of barriers to employment and issues that could enable wider participation in employment in the sector.

Given the nature of the project to explore the perceptions, meanings and actions of student, employers, employees and other stakeholders of the employment of students in Nottingham's hospitality and tourism sector, a largely qualitative research methodology was required. That said, the research 'counted the countable' in an attempt to discover proportions, participation rates and other insights that help shape an understanding of the recruitment of students in the sector. Research methods were also in the form of surveys, using both closed and open-ended questions by structured questionnaires and telephone interviews. In both cases, the surveys were based upon stratified samples representing the population of students and the population of employers. These survey instruments were supplemented by a small number of case studies of individual students and employers of students.

Researching the sector

Establishing some of the statistics relating to the number of firms in Nottingham and Greater Nottingham involved the use of STARS (Lashley, 2005), People 1st (2005) and NOMIS

(2005), supplemented by other sources from local authority tourism sources, yellow pages and local authority business rates data. The research was largely desk-based, supplemented by telephone and face-to-face interviews, and was based on research undertaken for the Nottingham STARS Employers Group (Lashley, 2005). The research adopted an inclusive approach in terms of business size, but was conducted with 'employing' firms. In other words, family businesses, sole traders, and other sector organisations that do not employ staff were not included in the survey. Researchers favoured the People 1st 'footprint' as this includes more 'tourism' and 'hospitality' focused establishments – hotels, restaurants, pubs, bars and nightclubs, contract catering/food service providers, gaming, travel and tourism services, visitor attractions, youth hostels, holiday parks and self-catering and hospitality services. All definitions are flawed, because the customers in many of these businesses are not all tourists. That said, they do represent a common demand for labour with similar skills sets and tap the same labour market in any geographical location.

Researching students

The research recognised a number of variations amongst the post-16 student group. Using a pre-undergraduate and undergraduate framework, the research undertook surveys in two types of institution – further education colleges, and universities. The sample frame also reflected variations in both stages of study and subjects under investigation. For example, it is possible that students were less likely to work in paid employment in the final year of study because of potential conflicts with their studies. Similarly, there may be variations in their propensity to work in the sector depending on the subject being studied. Students in some of the more business related and applied subjects in hospitality, tourism and leisure may be more likely to be employed than those who study subjects in the physical sciences.

The questionnaires were administered at the premises concerned. The co-operation of the students' union was secured so as to gain maximum contact. Research instruments were developed following the general themes identified in the key issues section above and approved with the client. In addition, the research approach was flexible and adaptable to issues that arose during the research phase.

Findings

Interviews with students secured 1 549 responses in four main locations. Just under 80% were enrolled at one of the two universities. Over 60% were in the first or second year of study, and 34 respondents were in a work placement period. Given the number of respondents from a higher education background, it is perhaps not surprising that most respondents were in the 19 to 22 age group (72.8%) and the gender split of respondents showed no obvious skew: 48.8% were male and 51.2% were female. Respondents were found to be located in a relatively small number of postal code areas: almost 80% lived in just seven postal code areas. These are mostly located around the core central areas of Nottingham City centre. Thirty-nine percent reported that they lived in just one area, postal code NG7. These locations cover what might be described as the core student accommodation areas

in the city, within easy access of the universities and college city centre campuses. Location factors are not likely to create major rigidities because the tourism and hospitality jobs are likely to be within reasonable access of these student areas.

Numbers working

Of the 1 549 students in the various locations who completed the questionnaire, 653 were currently working (42.2%) and of these 282 (43.2% of those working) claimed to be seeking alternative work. This suggests a potential movement in employment. A further 13% of these respondents were not working but were looking for work, though over 500 respondents (approximately 33.3%) declared they were not in work and were not looking for work.

Respondents revealed that student participation rates are not evenly spread. Respondents at Nottingham University were less likely to work in Nottingham's economy than those at the other institutions. Part-time work for Nottingham Trent University students is slightly over the average for all students, though 63.7% of respondents from New College Nottingham were working and 47.2% of People's College were working. The proportion of students from the further education sector is also further evidenced by the higher proportion (63.3%) of students interviewed from the 16–18 age band who were working. This situation might be a reflection of the vocational nature of programmes at these colleges, and the lack of funding support for full-time students in further education. Older students 19–22 and 23 and over were less likely to be working. Students in their final year of study were less likely to be working: just 81 of 543 respondents in the third year of study (14.9%) were in part-time work. Interestingly, a small number of respondents in their placement year were also working part time in Nottingham. Consistent with the findings that further education students were more likely to be working in Nottingham than university students, respondents who were on vocational programmes with pre-degree level qualifications were more likely to be working. Sixty-one percent of students on these programmes were working; students on a cluster of 'business' programmes (including programmes with 'management' in the title) were more likely to be working (46.5% of respondents) than students on arts, social science, engineering and science faculty programmes.

Where they work

Job titles gave some insight into the types of jobs being undertaken by students in Nottingham. Arranging the current job titles into recognisable clusters, it was possible to identify current work as located almost exclusively in service sector employment. Table 1 shows the results of this clustering process. The findings are somewhat crude because some confusion exists as to the exact nature of the role of 'assistant'. It could be that respondents are identifying catering assistant, retail, or shop assistant roles. In most

Table 1: Type of work undertaken by students in Nottingham

	Frequency (n)	Percentage %
Hospitality job	264	40.5
Assistant	157	24.1
Other services jobs	232	35.4

cases, job titles were quite explicit and could be located within the hospitality/tourism sector through job titles such as chef, cook, bar person, waiter, etc., or other services, through job titles such as sales assistant, retail worker, call centre operative, etc.

Table 2 represents the responses from those who have worked in different sectors and confirms that the key competition for student labour is located in restaurants and bars, and the retail sector, although call centres and leisure centres employ significant minorities. An interesting observation is that few appear to work in the hotel sector. Only 4% of student respondent claimed to have worked in hotels. It is estimated that there are 1 528 jobs in the hotel sector and given an average staff turnover rate of 51%, there would be approximately 790 vacancies in the sector each year due to staff turnover.

Table 2 confirms that the key sectors for student work were in bars and restaurants, shops and retail. Sixty-four per cent of respondents have worked in bars and restaurants, and 60% have worked in shops and retailing.

Reasons for working

Reasons for working in the sector were chiefly related to the need to earn money. 379 respondents (58.0%) mentioned money in their responses and 329 mentioned '*needing the money*' in some way or other. In some cases, respondents mentioned that they felt it represented '*easy money*' or '*good money*'. Although these comments on the value of the pay are interesting, it is hard not to draw the conclusion that these sectors were attractive because they required labour that was convenient for students, and that the sectors are attracting students because jobs are relatively easy to come by. For these respondents the effort-reward bargain is generally acceptable. The services sector was also attractive to some students because of the active nature of the work and involvement with people. One hundred and forty-one respondents (21.6%) reported that they worked in the sector because they enjoyed the work and working with customers.

Employment stability

Responses to questions relating to employment stability amongst students revealed some interesting answers and were counter-intuitive. It is sometimes implied by industry commentators that students are unreliable employees because they leave employment to return home at term-end, or after the close of the academic year. These respondents, however, reflect considerable employment stability. Table 3 shows that for almost 27% of respondents their current job was their first

Table 2: Current and past sectors worked in

Sector	Frequency (n)	Percent (n = 653)
Bar	131	20.6
Restaurant	284	43.5
Hotel	26	4.0
Call centre	91	14.3
Leisure centre	131	20.6
Tourism services	6	1.0
Shops	152	23.3
Retail	239	36.6
Other jobs	36	5.5

Table 3: Numbers of jobs held

First job?	Frequency	Percent (<i>n</i> = 653)
Yes	176	26.9
No	475	72.7
Missing cases	2	
If 'No', how many jobs?		<i>n</i> = 475
One other employer	5	1.0
Two other employers	187	39.4
Three other employers	193	40.6
Four other employers	68	14.3
Five other employers	7	1.4
Six or more employers	15	3.1

job, and most reported having had three or four employers to date. Fewer than 14% of these respondents reported that they had had five or more employers during their student years. Twelve percent of respondents who were currently working reported that they also held down a second job.

These stability figures are further supported by responses to questions as to how long the respondents had worked for their current employer, and the time they had worked with their previous employer. Table 4 shows that relatively few respondents had worked for their employer for less than 10 weeks (6.4%). Fewer than 20% had worked with the current employer less than six months, one third had worked for the current employer for six months to a year and 48% had worked with the current employer for over twelve months, with just under 37% reporting that they had been with their current employer for over two years.

Patterns of stability also emerge from the time spent with the previous employer; just over 20% had worked with their previous employer for less than six months. Seventy-two percent had worked for the previous employer for over 12 months and 36% had worked for the previous employer for more than two years. The picture emerging, therefore, is that students tend to be quite stable employees; there is little evidence of rapid and frequent job change. Certainly there is little evidence of students leaving employment at the end of each term, or semester. It may be that non-residents to Nottingham leave a job during the substantial summer break, but considerable minorities appear to work with the same employer across and through academic years.

The general impression of medium to long-term stability in student employment is supported further by responses to a question that required respondents to indicate if they intentionally commenced a new part-time job at the beginning of each term. Of the 652 respondents answering this question, just 7 (1.1%) said they did start a job at the beginning of each term, and the 645 (98.9%) said they did not. A perceived criticism of student work patterns is that they tend to change jobs on a termly basis or flit between jobs, is not borne out by these results.

The time students spent working in part-time work revealed that students tend to work two to four shifts per week. Table 5 presents a frequency distribution in four hourly bands – the length of a typical shift period. Seventy-seven per cent of these respondents were work 16 hours per week, or less. The arithmetic mean of working hours across all working respondents was 12.7 hours, or approximately three shifts per week.

Table 4: Length of time with current and previous employer

Time with current employer	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative percent
Less than 10 weeks	41	6.4	6.4
11–26 weeks	79	12.3	18.7
6 months to under a year	214	33.3	52.0
1–2 years	71	11.1	63.1
over 2 years	237	36.9	100.0
Total respondents	642	100.0	
Time with previous employer			
Less than 10 weeks	16	3.8	3.8
11–26 weeks	70	16.6	20.4
6 months to under a year	30	7.1	27.6
1–2 years	152	36.1	63.7
over 2 years	153	36.3	100.0
Total respondents	421	100.0	

Table 5: Hours and days worked by respondents

Hours worked per week	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative percent
1–4 hours	42	6.5	6.5
5–8 hours	187	28.9	35.4
9–12 hours	123	19.0	54.4
13–16 hours	149	23.0	77.4
17–20 hours	87	13.4	90.8
21–24 hours	14	2.2	93.0
over 24 hours	45	7.0	100.0
Respondents	647		
Days worked per week			
1 day	154	23.7	23.7
2 days	187	28.7	52.4
3 days	79	12.1	64.5
4 days	49	7.5	72.0
5 days	99	15.2	87.3
6 days	18	2.8	90.0
7 days	65	10.0	100.0
Respondents	651	100.0	

The modal average working period is 5–8 hours, representing a couple of shifts per week, and only 10% of respondents worked more than 20 hours per week. Of these, 25 were working 30 hours per week, and 6 students were working 40; and one respondent claimed to be working 48 hours per week.

Table 5 also highlights the number of days students work, and consistent with the number of hours worked discussed in the previous paragraph, the average (mean) student worked on three days per week, though this would comprise a range of full days and part days. Table 5 shows that over half the respondents worked on only two days per week, and over 60% worked for three days or less. That said, 65 respondents, amounting to 10% of working respondents, claimed to work on seven days per week.

The findings from this survey suggest that for the majority of students hours worked and the numbers of days worked are kept to two or three shifts per week with work covering two or three days per week. It is hard not to see work commitments, for the majority of students, as sufficient

to provide some extra income in a way that is compatible with their course demands as full-time students. For a small minority of students, however, work commitments exceed part-time work. These students are in effect working full time, working in excess of 24 hours per week on six or seven days per week.

Finding work

Informality dominates the current process whereby students secure jobs. Table 6 reports on the responses to questions about the method by which respondents secured their current job. Findings show that personal contacts and friends are key sources of jobs, though when fliers on premises are added, slightly less than 80% gained part-time work from these three informal approaches. Furthermore, many students worked in premises in which they also socialise.

What might be regarded as more formal approaches to finding work through job advertisements and recruitment agencies accounted for just 15% of the answers from respondents. That said, these findings reflect a passive and uncoordinated approach to job searching. Responses reported earlier suggest that some students were looking for work at the time of the survey and a sizeable minority were described as potential employees, though not actively seeking work.

Student work

The jobs undertaken by students are located almost exclusively in service sector occupations. Significantly, most students worked in bars and restaurants, or in the retail sector. Analysis of job titles confirmed that most students were in operational roles, with few indicating that they were in supervisory or managerial positions. This is further confirmed by responses to questions about promotion in their current job. Just 23 respondents (3.5%) of 649 who answered this question claimed to have been promoted by their current employer. The overwhelming majority stated they had not been promoted.

Most working students had been trained in their current role. Typically this had been at work rather than off the job. In some cases a combination of on the job and off the job locations for training was employed. Table 7 indicates that induction training was the most prominent purpose. However there is no way of knowing how formal or structured the training received. Given the large number of bar, restaurant and retail venues it is perhaps not surprising that 451 (70.3%) of respondents stated they had received customer

care training, though again there is little way of knowing the degree of formality or informality involved.

Less than one in five respondents claimed to have been trained in food hygiene. Importantly, when asked whether training received by one employer was recognised by another firm approximately 85% said it was not recognised by other employers.

The impression created by training activities reported by these respondents further confirms the general position and status of students in the workforce. They are typically employed as frontline employees, certainly at operative level. Bar work and food service activities (154/653) and retail work (156/653) were identified as the activities involved in most students' work. The reasons for working in the sector concerned were mostly expressed in terms of enjoying the work and the pay in relation to the work effort required. Work in these sectors seemed to provide these respondents with the optimal effort reward bargain, though flexibility and compatibility with university/college commitments was also an important consideration for working in the chosen sector.

Pay rates ranged from £3.00 per hour to £8.50, though 52.4% were earning between the then legal minimum wage of £4.85 per hour and £5.00 per hour. Whilst a majority of respondents are paid at the legal minimum rate, or within a few pennies within it, 28.4% were paid £5.50 per hour or more. Given the focus of this study, it is not possible to identify the contribution that tips and incentive schemes might have on the total reward package. The impact of these additions to wage rates vary between sectors, those working in certain sectors of the hospitality sector are more likely to have regular access to tips from customers, whereas commission on sales would be more the norm in some sectors of the retail sector. The key point is that students work in a context where minimum wage rates provide the bench mark pay rate for a majority, but where some employers are paying considerably above the minimum wage. Competition for scarce labour results in some employers' deliberately pitching wage rates above the legal minimums because it enables them to pick and choose labour. They are positioning the organisation to be an 'employer of first choice'.

Finally, few students working in these roles were likely to consider long-term employment in the sector. Just over 20% of respondents said they would or might pursue a career in the type of business in which they were working part time. Almost 80%, therefore, categorically stated they would not look for a career in the sector concerned. That said, these responses have to be set in a context whereby most students are working in 'unskilled routine' occupations in which they

Table 6: Method of finding the current job

	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative percent
From friends	257	39.5	39.5
Personal contact	165	25.3	64.8
Flier on premises	95	14.6	79.4
From an agency	77	11.8	91.2
Newspaper advertisements	21	3.2	94.4
Student union	12	1.8	96.3
Internet	4	0.6	96.9
Other	20	3.1	100.0
Total	651	100.0	

Table 7: Training received by working students

Training received	Frequency	Percent (n = 653)
Induction		
Yes	572	87.6
No	81	12.4
On job	492	75.3
Off job	131	20.6
Health & safety	313	47.9
Food hygiene	119	18.2
Customer care	458	70.1
Other	9	

have had little personal development other than to aid job competence. Certainly, a more focused strategy could encourage more to think of careers with the organisation with which they have a part-time relationship.

Conclusion

Students' motives for working are primarily economic, though the proportion of the student body engaged in paid employment is in this study is less than 50%. There is also evidence that this varies between students. Students in the final year of their programme were much less likely to work part-time, and students in the FE sector were more likely to be engaged in paid employment than students at university. Also the subject of study was likely to influence participation in paid employment. Students on business and management and vocational programmes were more likely to work in paid employment. Whilst the experience of being a 'student and a worker' is true for some students, this is far from universal. Results suggest that the majority of students manage their time in paid employment in a way that suggests they are primarily students who work for some extra living money. The study showed that most students worked only a small number of shifts and for sixteen hours or less per week.

Students are attracted to work in hospitality organisations because jobs are plentiful and the work is generally appealing. Bar and restaurant work, in particular, allow students to work in contexts that have overlaps with their social life. The demand for labour at times when they are available, or when they can fit in two or three shifts round course work commitments increases the attractiveness to students. That said, the retail sector is a major competitor to these hospitality employment opportunities, and there is some evidence that pay rates can be better in retailing. Employers need to be aware of the real rates being paid in the local labour market and ensure that they at least match rates available to students working in retail and shop jobs. Student work is currently largely in part-time, operative level activities, where there is limited training beyond induction for most employees. For many, wage levels are at the minimum national wage, or within a few pennies of it.

The impression created by this study is one of marginality from the student's perspective. Although economic considerations are indeed paramount, as stated above, there is little sense of paid employment being an essential and key concern for students, particularly in the university sector. A higher proportion of students in the FE sector were in paid employment, and there is clearly less state support for students in these institutions, undoubtedly a factor influencing higher participation rates. In the university sector, the majority of home students need to bear a larger proportion of the costs of their education themselves. However, the nature of the charges and financing of studies is such that it is not creating a culture of students 'working their way through college'. For most of the respondents in this study, paid employment was being managed in a way that provided financial benefits at the margins of total study costs. The impression created was that paid employment was nice to have but not necessarily essential for most of these respondents.

Perhaps most worryingly, students are not being developed as employees in most of the establishments concerned. Their

work remains largely routine and unskilled and they are supported with minimal amounts of training, are poorly paid, and they are rarely promoted into supervisory or management positions. Few are offered or seek long-term relationships or careers with their employing organisations. For most, work in the hospitality sector represents an activity associated with student life, and they will 'get a real job later'. Sadly, the sector is losing out on an opportunity to develop relationships with these young people. The employment of students in part-time jobs during their academic time has the potential to enable employers to evaluate potential future talents, and for students it has the potential to provide some interesting and valuable experiences which could form the bedrock of a future career. Unfortunately, the potential benefits for both parties, are not being realised.

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Discussion Paper

The hospitality of Nepali tea houses: redefining the boundaries of empowerment

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The paper reports on research which shows that in an environment where women traditionally represent the marginalised population, the female tea house owners/managers display higher levels of economic, social and psychological empowerment. It illustrates how commercial hospitality has catalysed social change in Nepal through empowering women. This phenomenon has driven the emancipation of women in patriarchal Nepal where involvement in the hospitality industry has improved the livelihoods of women. Working in tea houses has the potential to facilitate sustainable empowerment for future generations, providing them with education, choice, control and opportunities. The findings showed that the potential empowerment of future generations may not derive from, but may be enabled by, involvement in the commercial hospitality sector. However, their sustainable empowerment is also dependent on the removal of a number of barriers which currently limit the empowerment of women. Involvement in the commercial hospitality sector can act as a vehicle for the sustainable empowerment for women, although it has been noted that to ensure long-term sustainable empowerment, every empowerment dimension must be adequately represented.

Keywords: empowerment, emancipation, female entrepreneurship, tea houses

Introduction

Focusing on the phenomenon of tea houses in Nepal, this paper describes the nature of Nepali tea houses and hospitality in the trekkers’ regions of the country. It illustrates how commercial hospitality has catalysed social change in Nepal through empowering women. This phenomenon has driven the emancipation of women in patriarchal Nepal, where involvement in the hospitality industry has improved the livelihoods of women. Working in tea houses has the potential to facilitate sustainable empowerment for future generations, providing them with education, choice, control and opportunities. Building on Lashley (1995), the wider social application of empowerment through hospitality to affect cultural change is explored within the context of the developing world. The traditional hard ‘masculine’ cultural norms of Nepal have been readdressed through the increased autonomy experienced by women involved with Nepali tea houses. What were once men’s roles as business owners and managers have been taken on by women and this change has served to fuel social change in Nepal, altering perceptions of power distance, female autonomy, gender distinction and gender boundaries. The paper shows how the commercial hospitality industry can be a force for good; women working in the industry are agents of change, actively improving their levels of empowerment in their immediate environment. This develops the notion that the commercial hospitality industry is a pioneer of women’s empowerment, thus laying the foundations for the further emancipation of women.

Definition of empowerment

Carter and Shaw (2006) note that within the developed world, there has been a growth in the number of women-owned small businesses and Allen et al. (2007) acknowledge that these women make a substantial contribution to their local economies. Yet Heyzer (2006) observes that the role of women-owned small businesses as potential catalysts of women’s empowerment and development has been overlooked by researchers, international donors and policy makers alike. Furthermore, the empowerment of women is generally overlooked in the hospitality and tourism literature, while Young (2006) records that there is a predominance of female workers in the hospitality and tourism industry, inferring a need for women’s empowerment and rights to be addressed more closely in the hospitality literature.

Al-Dajani (2007: 20) defined women’s empowerment as ‘a continuous, ongoing process entailing enhanced abilities to control choices, decisions and actions’. This approach reaffirms Mosedale’s (2005) argument that empowerment is central to a woman’s role in contributing to positive change and progress within her community. Al-Dajani and Carter (2010) argue that when women are empowered, their influence and respect within the household, community and society at large is increased. Empowered women will have increased self-confidence, self-assertiveness, motivation, ambition and persistence, enabling them to ensure that their welfare needs and access to resources are recognised

and met. In this sense, it is plausible that the need for social change in many countries, where the subjugation of women is commonplace and accepted to a large extent, could be driven by empowering women through entrepreneurial activities.

This concept may be particularly resonant from a commercial hospitality perspective as the hospitality industry has been a relative pioneer for worker empowerment (Lashley, 2001, 2000, 1999, 1995). Therefore, the phenomenon of female tea house owners in Nepal is regarded as a potential example of commercial hospitality being used as a vehicle to influence social change within the context of women's rights and empowerment in the developing world.

Achieving social empowerment is potentially a more challenging prospect for women in Nepal than in other cultures due to the social structures referred to by Hofstede (1984). Hofstede (2005) notes that countries such as Nepal have a high power distance in the work place, with deep hierarchical structures. This is compounded by the 'masculine' nature of Nepal where it is challenging for women to gain political status and the religious trends tend to place dominance heavily with the male population. Chetterjea and Basu (1978) and Phillips et al. (2009) find that countries with a large social distance manifest more issues of integration between men and women; Hosni and Lundberg (2005) note that there are severe issues of integration between men and women in Nepal. In the case of Nepali tea houses, where the obstacle of men within a deep hierarchy is removed, the potential for faster, more successful empowerment politically, socially and professionally is evident. It becomes apparent that the natural shift in the power balance between men and women, catalysed by tea houses, could alter concepts of power and social distance in Nepal. Furthermore, these potential changes could create a change in the autonomy of women in Nepal more widely.

The seven key continuums of differentiation within cultures in Trompenaars (1996) are developed in Bickerstaffe (2002); one of these ranges from 'communitarism' to 'individualism'. Nepal is predominantly a community orientated society where this cultural trend would tend to obstruct the autonomy and individual success that women tea house owners are enjoying. Such individualist success could further catalyse cultural change in Nepal that would make women's empowerment more commonplace and acceptable despite collectivist traditions. This would be a particularly pivotal change as research such as that of Ridgeway et al. (2009) illustrates how difficult it can be for cultural change to take place when gender distinctions are involved as these are often deeply entrenched within cultural norms and somewhat difficult to alter.

Empowerment of women through hospitality

Empowerment is defined by Bystydzienski (1992: 3) as 'a process by which oppressed persons gain some control over their lives by taking part with others in the development of activities and structures that allow people increased involvement in matters which affect them directly'. This definition, and the one offered by Cole (2007: 943), 'empowerment ... provides a shift in the balance between the powerful and the powerless, between the dominant and the dependent',

support Rowlands' (1997) argument of there being four concepts of power – 'power over', 'power to', 'power with' and 'power from within' – and the argument that although the process of empowerment involves the use of power, this does not mean 'power over' as dominance; rather 'power' is seen as competence or 'power to', involving collective action to 'shape the content and structure of their daily lives'.

Feminist ideologies of empowerment see women as agents of change, rather than beneficiaries of empowerment. Aithal's (1999) criticism of approaches to empowerment which fail to question existing systems and the notion of power is related to the emancipatory ideology of feminism; thus although the empowerment of women in Nepal is not necessarily a feminist movement, there are shared characteristics. In addition to the philosophical perspectives found in academic literature, the term 'empowerment' is frequently used by a diverse range of individuals, groups and organisations at local, national and international levels, that seek to develop the position of disadvantaged individuals or groups, as described by Walker et al. (2001) and Zuckerman (2002). Central to definitions of empowerment reviewed by Elias and Ferguson (2007) is the concept of control: control over lives, self-respect or acceptance. Bystydzienski (1992) suggests it is this process of empowerment that allows an individual the ability to self-govern and hold power to shape their daily life and, in doing so, potentially become involved in a process of social change. Economic, social and psychological empowerment and political empowerment represent the four underpinning dimensions of Scheyvens' (1999) model for empowerment. These relate to Rowlands' (1997) concepts of power and, combined, could form a potentially useful model for assessing the mix of professional and social empowerment of women in Nepal.

In a study exploring high performance work practices in Ireland, Connolly and McGing (2007) find that the hospitality industry has been a driver in the advancement of work practices and empowering workers in general to improve staff representation and participation. According to Bennett et al. (2006), tourism can be a means to empower groups of people, while addressing inequality and poverty. Lashley (2000, 1999, 1995) notes that the revolution of staff empowerment in the hospitality industry was born out of the desire to improve the quality and efficiency of customer service by removing layers and barriers that traditionally obstruct service procedures. Although fuelled by the pursuit of increased profit, the drive to empower staff in the hospitality industry has resulted in heightened levels of autonomy amongst service staff, thereby improving their commitment (Lashley, 2000, 1999, 1995). Ford and Heaton (2001) and Klidas et al. (2007) find that empowered staff are better communicators and more capable of dealing with difficulties. Furthermore, empowered staff tend to be happier in their jobs, leading to increased job satisfaction.

Reviews of employee empowerment, Margaret and Erstad (1997), Sachs and McArthur (2005), Umashankar and Kulkarni (2002), Walker et al. (2001) and Zuckerman (2002) find that, in the Indian sub-continent and South East Asia, the hospitality industry has helped lift individuals out of impoverished environments by empowering them within their roles in the hospitality industry. Notwithstanding the general benefits of staff empowerment within the industry, hospitality is

beneficial for empowerment as the nature in which empowerment has been implemented into service practice is a result of a close analysis of existing power structures and operating procedures, which have created 'power to' empowerment of staff. Essentially, the hospitality industry has avoided 'empowerment for empowerment's sake' and, according to Aithal (1999), it has sought to ensure sustainable empowerment is achieved among staff.

The results of a collaborative undertaking, involving the Overseas Development Institute, the International Institute for Environment and Development, the Centre for Responsible Tourism at the University of Greenwich and funded by a research unit of Department for International Development for a Pro-Poor Tourism Project, found that a positive effect of hospitality and tourism, in terms of social capital, is the empowerment of communities and women (Cattarinich, 2001). This shows that hospitality and tourism operations can have an effect on individuals in a socio-cultural context; furthermore it has proven success in empowering women in particular. It was found that through their involvement in Tanzanian trekking and safari tourism, Masai women became more economically empowered as they were paid directly, eliminating the interference of 'middlemen' and community elites (Cattarinich, 2001). Based on this evidence, it is apparent that hospitality can effectively and sustainably empower people from a small-scale, micro-financing perspective to an international commercial industry perspective and may be particularly effective in addressing issues surrounding subordinated women.

The origin of tea houses

Nepal's tourism industry began to flourish in the 1960s; by the 1970s, it was recognised as an industry integral to the development of the country. In 1990, the introduction of democracy and liberal policies resulted in a dramatic increase in the number of hotels, travel agencies and airlines. According to Nepal's National Planning Commission (2005), the service industry contributes 42% of Nepal's GDP while agriculture, the source of income for 76% of the population, contributes just 38%

The trekking industry is the largest tourism-related contributor to the Nepalese economy; 43% of tourists that visit do so to go trekking (Boniface and Cooper, 2005). The majority of trekking occurs in four protected areas of the country with the Annapurna Conservation Area being the largest and most popular of these. This paper focuses on the tea houses along the Ghandruk–Ghorepani trekking route, located within Annapurna.

Essentially, tea houses are Nepali bed and breakfast establishments. Traditionally, the homes of the indigenous people were opened-up to accommodate arriving tourists. The growth of tourism has resulted in a rapid increase in the construction of tea houses and lodges along popular trekking routes. Many are now purpose-built in response to the changing volume and demands of tourists. In the late 1970s it was popular for trekkers to camp with organised tours, whereas the option that visitors now have of staying in a tea house has replaced this trend. Today, many new settlements have developed along the trails; these are small communities that build up around the provision of accommodation,

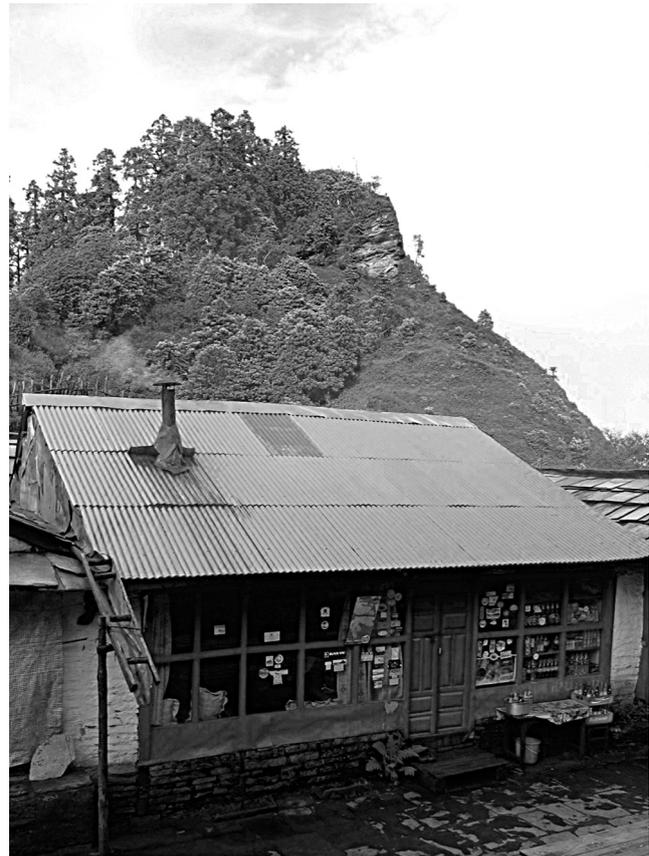


Figure 1: A Nepali tea house

service and food. As well as quantity, the structure, design and layout of tea houses are also becoming more contemporary in response to increasing demand.

Accommodation

The cost of staying in a tea house varies with the season. During the monsoon season, rooms are readily available and prices are low – rates vary from \$5 night to \$15 night. Where rooms cost \$15 night, guests usually have their own chalet style room with attached bathroom and hot water, generated by a pump connected to an improved stove. In general, during high season, a trekker will spend between \$15 and \$100 per day, depending on the level of service. These communities rely heavily on tourism as the majority of the income generated from it goes directly back into the local economy. Without the increase in tourism arrivals, these settlements would be much less developed or even non-existent with the locals experiencing a far poorer quality of life.

Along the trails, the construction of the tea houses varies according to altitude. In Ghandruk, traditional buildings are constructed in the typical Gurung style, using local stone and mud with timber roof supports, slates or grass thatch. The establishment of a community forest project has limited the degree of deforestation and, as a result, larger lodges and tea houses are made with modern materials. Newly constructed buildings and even hotels are a stark contrast to the older towns and, as such, to preserve the Gurung culture and

generate income for the community, the Ghandruk Mothers’ Group has restored and preserved a traditional Gurung house as a tourist attraction.

Similar to the exterior modifications, the interiors of modern tea houses reflect the demands of the tourists. An example of a tea house floor plan is given in Figure 2. Group dormitories have been converted to double rooms, traditional squat

toilets have been replaced with European style lavatories, while shuttered windows are being substituted for glazed panoramic windows in common dining areas. Most guest bedrooms contain two single beds with foam mattresses, white sheets, a pillow and a woollen blanket, a small side table and, on occasion, a side lamp. Toilets and showers are shared in the most basic tea houses and guests often dine

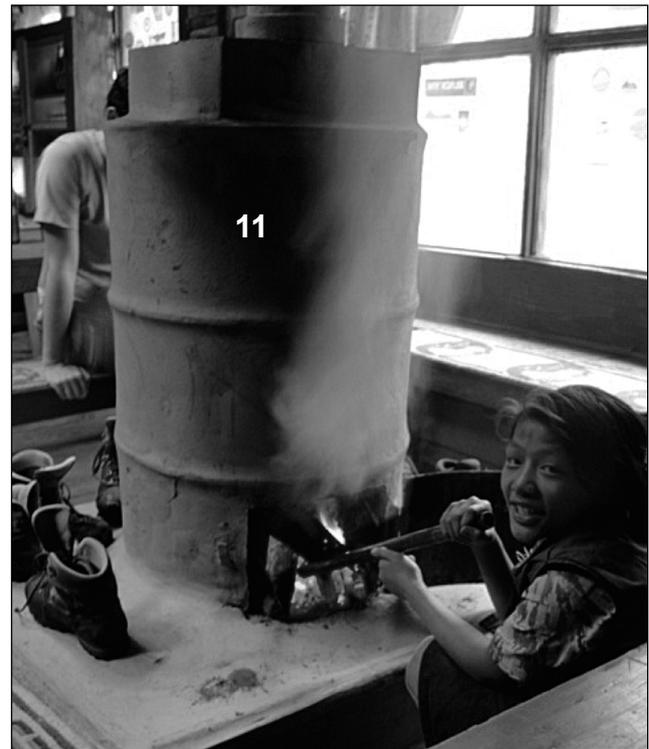
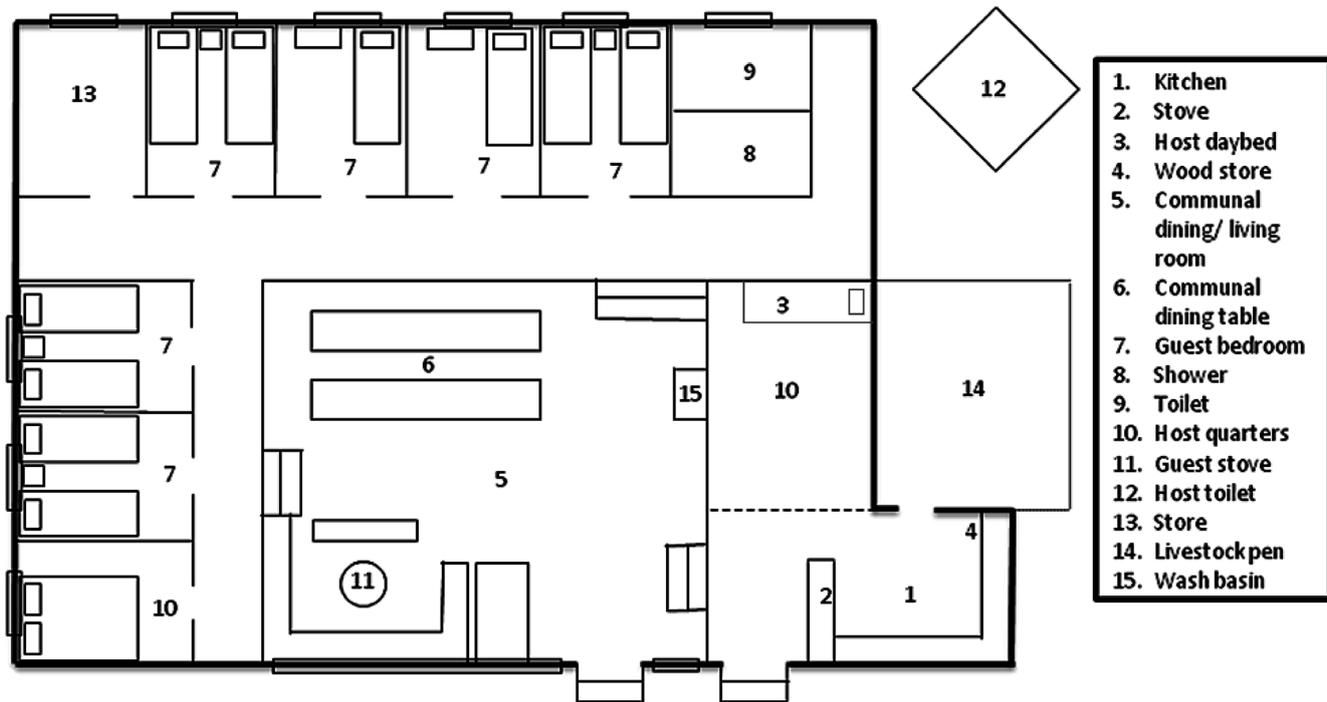


Figure 2: A floor plan of a typical tea house with a communal dining area (left) and an improved stove (right)

around one large table in the communal living/dining room. Due to the absence of heating systems, guests spend most of their time in the communal dining room around the stove reading, planning or playing card games. Along the trail, any electrical equipment is powered by generator; radios, televisions and computers are rare. Recently introduced efficient wood stoves, referred to as the 'improved stove', heat the communal areas of the tea houses. These stoves require significantly less fuel and redirect emitted smoke through chimneys in the roofs.

Service

Upon arrival at a tea house, the host will offer a hot drink and guests will be presented with the menu. Guests are expected to order their dinner in advance by writing their requests in a record book. It is common for hosts to request that all food orders are placed by a certain time in the day to allow for the host to plan the preparation of food for all guests. All purchases through the tea house are noted in the record book and therefore this constitutes the guests' bill upon departure. As a guest in a tea house, the demarcation of host space and guest space is often unclear. Although it is assumed that access to certain areas of the property is not permitted because of guest preconceptions based on restaurants and hotels, tea house rules and norms are very informal. Often the host's children will practice their English skills with guests or sometimes ask for medical help following an accident. Although language barriers would prevent all parties from communicating at length, living spaces are shared, many hosts are interested in interacting with guests and, in the evenings, the guests and the host sit around the stove before going to bed. As such, the atmosphere is like a welcoming, home-stay business.

Food

The menus available in tea houses are standardised; this minimises competition between the businesses, ensuring community cohesion. Low levels of literacy in the region cause difficulties with menu production and service operations, thus local development committees provide tea house owners with pre-written menus to distribute to guests. Other issues are associated with low levels of education. Upon deciding to establish a business, tea house owners/managers are invited to undertake food preparation training where they are taught how to prepare food and maintain adequate hygiene. The availability of resources and ingredients determines the food and beverage offerings, while the menu items are, in the most part, designed to appeal to visiting trekkers. Western carbohydrate and protein-based dishes, such as pizzas, breads, burgers, sandwiches and pasta dishes, dominate the menus although more traditional Nepali options, such as dal bhat, are available. Further to this, additional 'tourist' products, such as fizzy drinks, alcohol (Nepali and imported), snacks and chocolate bars are available and, in some communities, German-style bakeries have been established, providing trekkers with cakes and pastries.

Empowerment of women in tea houses

The Nepalese state regards all citizens as, equal irrespective of religion, race, gender, caste, tribe or ideology. In the

Constituent Assembly elections of 2008, women achieved 30.8% of available seats, ranking Nepal 14th in terms of the representation of women in national elected bodies in the international league table and above the South Asian average of 17%. Several bills and laws pertaining to women have been passed recently addressing a number of issues including property rights, inheritance, rape, polygamy, divorce, trafficking and local government. However, it is also accepted that far-reaching, deep-rooted and structured social discriminations and inequalities exist in Nepal (NPC, 2005) which have, perpetuated both practices of untouchability and the exploitation of women. Therefore, it could be argued that it is the informal institutions of Nepalese society which subordinate women, rendering them second class citizens.

Laws that prevent the establishment and maintenance of barriers to women exist in Nepalese society and the government denies that women represent a subordinated population. However, ministers argue that males are mostly dominant in the sense that they generally earn the household income and women are seen as being responsible for taking care of the household. This presents a typically patriarchal structure and highlights the social barriers that exist. The vast outmigration of men from rural areas means that women are often left to fend for themselves and their families. As a result, and due to the introduction of tourism to the area, many women have capitalised on their traditional 'women skills' and established tea houses.

In order to ascertain whether Nepali women have acquired the power to think and act freely, exercise choice, and to fulfil their potential as full and equal members of society McMillan et al. (2011) created a framework for sustainable empowerment among women in Nepal, developed from Rowlands (1997), Scheyvens (2002). By applying four core factors of empowerment (economic empowerment, political empowerment, social empowerment and psychological empowerment) and linking them with the potential for sustainability in developing countries, McMillan et al. (2011) successfully create a gauge for sustainable empowerment: evidence of all four contexts cited will ultimately lead to sustainable empowerment.

Economic empowerment consists of sustainable economic gains, livelihood improvements, control over income, and access to assets. The establishment of tea houses makes women's lives easier and, as a result, they are able to send their children or younger siblings to school in Pokhara, Kathmandu or even to the United States. Due to the labour intensity involved in the agriculture industry, few women have been educated at school but they cite education as a priority for future generations. The outmigration of males means that, most women tea house owners have full control of the income they generate. Even where males remain in the household, the dynamic contradicts the literature as the women tend to be in charge and be the main decision makers. Many tea house owners inherit the business from their parents, through marriage or occasionally through a loan. Limited money is also available through a credit and saving scheme developed by a local women's community group, the Mothers' Group, for women interested in establishing businesses.

Political empowerment is split into two: outside the home (structures represent the interest of women and women have

the opportunity to be involved) and within the household (non-monetary decision making). Within local political structures, the representation of women is poor; although policies should guarantee 26% of all chairs to women, only 7% are filled by women. Lack of time, education and motivation as well as social norms obstruct women from being involved in political structures. In particular, a patriarchal decision-making process in which men make choices and women are not trusted is still prevalent in the country. Similarly, women are particularly reticent about being involved in a male-dominated committee, thus the issue is self-perpetuating.

This potentially represents a cultural barrier applicable to the lives of women in general rather than just representation in local administrative structures. Mothers' Groups are a local subcommittee that has played a vital role for the community and women in particular. As is the nature of the subcommittee, only women can be members. Although the Mothers' Groups are not directly involved in political decision making in the community, they do represent all women and have a crucial role at the community level as their actions have altered the way women are viewed by the community. In particular, the Mothers' Group is responsible for trail construction, policing noise pollution and waste disposal, village clean ups and, on occasion, dealing with reports of domestic violence. The Mothers' Group is also involved in producing cultural shows and maintaining trekking routes through Ghandruk. It is the actions of the Mothers' Group that have largely influenced communities to alter attitudes towards women.

In terms of political empowerment within the household, women tea house owners generally appreciate their position in hospitality industry and the level of respect and control this bestows on them. However, due to the lack of alternative opportunities (agriculture being the sole alternative), it could be argued that women are solely dependent on their hospitality businesses to improve their livelihoods. Low skill, education and literacy levels are highlighted as barriers to being involved in alternative industries located outside rural communities. The planned construction of a road to the community of Ghandruk has caused women to fear their tea houses being rendered obsolete; this would mean they would have to resort to agriculture meaning longer hours, heavier workloads, significant reduction in income and ultimately the potential loss of empowerment. Although not all women tea house owners are married with children, the next generation of Nepali women is a subject most women consider. There is a focus on education as an integral factor in making decisions about the future. As a result, working in tea houses is viewed by many as a means of supporting children or younger siblings through primary, secondary and tertiary education.

Social empowerment is composed of cohesion between women and the community and in particular the existence of women's community groups. Gaining respect is of high importance and, consequently, women tea house owners note the need for respect. There is a tangible relationship between respect and involvement in the hospitality industry. Essentially, it is apparent that respect from the community is a product of the income generated through operating a business. This link between respect and increased income could be considered as inevitable because of the extreme poverty traditionally endured in remote mountain regions

across Nepal. However, the process of gaining respect has been slow and, for some women, the social barriers are still manifest. Unmarried women working in the hospitality industry in more remote areas find that men look down on them. Men think that the women have broken with tradition by working with outside men. Where tourism is firmly established, men in the community show less resistance to women adopting untraditional roles.

Overall, if tourism is to grow as projected, and the aim of tourism development benefitting all members of society is to be achieved, social status needs to be measured by more criteria than simply income. As a community group and a sub-committee of the village development community, the Mothers' Group is central to the social empowerment of women tea house owners; their contributions have increased community respect for all women. Although the actions of the Mothers' Group are not directly linked to the tea houses, their very existence has been sustained by the visiting tourists.

Finally, psychological aspects of empowerment contain: education, skill development and training, contribution by women to community enhancement, recognition of self respect and respect from the community, and increased self esteem. Literacy and education levels in rural areas are low; the importance of education for women is constantly highlighted, where it is argued that without education they do not feel free and nor do their kin. In recognition of this, women have been encouraged to attend training and development courses. These courses have provided motivation to be involved in hospitality and offered support and encouragement during the establishment and maintenance of a business.

In terms of contributions towards community enhancement, the actions of the Mothers' Group are also applicable here. Through their contribution, the Mothers' Group have raised the profile of women and broken through cultural and social barriers, elevating women from ignored housewife to a powerful presence in village development activities. In addition, to recognise respect from the community, psychologically empowered individuals must also have self respect and self esteem. Women have found that through their businesses, they feel more confident to talk to people, have become bolder and, where once they would avoid contact, they are at ease when speaking to men, displaying confidence and empowerment of self.

In general, the women tea house owners do not represent the subordinated population. Whilst more traditional observers claim that it is socially unacceptable for Nepali women to 'spend time in a public place. . . [to] attend a social gathering' or be in a social space, evidence for this is scarce. Instead, women are recipients of community respect, are active members of society, are economically independent and possess confidence and self-assuredness. However, at the same time, these women are fortunate in the sense that, without the introduction of hospitality to their communities, they would still be adopting the same roles (those of cook, cleaner, or carer of dependants) and would not have undergone the process of empowerment.

Nepal continues to undergo considerable change and, similarly, traditional beliefs regarding gender roles and responsibilities are in transition. Key themes are time, and change over time. These themes are prominent within indigenous

discourse and the consensus is that while the outcome of these changes was society's reconsideration of gender roles, the impacts over time are likely to be increased participation, rights, roles and responsibilities of women. As sustainability means that the impacts of empowerment should be perpetuated by future generations, the key questions that remain are: will the actions of today positively impact on the generations of tomorrow? Have these empowered women broken through barriers that will not be rebuilt?

Sustainability?

The sustainable aspect of these dimensions is critical for the women tea house owners/managers and future generations. The women spoke of their ability to send their children or younger siblings to school or abroad because of the income generated by the tea houses. The women displayed control over their income and an awareness of the importance of education for future generations, possibly because of their own lack of education, which has limited their opportunities. As one woman noted: 'Being illiterate, I feel that it's a disadvantage. In Kathmandu, there are a lot of educated people and I'd have to compete with them for employment. 'The actions of the Mothers' Group have increased community cohesion and corroded social barriers, allowing women tea house owners/managers to successfully adopt new roles and responsibilities without discrimination.

One participant spoke of her illiteracy, which has limited her options in life. At the same time however, she expressed confidence, contentedness, lasting economic gains, joint decision making within her household; she also made contributions to the Mothers' Group in her community. She spoke of her daughters – one studying in Kathmandu and the other studying in New Mexico, USA – and their futures, their decision making and control over their lives. Clearly, her daughters' empowerment has not derived from but has been enabled by commercial hospitality businesses. This illustrates the 'power to' dynamic that has been nurtured by women in Nepal, and the importance of this power dynamic is illustrated by its sustainability.

However, the role of women remains relatively unchanged as they move from running a household to running a tea house. Essentially, the women are still caring for dependents. At the same time, whether it is outward-migration or involvement in the local administrative structures, the men are still leaving the community to seek work elsewhere, as they did when they were involved in livestock farming. Therefore, traditional roles remain constant. Lack of access to education limits opportunities for women to compete in the job market. For the current generation, options are narrow due to limited education and the hardship involved in agricultural farming (as well as the dependence on the changing monsoon season). As a result, the women established their businesses for income generation and because they already possessed the required skills to run a household.

It is hoped that, although they are still fulfilling what are traditionally women's roles, but now undertaking these roles for money, woman can become sustainably empowered. This point underlines the natural ability of hospitality to empower the individuals in this study as the traditional, 'soft' skills possessed by the women in the region were easily applied to

the running of tea houses. Illustrated here is the point that a gender revolution does not need to take place for women to become empowered, suggesting that, were men to engage in such activities, they would not experience the same success as the women, nor would tea houses currently be such a feature of the landscape in Nepal, because their skills are not applicable.

Empowerment of Nepalese women is greater than Bennett et al. (2006) suggest it should be: the women tea house owners/managers do not represent a subordinated population; instead they are recipients of community respect, active members of society, economically independent and possess confidence and self-assuredness. However, at the same time, these women are fortunate in the sense that, without the introduction of tourism to their communities, they would still be in the same domestic roles and would not have undergone the process of empowerment. Nepal is in a transition and, similarly, traditional beliefs regarding gender roles and responsibilities are also changing. As sustainability means that the impacts of involvement in the hospitality industry should be carried over into future generations, the key question that remains is: will the actions of today positively impact on future generations?

In the current generation it is not the content of the role or the skills involved that empowers an individual; rather it is the effect or outcome of doing the job. As has been already stated, applying 'female' skills before the growth of the hospitality and tourism industries disempowered women while the application of the same skills after the development of tourism has empowered the women tea house owners through at least three (economic, social and political) of the four dimensions of Scheyvens' (1999) framework. Somewhat ironically then, the traditional roles which had once been the cause of their marginalisation have now become the root of their empowerment. Women tea house owners/managers are economically independent, enjoy lighter workloads, have raised status, are respected by the community and represented in community groups; they also feel more confident. It could be argued that through their active participation, the current generation of Nepali women represent stage one of empowerment and have laid the foundation for the next generation of Nepali women to participate in a subsequent stage of sustainable empowerment.

Conclusions

This paper investigated the ability of small-scale commercial hospitality businesses to act as a vehicle for the sustainable empowerment of women in the central region of Nepal. The research shows that in an environment where women traditionally represent the marginalised population, the female tea house owners/managers display higher levels of economic, social and psychological empowerment. While their level of political empowerment has improved, further improvement relies on the active involvement of national and local political structures to communicate and ensure gender equality. Despite this, the pivotal element within the four dimensions of empowerment appears to be economic empowerment. Increased levels of economic empowerment had the greatest positive effect on overall empowerment of women in the region.

The research took into account the next generation and how the activities of the current generation could impact upon their future opportunities. The findings showed that the potential empowerment of future generations may not derive from, but may be enabled by, involvement in the commercial hospitality sector. However, their sustainable empowerment is also dependent on the removal of a number of barriers which currently limit the empowerment of women. Involvement in the commercial hospitality sector can act as a vehicle for the sustainable empowerment for women, although it has been noted that to ensure long-term sustainable empowerment, every empowerment dimension must be adequately represented. The sustainability dimension is critical for the next generation of Nepali women. It is not necessarily the tea houses that will empower them – although it might be that way for some – rather, for many their empowerment has been catalysed by their mothers' involvement in hospitality and endowed them with a better quality of life, better expectations, a better situation in relation to the four dimensions of empowerment and critically, a better education, opening up options which were previously closed to their mothers.

The next generation of women should have control over their lives, decision making and issues which directly impact on their lives. Whether the impact of involvement in the commercial hospitality sector is sustainable or not goes beyond the hospitality businesses, pointing to a range of opportunities for the next generation of women. These women are fortunate in the sense that, without the introduction of tourism to their communities, they would still be in traditional positions and would not have undergone the process of empowerment. This demonstrates the fundamental role played by commercial hospitality in the empowerment of Nepali women, who have achieved 'power to' exercise autonomy. Crucially, this should lay the foundations for future generations of women, who will build on a perpetuating phenomenon triggered by small-scale commercial hospitality enterprises. To some extent it would seem that the political dimension will be pivotal to the ultimate sustainability of this social change in Nepal.

Further research is clearly required to fully investigate the potential for small scale commercial hospitality enterprises to act as a vehicle for the sustainable empowerment of women. Further information is required to support the work of the United Nations Development Programme and other such organisations and therefore it is suggested that this study be replicated again in another region of Nepal or that a detailed ethnographic study be carried out there and elsewhere in the developing world. The already established ability for commercial hospitality to empower individuals has a potential application in bringing about social change within communities and societies where the subordination and subjugation of groups prevents acceptable levels of autonomy and empowerment. Commercial hospitality operations can provide women who are subjected to such discrimination with a platform from which they can catalyse social change. By exploring women's empowerment, this research has also hinted at the ability of commercial hospitality to be a driver for social change by creating an environment that utilises behaviour applicable to everyday life. The nature in which commercial hospitality empowers individuals has also been shown to be sustainable

even beyond the duties they perform at work; indeed, it is applicable within a wide social context.

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Grounded theory application in doctorate research

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In this paper a case of doctorate research methodology is presented, which can serve as contemplation for fellow researchers who are preparing their study. An interaction of reflective narrating and grounded theory methodology is applied. This approach incorporates personal and professional reflectivity to prelude a rigorous field study. In the field study, in-depth interviews were held with ten successful small upper segment culinary restaurant owners, asking about their experiences and a research journalist/ expert. A constructivist grounded theory approach as proposed by Charmaz (2006) was employed. Although the chosen approach is neither the most efficient nor easy for applying in doctorate research, it does provide an interesting alternative for more regularly applied designs. The findings of this study provide valuable insights into the nature of entrepreneurship in the culinary restaurant sector and generate a definition of a social construct which attempts to capture the complex process leading to success. This research example can serve as helpful for doctorate researchers who would aspire to explore and explain phases of their own personal and professional life with the aim to develop knowledge that can support practitioners.

Keywords: grounded theory, methodology, doctorate research

Introduction

It is paramount in the life of a doctorate researcher to provide and apply an appropriate academic rigorous research design in order to progress in producing a high quality thesis (Phillips and Pugh, 2010). Making choices in terms of the methodological approach is part of the doctoral process. In situations where the doctoral candidate is directly connected to a research programme, the research design will in most cases be based on the format suggested by the professor as supervisor. There are, however, other types of doctorate tracks that allow the candidate to be more influential in the set-up of the research. An example is the Educational Doctorate programme such as experienced by the author of this article. One of the attractive points for me as a starting doctorate researcher was the structured starting two years of course work in which a lot of research input was given. Shaping the research was a process that gave me a lot of opportunities to think about what would yield most value in terms of process and desired outcomes.

The set-up required for the educational doctorate made me reflect on my practice in education and the possible research to be built on it. There was the possibility to set a personal direction in the research. From the 'journey' of designing and implementing the research, many valuable insights emerged that I would like to share with my fellow researchers who are planning to start on doing doctorate research or who have already started but are struggling with design issues. The case of doctorate research methodology presented here might serve as contemplation for fellow researchers when preparing their study.

This research paper only deals with the research design but cannot be understood without accessing the original overall research format, for which purpose I provide here the abstract of the doctorate research (Box 1).

The research was initiated to see how the contextual characteristics of an extraordinary group of practitioners that I had experienced in the first ten years of my professional life could be analysed and explained in order to potentially influence education. In other words, the research was about how the 'good' and the 'bad' of a remarkable practice in hospitality management can be used to better prepare students, faculty and management of hospitality management educational programmes. To start on the research it would be crucial to engage in an interaction of reflective narrating of my experiences in order to explain why there was merit to be found in the exercise. In the next sections I will present the design and analysis considerations.

Designing the research

The successful small upper segment culinary restaurants presented a very dynamic segment within the hospitality industry that has traditionally been outside the academic research world. It was crucial to find and apply the appropriate research design to 'delve' into the minds and practices of the entrepreneurs and then to use the findings to define ways in which hospitality management education potentially could be influenced. A useful and straightforward framework to build the research process is offered by Crotty (2003). Crotty suggests looking at four elements or levels

Box 1: Abstract of original thesis research**Abstract**

The aim of this research is to explore the contextual characteristics of a particular group of Dutch restaurant owners (the SSUSCROs¹) and practitioners, to examine how these contextual characteristics might be used in a professional hospitality education programme. This very small segment of the Dutch restaurant business (0.2–0.5% of the total restaurants) is known for its strong commitment to competitiveness in delivering quality service and products. No previous research in the Netherlands had embarked on a search for connecting this specific category of practitioners to education. As owners of their restaurants, the SSUSCROs were aware of the potential contribution that participating in this research would make. The research was designed from a constructionist epistemological point of view. This means that the data supplied by the respondents and the background and vision of the researcher provided an interplay.

By using grounded theory methodology, theory is constructed from the empirical data. The main instrument for the primary research was in-depth, interviewing. Six retired and four practising restaurant owners and a connoisseur of the business were interviewed in one to three-hour in-depth interviews that were digitally recorded. The transcripts of the recorded interviews were analysed, applying the specific constructivist version of grounded theory methodology as described by Charmaz (2006). The research generated a grounded theory in the form of a narrative about the SSUSCRO social construct and its central theme 'Living the Business'. The narrative informs future practitioners, i.e. students, about how they can prepare for possible future business ventures in the culinary restaurant business.

Furthermore, it confronts future practitioners with the notion of particular contextual characteristics and value systems that need to be incorporated in order to successfully engage in and sustain a career in the culinary restaurant sector. Elements of the narrative, connected to Covey's 7-Habits of Highly Effective People framework for personal leadership. The findings from this research confirmed the importance of providing students in hospitality management education with a approach towards professional development that is grounded in the social construct of a remarkable group of entrepreneurs such as the SSUSCROs. The conclusions suggested that faculty and academic management of hospitality management programmes need to become more knowledgeable about the particular nature of the discipline, and the specific category of practitioners researched here.

that constitute research and therefore should be taken into account when doing research (Figure 1).

The four elements are: 'epistemology', 'theoretical perspective', 'methodology' and 'methods'. In this model, epistemology deals with the nature of knowledge or as Rosenthal and Rosnow (2008: 744) define it: 'the origin, nature, methods, and limits of human knowledge or human understanding of the world'. The theoretical perspective deals with 'how we know what we know' and is the philosophical stance informing the methodology. The methodology is the strategy, plan of action, process, or design that lies behind the choice and use of particular research methods. The methods are the techniques or procedures used to gather and analyse data in relation to some research question or hypothesis.

Other authors have made similar suggestions in providing a conceptual and philosophical structure to the research process. Fisher (2004), in talking about the 'isms' and 'ologies', offers a framework in which the dimensions of the 'nature of knowledge (epistemology)' and the relation between 'knowledge and reality' are plotted. DePoy and Gitlin (1998) make a distinction between philosophical foundations,

research traditions, and design strategies. Flick (2006) compares the qualitative research perspectives 'theoretical positions', 'methods of data collection', 'and 'fields of application', while Hennink et al. (2011) try to capture the approach to research under the term 'paradigm'. Creswell (2009) speaks about three components involved in a research design: 'philosophical worldview', 'selected strategies of inquiry' and 'research methods'.

In essence, the authors all suggest taking a reflective approach to designing and implementing research in order to be able to properly argue why choices are made. In the reasoning for this specific thesis research, both the subject of research and the position and world view of the researcher were included. Although Crotty's (2003) approach may be highly modelled with a clear-cut and identifiable reality, this is not how it actually is because there is no strict linear relationship between the elements of the model.

Easterby-Smith et al. (2008) suggest using a similar modelling as Crotty where they refer to 'ontology', 'epistemology', 'methodology', and 'methods'. Easterby-Smith et al. (2008: 56) strongly alert the researcher to the issue of research design by saying 'that failure to think through philosophical issues ... while not necessarily fatal, can seriously affect the quality of management research'. Although warning against firm and fixed picking of an epistemological stance from the beginning, Dyson and Brown (2006) acknowledge the potential advantage of approaching research by starting from a clear paradigm or epistemology that then drives decisions at the level of strategy or methodology, methods and analysis. Consequently there will at least be consistency imposed on the research problem.

Miles and Huberman (1994) offer an interesting notion to loosen up any debate about epistemology where they assert that it is tempting in epistemological debates to operate on the poles, while in the actual practice of empirical research all researchers are closer to the centre with multiple overlaps. By adhering to a certain model including an epistemological choice, the purpose is to provide framing and structuring to

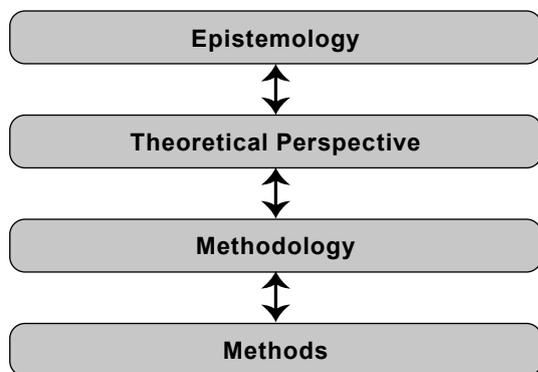


Figure 1: Four basic elements research process (Crotty, 2003)

the research. Before defining the four elements as defined by Crotty (2003), the aim, objectives and from these the resulting research questions were connected to the information required to answer the questions and to realise the objectives of the research. From that point on it was possible to properly define methodology and methods that were appropriate for the implementation of the research.

Epistemology and theoretical perspective

My research follows the approach of constructionism, which has been developed differently in many disciplines. Crotty (2003) defines constructionism as the epistemology situated at the middle position between the extremes: objectivism and subjectivism. In constructionism, the belief is that the essence of creating knowledge is not by finding an objective truth waiting for us to be discovered. In my choice for constructionism, I followed Flick (2006: 78): ‘It informs a lot of qualitative research programs with the approach that the realities we study are social products of the actor, of interactions and institutions’. Knowledge is seen as being constructed in a process of social interchange between the subject and the object. Gergen (2009) confirmed that outside the academic world constructionist ideas have stimulated an enormous expansion in forms of practice.

It was important to define this research in the constructionist tradition. In this way, an objectivist and positivist approach were rejected that would traditionally start from the theory in the body of literature to produce hypotheses to be tested. The philosophy of objectivism claims that

research should be value free and objective. In my research, theory building interacted with my own understanding and interpretation. In dealing with my research sample, reality was constructed and not value free. In terms of theoretical perspective in Crotty’s (2003) model this research is situated in the tradition of symbolic interactionism, which takes the perspective that reality is ‘negotiated between people’, ‘always changing’, and ‘constantly evolving’ (Richards and Morse 2007).

Methodology and methods

Different methodologies appeared to be appropriate to study my sample of entrepreneurs’ characteristics but soon the notion of using grounded theory presented itself as appropriate. Grounded theory methodology was first presented by Glaser and Strauss (1967) and taken further by Glaser, Strauss, Strauss and Corbin, Charmaz, Clarke and many others. The essence of grounded theory is to derive theory from data systematically gathered and analysed in the research process (Strauss and Corbin, 1998). In this methodology, data collection, analysis, and eventually theory stand in close relationship to one another. There is not one universal way in which grounded theory can be applied. Soon after Glaser and Strauss described their research approach in the sixties, they both started diverging in different directions. Strauss and Corbin would allow the research problem to be defined at the start of a project, which was countered by Glaser as this would pre-empt the emergence of theory (Fisher, 2004).

Table 2: Motivation for applying constructivist grounded theory

Consideration	Constructivist grounded theory
Kind of knowledge	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Identifying and explaining contextualised social processes • Concepts and categories emerge from the data and are identified by the researcher • Produce theory grounded in the data
Assumptions about the world	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Looks at how humans negotiate and manage social situations and processes • Studies the changing world as a product of human participation and negotiation • Focuses on process and change • Subscribes to the symbolic interactionist perspective and relativist ontology (realities that are locally and specifically constructed or co-constructed)
Conceptualisation role researcher	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Researcher actively constructs understanding about the phenomenon under investigation • Questions participants to understand what they are doing and why • Researcher tries to clarify own assumptions and expectations while analysing
Mode of working in this research	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Research problem + opening research questions • Data collection + initial coding • Initial memo writing + raising codes to tentative categories • Further data collection + focused coding • Advanced memos + refining conceptual categories • Theoretical sampling + seeking specific new data • Adopting certain categories as theoretical concepts + theoretical memo writing and sorting + further refining of concepts • Writing the first draft + further theoretical sampling if needed • Writing the final grounded theory
Type of analysis	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Iteratively moving between data, codes, concepts and categories to result in a theory.
Challenges	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Assumptions and background of researcher can be too dominant in the analysis if not properly acknowledged • Study is very time consuming
Application to the entrepreneurs’ research	<p>Constructivist GT seemed to be very appropriate to apply to the research questions raised about the entrepreneurs and the way that their characteristics could influence hospitality management education. Particularly the social processes that the entrepreneurs are involved in could be described and explained by adopting a CGT approach.</p>

Charmaz (2006) and Clarke (2005) talk about 'discovering' the theory, in which process the researcher has to use reflexivity and personal interpretation to arrive at the theoretical implications. A researcher applying grounded theory does not generally begin a research project with a preconceived theory in mind but rather begins with an area of study. In this research, the way my entrepreneurs dealt with their social context and how that can be used in education defined the subject area. Grounded theory is a rather open approach to data analysis, which is particularly good for dealing with transcripts of depth interviews (Easterby-Smith et al. 2008). Rubin and Rubin (2005) support this approach and assert that it requires openness to new ideas not anticipated at the beginning.

There are critical observations about the application of grounded theory. The original epistemological grounded theory starting point was in positivism, which would not consider the reflectivity of the researcher involved, instead letting the data produce the theoretical implications through strict application of procedures. Constructivist grounded theory, developed by Charmaz (2006), positions the interplay between data and researcher to construct the outcomes of the study. In Table 1, the considerations for applying a constructivist grounded theory methodology are summarised.

I agree with Hennink et al. (2011) that grounded theory is an appealing approach as it provides a rigorous and scientific approach, yet it also remains faithful to the interpretive nature of qualitative analysis. Charmaz (2006) confirms qualitative interviewing to be an appropriate instrument for grounded theory. Interviewing is interactional because of the exchange or sharing of roles, responsibilities, feelings, beliefs, motives and information (Stewart and Cash 2006), and it can take account of many characteristics of the respondent (Keats 2000). Rubin and Rubin (2005) emphasise the complex nature of interviewing as used in this research as 'responsive interviewing'. Critical comments about interviewing are made by Burton and Bartlett (2005). They warn the interviewer about possibly influencing or leading the respondent, the time intensive nature of the method and the possible variation in interviews, which makes collating difficult.

Hammersley (2002), interestingly, defines the outcomes and importance of this type of highly context specific research as providing 'moderate enlightenment'. Policymakers and practitioners are per definition 'in the dark' and research is needed for them to shed light on the reality of what they are doing and how they should be doing it. Moderate enlightenment takes away the strong generalisation claims that research makes in the natural sciences approach and their strong adoption of positivist viewpoints.

Sample and data collection

The number of interviews followed saturation of the data, which occurs when each new act of data collection does not add anything new (Dyson and Brown 2006). Very important for me in this process of applying grounded theory was to get to the point where I achieved 'theoretical saturation'. Theoretical saturation was originally introduced by Glaser and Strauss (1967) to identify the moment to stop sampling when the data lead to no new findings being generated that would complete a certain category.

My sampling process confirmed findings from Guest et al. (2006) that the big concepts emerged after 6 interviews, while saturation occurred after 11 interviews. The questions for the interviews were formulated to encourage the interviewees to talk about their lives and professions in a flexible manner but without incurring the risk for me to forget to address certain topics connected to the research questions. I followed Rubin and Rubin's (2005) suggestion to formulate main questions and then to follow up based on the answers given. Sometimes interviewees, as predicted by Rubin and Rubin, could offer new ideas and relevant stories but in some cases they would omit certain information.

Data analysis

Essentially the data analysis in this grounded theory approach involves dealing with vast amounts of written findings (transcripts). The analysis of the first few transcripts started by coding the important and interesting issues mentioned by the respondents. For this purpose, I created a three-column table in which the first column held the transcript divided per question and answer, the second column held the interpretation that I took from the coded text and the third column contained the code label, which was used to identify patterns in the transcripts. From the 'three column' table in which I did the coding of the transcript in the first column, I then took the interpretations in the second column (the 'coded text column') and collected them in a new table under the labels that were used in the third column of the original table ('code label column'). Following this procedure, a new table was created that contained the interpretations of each interview and the labels I attached to it. The code labels were described with the meaning I gave them and with some of them a description was added as to how the literature defined the particular code label.

In my analysis of the transcripts, I simultaneously generated memos in which the contemplation, triggered by the interviewees' story lines, materialised. Charmaz (2006) advises to start writing advanced memos after initial coding. I followed Saldana's (2009) suggestion to see the writing of analytic memos as: 'whenever anything related to, and significant about the coding or analysis of the data comes to mind, stop whatever you're doing and write the memo' (p. 33). In Figure 2, the process of the research is visualised.

While coding the interview transcripts, I continued to search the literature in order to validate my code label definitions and to see if they would fit the body of knowledge. While defining the codes, I wrote memos that materialised my understanding and analytic threads induced throughout the working on the data. The whole process was iterative and on-going. It involved going back and forward between data, coding, and further defining the codes and writing memos, while my understanding and interpretation developed. Certain primary interpretations were modified by comparing to the content of later interviews and by reading the literature connected to the codes generated. This process was finalised after theoretical sampling, and collecting specific new data by integrating the memos and concepts. I progressed gradually towards intermediate coding, which had the key task to link together and integrate categories of codes. After finishing the first interviews' analyses, categories emerged that appeared to

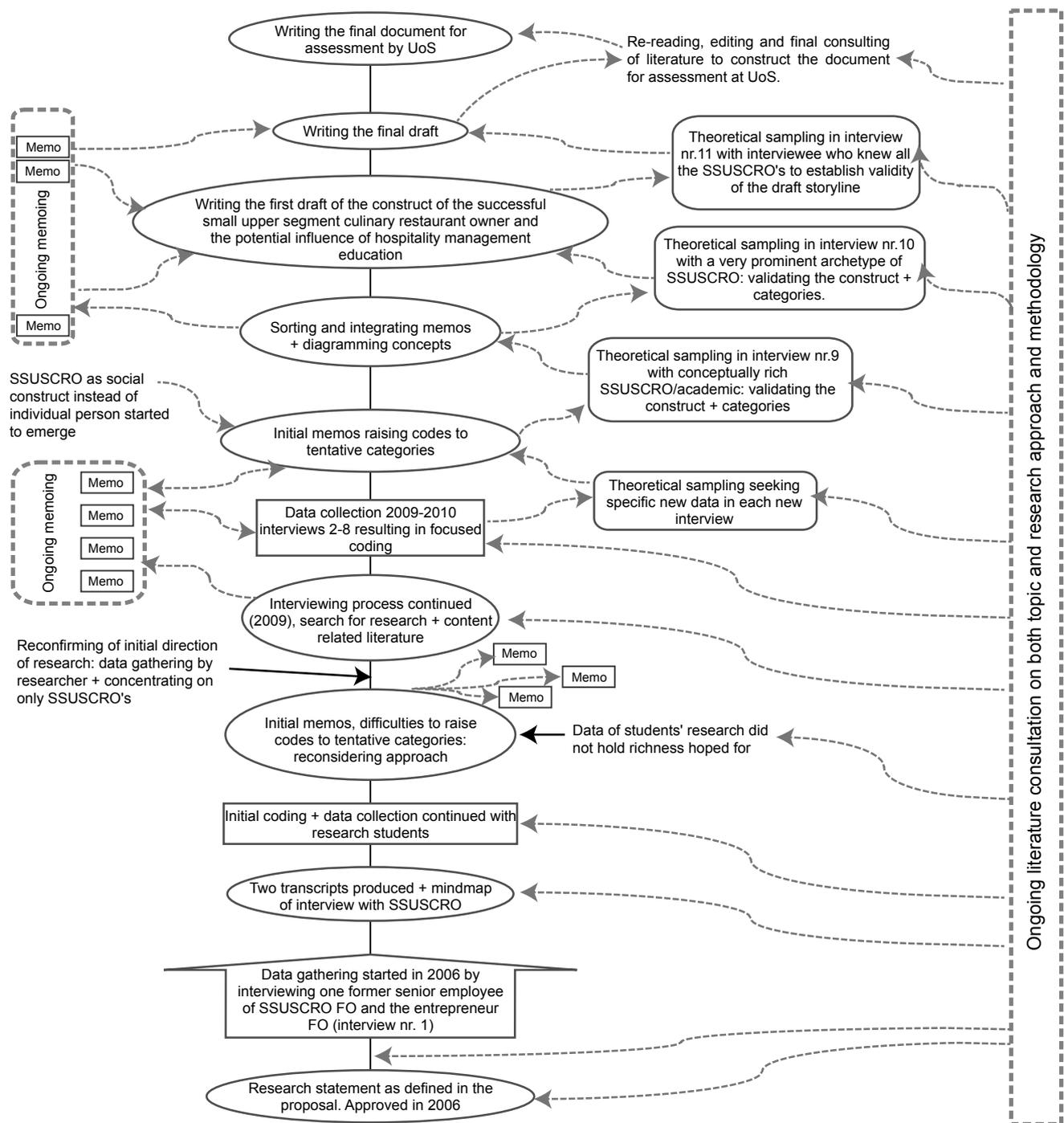


Figure 2: Constructivist grounded theory process in this thesis research

hold the codes and their meanings. I continued this process of coding and reflecting in the next interviews and it allowed me to further develop the codes, their meanings and the categories. Some codes were merged, while others were added and this process was taken further until the eighth interview.

It became clear that the entrepreneurs in my research were not only definable individual personalities but were people embedded in their social context. Their lives were the result of

a complex set of person-related factors, people around them (partner, family, staff and others), activities and circumstances. The choices they made were in many cases influenced by certain happenings or people. In the process of simultaneous data gathering and analysis, slowly but steadily a social construct of entrepreneurship in this research became clear. Also the influence that this phenomenon, defined as social

construct, could have on hospitality management education started to emerge.

The entrepreneurs' characteristics, as persons, were of importance. Analysing their personalities to see what made them who they were was an important element in the coding. Furthermore, it was important for me to find out how their socialisation processes had taken place. There had to be an influence of the family they came from, the education they had followed and the experiences both before and throughout their entrepreneurship. In order to find out what had made them into the people they were, I asked my interviewees to describe their lives in restaurant entrepreneurship and to indicate what they perceived had been the significant moments, interventions and decisions. While they described their lives, I could insert follow-up questions in order to get more in-depth responses and to find out if their descriptions remained at the surface or if more content-rich meanings could be uncovered. I was alert to the entrepreneurs' perceptions of what they considered to be 'successful'. With this exploration of the term 'successful', I looked for indicators and features in both their professional and private lives. In order to summarise and understand the process of analysis, the schematic presentation from codes to theory by Saldana (2009) provided clarity.

It needs to be noted here that the model presentation as offered by Saldana shows the streamlined, ideal, and maybe somewhat linear flow from codes to the eventual theory. The actual process was a lot messier than suggested. Categories did not emerge nicely and neatly from the codes as might be suggested by Figure 3. The iterative process took time and involved going back and forth between the data, initial thoughts and writing of memos.

Conclusion

My approach and design are relatively underexplored in the field of hospitality management research, in which I am a practitioner. Authors situated in the objectivist, positivist, and often in their own perception scientific lines of thought, are easily tempted to discard my research methodology. Hair et al. (2007) talk about the characteristics of the 'good' scientific

method being objective and logical. In my research design, however, I start from a reflective, personal and therefore subjective narrative, based on my experience and observations. My opinion as a researcher had an influence on the process of interpreting the findings, although I acknowledge when and where it impacted. Hair et al. (2007) assert that research should be theory driven, and built on the literature. Although I confirm the importance of adding to the body of knowledge, I took a more iterative approach in which the literature and the 'voices of the respondents' went 'hand in hand'. The result was a grounded theory that explained an important entrepreneurs' social construct in depth. The power and impact of this constructivist grounded theory design lie in its firm grounding in the lived social worlds of the actors involved. The rigorous design with a fully traceable journey through the data and the analysis process guarantees the academic quality of the research needed to operate at doctorate level. My experience in applying this constructivist grounded theory methodology for doctorate study brings me to suggest to other researchers in similar settings to consider adopting the same approach. I conclude by agreeing with Urquhart (2013) that grounded theory has a unique power when correctly applied. It was revolutionary in its time and is still tremendously relevant today as I found out in my doctorate research. A next direction I will explore is about how to apply this grounded theory approach in more concise studies such as at Master's level.

Note

¹ Successful Small Upper Segment Culinary Restaurant Owners

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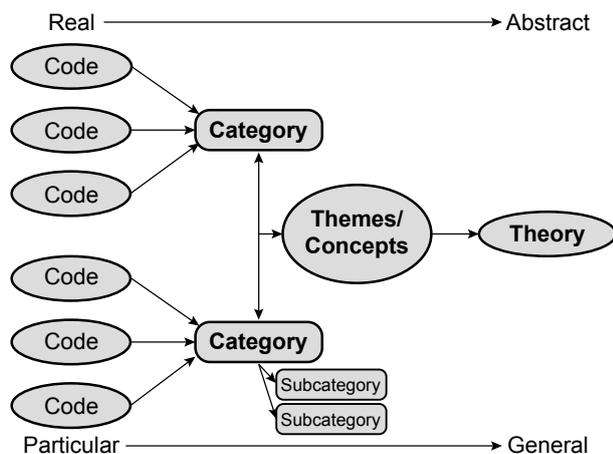


Figure 3: Codes-to-theory model qualitative inquiry (Saldana, 2009: 12)

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The Strategic Employment Experience (SEE) Matrix

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A new tool was developed and tested for the assessment and evaluation of job satisfaction within organisations. The tool is based on Herzberg's two-factor theory, and measures the performance and the importance of motivators and hygiene factors within the work environment. Although both the motivators and hygiene factors tend to end up in the same quadrants of the matrix, some differences were observed related to length of tenure.

Keywords: employee satisfaction, motivators, hygiene factors, Herzberg's two-factor theory

Introduction

The labour market today is confronted with the new reality of employees moving very easily from one job to another as soon as they consider the conditions within their current position no longer conducive for their personal development. This movement of employees to other occupations is making employers more and more aware of the need not only to find, but most importantly, to retain good employees as long as possible. High employee turnover and relatively lower levels of unemployment have made it essential for employers to establish and implement proper tools to measure, evaluate, and be able to improve on employee attitudes related to work and employee satisfaction.

Locke (1976: 1300) defined employee satisfaction as 'a pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one's job or job experiences'. Employees then need to be managed by their organisations in such a way as to ensure that employees derive a positive emotional state from their jobs. On the other hand, organisations need to build long-term commitments to retaining their workforce. This can be achieved through more rigorous recruitment and selection and greater investment by the organisations in training and developing their workforce. Many organisations need to change their philosophy to regarding people as assets rather than costs (Fruin, 2000). Changes in employee attitudes, demographics and the nature of work itself have resulted in a growing recognition that people are an organisation's most valuable resource. Therefore organisations must be concerned with motivating their employees on the one hand and challenging them to perform better on the other.

Employee motivation and satisfaction have been studied from a variety of perspectives over the last forty years. By this time, one would tend to believe that the results of this body of research would have given the most important answers to employers. However, this is not the case as evidenced by the continuous struggle of organisations to measure and improve employee attitudes related to work. If organisations are to be sustainable in the medium to long term, employees

must be motivated to care about the work they do, to acquire knowledge-related skills, and perform the work to the best of their abilities (Lawler, 1994).

As organisations are confronted with the problematic and difficult notion of employee satisfaction, the question that arises is, what should they do? This study is aimed at identifying the relative importance and performance of certain factors of the work environment. The determination of these positions should indicate where there are problems, which would be the first step in finding solutions. On the other hand, the study attempts to indicate whether the biographical characteristics of gender, length of service and age, and the ethnographic characteristic of cultural origin have any significant correlation on overall employee satisfaction.

Purpose and objectives

The purpose of this study is to determine the relative importance and performance of the motivators in a work environment. It determines those aspects of the workplace that employees consider good enough for them to remain. At the same time it brings to light those aspects of the work environment which need to be improved in order to increase satisfaction.

Another purpose of the study is to find the differences in employee satisfaction by gender, age, cultural origin and length of service. The findings can help managers in organisations to better understand the variations in work-related attitudes of the different members of their workforce. To managers, a higher degree of understanding their staff should create better relationships between them and the employees. The improved relationships would then act as a foundation for increased employee satisfaction.

The general objective of this investigation is to develop and use, based on the Herzberg two-factor theory, a satisfaction assessment tool that could be used by organisations to monitor employee satisfaction. Specific objectives of this study are to:

1. Determine the relative importance and performance of the motivators;
2. Determine the differences in the positioning of the motivators between employee groups with different biographical and ethnographic characteristics.

Conceptual framework

The framework for this study is provided by Herzberg's two-factor theory (1959). In that theory, motivation factors are divided into two major groups: hygiene factors (dissatisfiers) and motivators (satisfiers). The theory claims that people are motivated by factors that make them feel good about their work, but generally dislike those factors that make them feel bad. According to Herzberg, motivators are the factors that produce good feelings about work, while hygiene factors, if not present, can result in a conviction that the work situation is unsatisfactory. However it is important to note that the two sets of factors are not opposites. They have different roles and in Herzberg's view these are equally important. Herzberg's theory is represented in the conceptual model shown in Figure 1.

It was expected that differences would be observed in the positioning of the hygiene factors and the motivators between the groups listed in the lower part of the diagram. The absence of any connecting arrows between the variables at the lower part of the model is an indication of the fact that every employee in a work environment belongs to any one and one only of the four pairs of variables. Such an employee can thus for example be a young, recently employed male member of the workforce belonging to culture B.

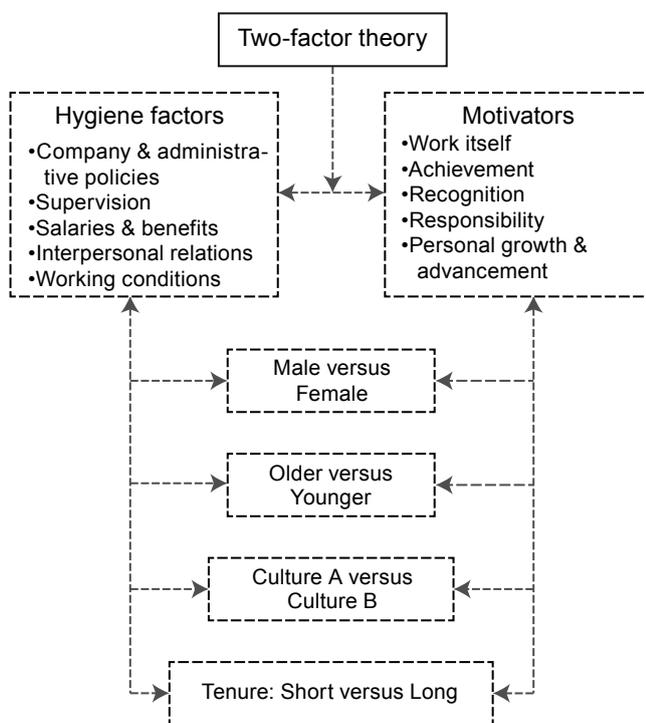


Figure 1: Conceptual model

Hypotheses

In relation to the objectives stated earlier and the model as shown in Figure 1, the following hypotheses were formulated:

1. There is a difference in the positioning of the motivators and hygiene factors in a work environment;
2. There is a difference in the positioning of the motivators between male and female employees;
3. There is a difference in the positioning of the motivators between employees of different cultural origins;
4. There is a difference in the positioning of the motivators between younger and older employees;
5. There is a difference in the positioning of the motivators between employees with different lengths of work tenure.

Method

Setting and sampling

All employees ($n = 106$) of an institute of higher education in the Netherlands were supplied with a self-administered questionnaire. A total of 44 employees responded to the questionnaire producing a response rate of 41.5 %. The general characteristics of the respondents are shown in Table 1.

Instrumentation

The questionnaire included a cover letter indicating the rationale for the study and a request for prompt completion of the survey. The first part covered the background information of the respondents, including their demographic and occupational characteristics. The second and main part of the questionnaire consisted of two series of fifty questions placed side-by-side. For the first series, dealing with their experiences in the workplace, the respondents had to indicate on a seven-point Likert scale, from 1 = extremely low, to 7 = extremely high, the performance of the factors. The second series asked for the importance attributed to the different factors. Here the respondents used a five-point Likert scale from 1 = very low importance, to 5 = very high importance. It should be noted that none of the items in both series were reverse-scored.

The instrument was developed based on the motivators and hygiene factors of job satisfaction as identified by Herzberg. The factors include:

1. Company and administrative policy (HCAP)
2. Supervision (HSUP)
3. Salary and benefits (HSAL)
4. Interpersonal relationships (HINP)
5. Working conditions (HWOC)
6. Work itself (MWIT)
7. Achievement (MACH)
8. Recognition (MREC)
9. Responsibility (MREP), and
10. Personal growth and advancement (MSEC).

Each of these factors is measured using five indicators, making a sum of fifty items in total. All fifty items were presented in random order. In the abbreviations above, the H refers to hygiene factors while the M shows motivators.

Based on the performance and importance ratings all ten factors were subsequently placed in the SEEMatrix. In the SEEMatrix, the vertical axis is based on the mean scores of the attributed importance of the job-related factors from the point of view of the employees. The horizontal axis refers

to the experiences of employees in their work environment. The SEEMatrix has four quadrants (A, B, C, and D) which are defined as follows. In quadrant A we find those factors of the workplace that score high on importance and at the same time low on performance. Factors found in this quadrant should be of great concern to the managers and indicate areas in need of immediate action. It is called the support quadrant.

In quadrant B are those factors that score high in employees' perceived performance and are simultaneously considered of high importance. These might be classified as selling points of the job and the quadrant will be referred to as the elevator quadrant.

In quadrant C are those factors that score low, both in performance and importance. While not necessarily considered a real danger zone, care should be taken in making sure that the factors do not over time move upward in their importance pushing them towards the support zone. The quadrant is called the elusion quadrant.

Finally there is quadrant D with factors, high in performance but with low importance. This might be an indication of some improper allocation of resources and, as such, cost enhancing. This is known as the malfunction quadrant.

Results

Reliability analysis

Before further analyses were done, the reliability of the instrument was determined by calculating Cronbach's alpha for each of the two sets of factors. An α -value of 0.9 was obtained for both the hygiene items and the motivators, indicating a high internal consistency among the items of the instrument.

Performance-importance analysis

To test the first hypothesis about the difference in positioning of the motivators and hygiene factors in a work environment, a graph was constructed showing the performance and importance of each of the factors. The mean scores for performance and importance are shown in Table 2.

When constructing the SEEMatrix, the researcher transformed the co-ordinates based on the deviations of the mean values from the midpoint of the Likert scale used (4 for the experiences scale and 3 for the importance scale). This transformation ensured that both axes would intersect at 0 making all points below the mean values negative. In plotting these deviations, the SEEMatrix was constructed as shown in Figure 2.

As shown in Figure 2, all factors – both motivators and hygiene factors – are in the elevator and support quadrants and there does not seem to be a systematic difference in the position of the two sets of factors.

Testing for differences

To test for differences between male and female respondents a t-test was conducted. Results as shown in Table 3 yielded no statistically significant differences between genders in mean performance scores on the factors.

Similar results – no statistically significant differences – were obtained when testing for differences between cultures and

ages. When comparing employees with a different tenure, however, significant differences did occur, as shown in Table 4.

When comparing employees with a short tenure with employees with a long tenure, differences occur on two of

Table 1: General characteristics of the sample

	Dutch		Non-Dutch		Total
	Male	Female	Male	Female	
Ages					
< 40	6	6	3	4	19
≥ 40	9	11	3	2	25
Sub-total	15	17	6	6	44
Work life					
< 5 years	9	6	4	4	23
≥ 5 years	6	11	2	2	21
Sub-total	15	17	6	6	44

Table 2: Performance and importance scores for all factors

Factors	Performance	Importance
HCAP	3.84	4.00
HSUP	3.94	4.14
HSAL	4.05	4.01
HINP	4.32	4.16
HWOC	4.21	4.15
MWIT	4.42	4.27
MACH	4.25	4.29
MREC	3.74	3.96
MREP	4.81	4.29
MSEC	3.64	3.59

Table 3: Results of t-test between male and female employees

Motivator	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
HCAP	0.398	42	0.693
HSUP	1.727	42	0.091
HSAL	1.237	42	0.223
HINP	0.392	42	0.697
HWOC	1.081	42	0.286
MWIT	1.323	42	0.193
MACH	1.867	42	0.069
MREC	0.178	42	0.859
MREP	1.645	42	0.107
MSEC	0.880	42	0.384

Table 4: Job factors and tenure

Motivator	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
HCAP	1.572	42	0.123
HSUP	3.610	42	0.001
HSAL	1.071	42	0.290
HINP	2.838	42	0.007
HWOC	0.536	42	0.595
MWIT	2.624	42	0.012
MACH	2.764	42	0.008
MREC	2.955	42	0.005
MREP	2.969	42	0.005
MSEC	2.946	42	0.005

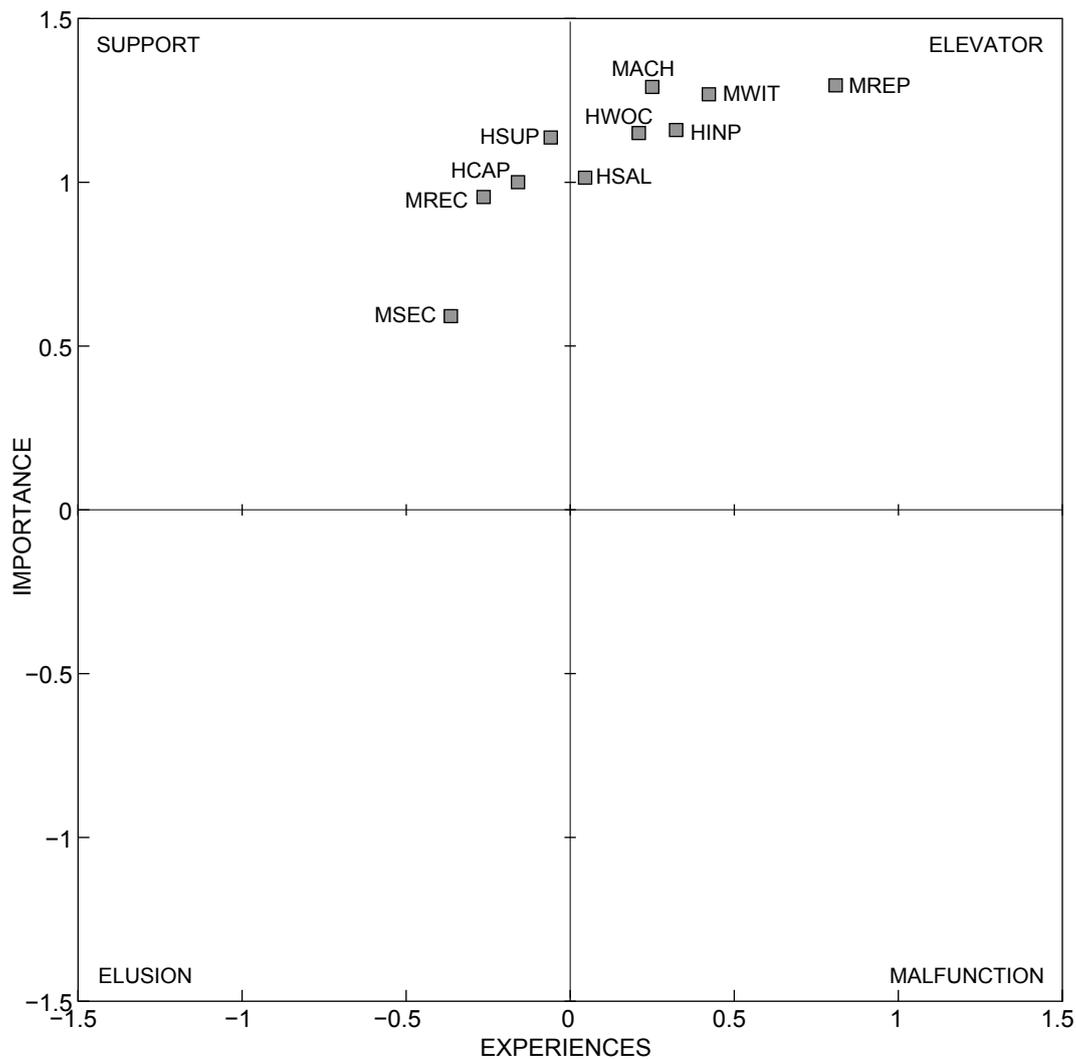


Figure 2: The overall SEEMatrix

the hygiene factors (supervision, and interpersonal relationships) and on all five of the motivators (work itself, achievement, recognition, responsibility, and personal growth).

Correlation analysis

Table 5 shows the correlations between all factors.

As shown in Table 5, all the motivators and hygiene factors are significantly related with each other. The range in correlations is from 0.365 (between MSEC and HWOC) to 0.795 (between MREP and MWIT). All but one of the relationships are significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed). Only the relationship between MSEC and HWOC is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Discussion

Differences in the positioning of the motivating factors

As shown in the SEEMatrix, all motivators and hygiene factors are positioned in the same two quadrants of the matrix. The study shows that the broad distinction by Herzberg of motivating factors into hygiene factors and motivators is not

reflected in a spatial differentiation in the matrix. This is in concord with the study by Wernimont (1966) who showed that both hygiene factors and motivators are inherently inter-related.

Looking more closely at the SEEMatrix, it is noticeable that, on the level of performance, the employees attributed the highest scores to responsibility. Following this motivator and in descending order were: work itself, interpersonal relationships, achievement, working conditions, salaries and benefits, supervision, company and administrative policies, recognition and lastly personal growth and advancement. As a diagnostic tool for discovering where the problems in the satisfaction of the employees are, this could be used to implement some remedial actions in the poorly performing factors within the support quadrant. The employees are least satisfied with the organisation regarding factors like their personal growth and advancement, with a score of 3.63 on the scale of 7. When looking at importance, personal growth and advancement is considered by the employees to be of medium to high importance.

Table 5: Correlations between all factors

Motivator	HCAP	HSUP	HSAL	HINP	HWOC	MWIT	MACH	MREC	MREP
HSUP	0.671**								
HSAL	0.467**	0.568**							
HINP	0.415**	0.591**	0.586**						
HWOC	0.437**	0.570**	0.636**	0.530**					
MWIT	0.621**	0.757**	0.498**	0.653**	0.652**				
MACH	0.598**	0.763**	0.517**	0.580**	0.653**	0.767**			
MREC	0.508**	0.670**	0.484**	0.581**	0.490**	0.618**	0.623**		
MREP	0.674**	0.745**	0.450**	0.522**	0.573**	0.795**	0.752**	0.561**	
MSEC	0.575**	0.592**	0.491**	0.568**	0.365*	0.580**	0.578**	0.452**	0.598**

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed)

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)

Differences in the positioning of motivators by gender

Based on their mean scores and the co-ordinates on the SEEMatrix, male and female employees exhibited differences in the positioning of the motivators. From the SEEMatrix it was noticed that male employees generally had better experiences in the organisation than female employees. The male respondents indicated an overall satisfaction of fair to high (4.35 on the scale of 7), whereas the female employees indicated a low to fair satisfaction (score of 3.91) for their experiences within the organisation.

At the level of the motivators, the biggest difference between the male and female employees was in the domain of sense of achievement. While the male respondents indicated a score of 4.64, this was only 3.89 for the female workers. On the basis of the statistical significance, the absence of differences between the two groups is similar to previous studies, which have shown that there is little or negligible practical significance between the sexes in job satisfaction (Hulin, 1964).

Differences in the positioning of motivators by culture

The *t*-test results showed no significant differences between cultures (Dutch versus non-Dutch) and a comparison of the SEEMatrices equally showed no substantial differences between the groups. The Dutch respondents were generally more satisfied with the performance than the non-Dutch respondents except in the case of two motivators worthy of mentioning – supervision, and salaries and benefits. Similar to conclusions by Popp et al. (1986), both groups assigned a high position for responsibility and achievement, with the exception of personal growth and advancement, which in this study was ranked lowest in all instances.

Differences in the positioning of the motivators by age

The *t*-test results showed no significant differences between the two age groups that were defined in this study. However, in line with other studies (Kalleberg and Loscocco, 1983; Saleh and Otis, 1964) and in consideration of their satisfaction levels, the younger respondents indicated a generally higher level than the older employees did, with scores of 4.16 and 4.09 respectively. This difference was most noticed in the motivators personal growth and advancement, company and administrative policies, and supervision. Contrarily, the older employees were more satisfied with the recognition they received from the organisation and their salary levels. This is similar to conclusions arrived at by Wright and Hamilton (1978).

Differences in the positioning of the motivators by work tenure

The *t*-test showed significant differences on seven of the ten factors. The observation was that employees who had spent five or more years with the organisation were more dissatisfied across all the factors, and most notably regarding supervision, responsibility, personal growth and advancement, and recognition. The findings of this study are thus contradictory to those of Ward (1977) but congruent with the conclusions drawn by Cytrynbaum and Crites (1988) that employee satisfaction tapers off after one's career is established.

Implications and recommendations

First of all, the tool is an inexpensive and easy-to-use means of assessing the satisfaction of employees at any level within an organisation. The management of organisations should consider its use for upfront diagnosis that would help human resources to plan or adapt their policies. It is true that employees need satisfying working conditions, and if management can find out in what specific domains improvement would be required, then they would have come a long way in solving a good proportion of their human resources problems.

As there are differences in people, these differences should always be considered in the way organisations arrange their incentives to enhance employee satisfaction. For this to be made possible, in-depth knowledge of the motives that drive employees would be a prerequisite for the enhancement of better job relationships between the employees and management and also amongst themselves within the organisation. Obviously no two individuals are the same, but when people are in the same unit for relatively long periods of time, they tend to develop certain similar characteristics that identify them much more as a group than as individuals.

This study could be replicated in other organisations and units within them, in order to be able to establish benchmark levels that could permit cross-sectional as well as industry-wide comparisons of the satisfaction of employees. In addition, repeat studies will be called for after a maximum of about five years to determine the effectiveness of the new policies that could have resulted from any initial study.

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Hospitality management students' cognitive style

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This paper reports on the cognitive style of students in a problem-based hospitality management curriculum at a university of applied sciences. A cognitive style is a student's preference of perceiving, processing, and evaluating information (Hayes and Allinson 1998). The cognitive style of the students was measured with the cognitive style indicator (CoSI) developed by Cools and Van den Broeck (2007). The findings suggest that hospitality management students are good planners who are organised, structured, resistant to change, and habit bound. Hospitality management students' scores on the other factors, creative style and knowing style, lag behind other work fields. The study also showed that variables like gender, year of study, or the wish to continue a career in the hospitality industry have no impact on the cognitive styles of the students.

Keywords: hospitality education, problem-based learning, cognitive style indicator (CoSI)

Introduction

Managers in the hospitality industry face many different challenges that require competencies in planning, organising, leading, and controlling. The speed and quality of decision making contribute to the success managers have in dealing with the challenges they continually face. Cognitive style is important to understand the preferences of people in their work environment and their performance on the job. Cognitive styles refer to relatively stable differences in the way in which individuals perceive stimuli, organise, process and use information to guide their behaviour and actions (Armstrong et al., 2012; Cools and Van den Broeck, 2007; Hayes and Allison, 1998; Van den Broeck et al., 2003). Cognitive styles tend to be relatively stable.

Cognitive styles in business and management

In reviews on cognitive styles in business and management a growing interest in cognitive style research was noticed (Armstrong and Cools, 2009; Armstrong et al., 2012). Cognitive styles are important in understanding the preferences and performance of people in their work environment. For instance, collaboration at work and in project teams can be critically influenced by the composition of the team. The interpersonal functioning of each team member may influence the performance of the whole team. Therefore, the cognitive styles of the individual team members and demands of the work environment must be examined to create opportunities for a fit between person and work environment to enhance team dynamics and performance. Individual differences in cognitive styles influence job satisfaction, commitment, and motivation (Armstrong and Cools, 2009; Armstrong et al., 2012; Cools et al., 2009). Differences in cognitive styles influence management practice and may predict important elements of performance at the workplace (Cools et al., 2013). For instance, a manager's cognitive style

may affect his perception and understanding of a viable business strategy (Gallén, 1997; 2006).

Cognitive style in hospitality management education

Style awareness is important to understand performance at the workplace. However, style awareness is not only important in a business environment. The increasing internationalisation of higher education also demands the recognition of individual and cultural differences in learning. Students' cognitive styles differ from one another and may have significant implications for their performance in higher education (Evans et al., 2010). Cognitive styles research has contributed to better understanding of learning and performance in education (Peterson et al., 2009; Evans et al., 2010). For instance, Backhaus and Liff (2007) found that undergraduate business students with a more analytical approach attain higher grades than students with an intuitive approach. Moreover, female business students tend to use a more analytical approach to learning and adopt a more strategic approach to studying than their male counterparts, which makes them more successful in business education. Understanding differences in cognitive style is especially important in educational contexts that require self-directed learning, collaboration, problem solving, and group work. In this study, students' cognitive styles are investigated in a problem-based learning environment that is characterised by self-directed, collaborative, constructive learning in the context of hospitality management.

Research questions

In this study, five basic research questions are addressed.

1. Is the cognitive style indicator a suitable instrument for testing and evaluating cognitive style?
2. What is the cognitive style of the students in our sample?

3. Are there any differences in cognitive style between male and female students?
4. Are there differences in cognitive style between students in different stages of their education?
5. Are there differences in cognitive style between students who want to pursue a career in hospitality management, those who are still indecisive, and those who do not want a career in the hospitality industry?

Methodology

Participants

The participants in this study are 273 students of a Bachelor's degree in International Hospitality Management. The sample consists of 103 male students and 170 female students. Students of all four years of the BA programme participated: 76 first-year students, 73 second-year students, 73 third-year students and 51 students in the fourth year of study.

Educational context

The context of the present study is a hospitality management programme that is based on the principles of problem-based-learning (PBL). Problem-based learning was developed by Howard Barrows in the 1960s at the medical school of McMaster's University in Hamilton (Canada) and over the years was adopted by many other medical schools all over the world (Barrows, 1996; Barrows and Tamblyn, 1980; Taylor and Milfin, 2008). Most research on problem-based learning has been done in the medical and health sciences (Dochy et al., 2003; Dolmans et al., 2005; Gijbels et al., 2005; Neville, 2009). In business and economics, the introduction of problem-based learning took place on a modest scale and consequently research on problem-based learning in the field of business and economics (Arts, 2007; Arts et al., 2002; Gijbels, 1995) and more specifically in hospitality is not largely available (Huang, 2005; Kivela and Kivela, 2005). A noticeable characteristic of problem-based learning practiced within the research setting is the facilitation of the learning process in the PBL tutorial by a tutor using the seven-step procedure. Following the Maastricht model of problem-based learning a seven-step procedure is used to enable students to structure the problem solving and learning process in the PBL tutorial. The seven-step procedure supports the constructive learning activities by providing the students with a procedure to systematically work on unstructured, authentic problems (Moust et al., 2007).

Problem-based learning is related to (social) constructivist conceptions about knowledge and learning (Savery, 2006; Savery and Duffy, 1996). In a constructivist conception of learning, the student constructs a mental model by activating prior knowledge and restructures his existing cognitive structure by elaborating on existing concepts and by integrating new information. The tutorials in problem-based learning start with discussions about a real-life problem that is exemplary of and relevant for the professional context (Barrows and Tamblyn, 1980; Barrows, 2002; Jonassen, 1997; 2000). The activation of students' prior knowledge furthers the cognitive integration of new information. Through in-depth analysis and discussion of the problem, students gain deeper understanding of the subject areas included in the problem. The discussion of concepts and principles during

the problem-solving process enhances overall understanding of the domain of knowledge of which the problem is exemplary. The dynamic, collaborative, and productive learning processes enable students not only to gain new knowledge and understanding but also to take responsibility for their own learning. The active role of the students in the PBL tutorial implies that students have to plan and monitor their learning process, and take responsibility for their own learning and development (Barrows, 2002; Dochy et al., 2005; Hmelo-Silver, 2004; Van den Hurk, 2006). Students in the PBL tutorial collaboratively identify gaps between what they already know and what they need to learn by formulating explicit learning goals and selecting the appropriate learning resources. Problem-based learning has a positive effect on the development of self-directed learning skills and general problem solving skills (Dolmans, 1994; Wilkerson and Gijbels, 1996).

Instrument

In the field of business and economics education different instruments like the Cognitive Style Index (Allison and Hayes, 1996) and the Cognitive Styles Analysis Test (Riding, 1991) have been used to assess cognitive style. However, concerns about the reliability, validity and the fragmented theoretical basis of the instruments were expressed (Hodgkinson and Sadler-Smith, 2003; Peterson et al., 2009) and led to the development of new instruments. The instrument used in this study is the Cognitive Style Indicator (CoSI) that is based on an extensive literature review and has been validated in several studies (Cools and Van den Broeck, 2007). A study investigating the cross-cultural validity of the CoSI with a South-African and a Belgium sample confirmed the three-factor model (Cools et al., 2009).

Cools and Van den Broeck (2007) identified three cognitive style dimensions – a knowing style, a planning style and a creating style. Dominance on the knowing dimension is an indicator for the ability to analyse problems in a logical, rational, and impersonal way, and to put new information into context. Dominance on the planning dimension indicates a preference for structure, control, and certainty. People with this profile prefer structured tasks and organised environments. Dominance on the creating dimension suggests that these persons like innovation and new ideas. They make decisions in a quick, subjective, and intuitive way. These persons prefer open-ended tasks that need creativity and end up in novelties (Cools and Van den Broeck, 2007).

Though cognitive style is regarded independent of culture, experience, and heredity, we are interested if the cognitive style of the international hospitality management students matches the educational approach to the curriculum, problem-based learning, and if differences in gender and study year can be noticed. Therefore, three additional questions on gender, year of study and the wish to continue a career in the hospitality industry were added to the questionnaire. The final questionnaire was handed out to the participants, who voluntarily participated. The students rated the statements of the CoSI on a scale from one (totally disagree) to five (totally agree).

Results

Validation of the cognitive style indicator

The structure of the cognitive style indicator (CoSI) was validated with EQS 6.1 (Bentler, 2006). The following fit indices were used for the validation of the instrument: goodness-of-fit index (GFI), root mean square residual (RMR), root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA), adjusted goodness-of-fit index (AGFI), and non-normed fit index (NNFI). One item (P7: A good task is a well prepared task) with a factor loading below 0.30 was excluded from further analysis. Table 1 gives an overview of the fit indices for the CoSI. The criterion for the GFI, AGFI, and NNFI are values greater than 0.90 (Bentler, 2006). Our results show that the GFI 0.916 meets the criterion, the NNFI 0.878 and AGFI 0.886 are within an acceptable range. Values of 0.05 or less on the RMSEA generally indicate a close fit of the hypothesised model and the observed data, values of 0.08 or less indicate a reasonable fit and values of 0.10 or larger indicate bad fit (Bentler, 2006). EQS reports a 90% confidence interval of the RMSEA. A narrow confidence interval around the RMSEA reflects good precision of the model fit (Byrne, 2006). Hancock and Mueller (2005) proposed target values for the RMR and RMSEA of 0.06 or less. The RMSEA of 0.048 and the RMR of 0.047 meet Hancock and Mueller’s target values and the confidence interval (0.035–0.060) indicates good precision. Taking a look at the general trend of the fit indices, we can state that the results are satisfactory. The results show the CoSI to be an acceptable and appropriate tool to measure cognitive style. Table 2 shows that the GFI, AGFI, and NNFI in this study are well within the range of the values of previous studies (Cools and Van den Broeck, 2007). The RMSEA and RMR indicate a good fit, supporting the CoSI as a suitable instrument for testing and evaluating the cognitive style of hospitality management students.

Cronbach’s alpha was used for testing the internal consistency of the three CoSI dimensions and revealed a relatively low 0.647 for the knowing dimension and two satisfactory outcomes for the planning ($\alpha = 0.720$) and creating ($\alpha = 0.749$) dimensions (Table 3). Furthermore, the Pearson correlation revealed a significant correlation between the knowing and planning dimensions ($r = 0.270$) and between

knowing and creating ($r = 0.286$). This means that these dimensions are not independent from each other.

Cognitive style of students

Table 4 shows the items of the questionnaire together with their individual means and standard deviations. Furthermore, we report the overall means and standard deviations of the three dimensions of the CoSI. Hospitality management students show dominance for the planning dimension ($M = 3.92$), followed by the creating dimension ($M = 3.88$) and have the lowest scores on the knowing dimension ($M = 3.64$). The students are in general well-organised and prefer structure (P8: $M = 4.05$; C18: $M = 3.58$). They are somewhat resistant to change (C14: $M = 3.67$), are habit-bound, and need time to think internally about concepts and ideas. Decisions are made intuitively and are not based on thorough analysis. The individual mean scores of the items show that there are some contradictions. In general, the students in the sample want to have a full understanding and overview (K1: $M = 4.03$; P6: $M = 4.16$) but do not want to perform the analysis by themselves (K3: $M = 3.41$), which could be interpreted as a preference for planning, organising and controlling.

ANOVA shows no significant differences between gender and year of study on the three dimensions of the CoSI. A significant difference ($F = 3.17, p = 0.044$) was found between the variable career perspective of students and the planning dimension. The post hoc Bonferroni test showed a significant difference between the students who want to

Table 1: Overview fit indices

	Values
Absolute fit measures	
Goodness-of-fit index (GFI)	0.916
Root mean square residual (RMR)	0.047
Root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA)	0.048
	C.I. (0.035–0.060)
Incremental fit measures	
Adjusted goodness-of-fit index (AGFI)	0.886
Non-normed fit index (NNFI)	0.878

Table 2: Fit indices in comparison to fit indices of three studies by Cools and van den Broeck (2007)

Fit index	Study 1	Study 2	Study 3	This study
Absolute fit measures				
Goodness-of-fit index (GFI)	0.948	0.915	0.880	0.916
Root mean square residual (RMR)	0.033	0.069	0.057	0.047
Root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA)	0.057	0.070	0.076	0.048
Incremental fit measures				
Adjusted goodness-of-fit index (AGFI)	0.933	0.890	0.845	0.886
Non-normed fit index (NNFI)	0.901	0.888	0.860	0.878

Table 3: Cronbach’s α , mean, standard deviation, and Pearson correlations for the dimensions

Cognitive style dimensions	Cronbach’s α	M	SD	1	2	3
1 Knowing	0.647	3.64	0.57	1	0.270**	0.286**
2 Planning	0.720	3.92	0.54		1	0.042
3 Creating	0.749	3.88	0.54			1

Table 4: Mean scores and standard deviation of the CoSI

	Mean	SD
Knowing		
K.1. I want to have a full understanding of all problems.	4.03	0.778
K.2. I like to analyse problems.	3.75	0.740
K.3. I make detailed analysis.	3.41	0.845
K.4. I study each problem until I understand the underlying logic.	3.38	0.912
Planning		
P.1. Developing a clear plan is very important to me.	3.97	0.813
P.2. I always want to know what should be done when.	4.16	0.809
P.3. I like detailed action plans.	3.98	0.857
P.4. I prefer clear structures to do my job.	4.05	0.860
P.5. I prefer well-prepared meetings with a clear agenda and strict time management.	3.90	0.843
P.6. I make definite engagements, and follow up meticulously.	3.47	0.795
P.7. A good task is a well prepared task.	3.84	0.864
Creating		
C.1. I like to contribute to innovative solutions.	3.95	0.738
C.2. I prefer to look for creative solutions.	3.87	0.884
C.3. I am motivated by ongoing innovations.	3.67	0.801
C.4. I like much variety in my life.	4.33	0.849
C.5. New ideas attract me more than existing solutions.	3.90	0.873
C.6. I like to extend boundaries.	3.91	0.820
C.7. I try to avoid routine.	3.58	0.967

Table 5: Scores of hospitality management students in comparison to other studies

	N	Knowing style		Planning style		Creating style	
		M	SD	M	SD	M	SD
Studies by Cools and Van den Broeck							
Personnel	474	3.77	0.60	3.70	0.62	4.01	0.47
Sales and Marketing	1160	3.85	0.60	3.79	0.60	4.06	0.51
Finance	379	4.02	0.57	3.79	0.57	3.88	0.51
Finance (2)	62	4.25	0.70	3.83	0.73	4.09	0.70
Engineering	123	4.16	0.73	3.78	0.84	4.22	0.56
IT	302	4.11	0.68	3.72	0.75	4.20	0.56
Sales and Marketing (2)	226	4.00	0.73	3.90	0.75	4.19	0.59
Hospitality Management students	273	3.64	0.57	3.92	0.54	3.88	0.54

pursue a career in hospitality management and the students who have not yet decided about their future careers.

Discussion and conclusions

Hospitality management students compared to other professions

When we compare the hospitality students in this study (Table 5) with previous studies that were based on samples derived from other professions, hospitality management students have a mean score for the planning dimension ($M = 3.92$) that is higher than the range from $M = 3.70$ to $M = 3.90$ in the studies reported by Cools and Van den Broeck (2007). Hospitality management students' mean scores on the other two dimensions were overall lower than the mean scores of subjects from other professional fields. A mean score of 3.64 on the knowing style in our study is lower than the mean for personnel related professions ($M = 3.77$) and the mean in a sample from the finance sector ($M = 4.25$) (Cools and Van den Broeck, 2007). Our findings show a $M = 3.88$ for the creating dimension, which is relatively low in comparison to the range from $M = 3.88$ to $M = 4.22$ in Cools and Van

den Broeck's (2007) previous studies. We can conclude that hospitality management students compared to students and professionals in other work fields are relatively good planners. However, they do not excel in creativity, and fall behind other students and professionals on the knowing dimension, which can be a problem in subjects like accounting, financial management, and statistics that require analytical skills. Further investigations on the relation between cognitive styles, didactic approach, and the study progress of the students might reveal why students experience difficulties in certain subjects.

Hospitality management students in a problem-based learning curriculum

Self-directed learning in collaboration with other students is one of the main characteristics of problem-based learning and it comes as no surprise that problem-based learning makes an appeal on the planning style of hospitality management students. The planning style of the students seems to fit perfectly with the demands that problem-based learning places on students' self-directed and constructive learning. The relatively low scores of the hospitality management

students on the creating and especially on the knowing style are cause for concern. Learning from problem solving is one of the basic ideas in problem-based learning.

The tasks in problem-based learning are generally unstructured and complex. Students acquire new knowledge in the context of application. Heuristic problem solving demands a certain amount of creativity to go further than the most obvious solutions and to find pathways that are off the beaten track and lead to innovative thinking and actions.

The relatively low scores of hospitality management students on the knowing factor call for more attention and guidance of the tutors during the PBL sessions to attain higher standards. From the first step of the seven-step procedure – activating and elaborating on prior knowledge – to the last step – synthesising, evaluating, and applying the acquired knowledge to other tasks and contexts – knowing and knowledge are essential.

Two issues come up for discussion when students score low on the knowing style. First, the relatively low intellectual interest and motivation for understanding of the students and their high interest in practical matters has been noticed. Second, the question arises which instructional approaches can be best applied to fit the cognitive styles of the students and which instructional approaches can be used to further develop a broader cognitive perspective. The positive scores on the planning and self-directed activities and the relatively low scores on the knowing style indicate that a more structured and guided approach to problem-based learning in the first year of the programme might be desirable to stimulate and monitor student learning and knowledge.

Though it looks like a good idea to use an adaptive approach and accommodate the needs of the students to enhance the efficiency and effectiveness of learning, one should keep in mind that a certain amount of constructive friction between the needs of the students and the demands of the learning environment is needed to facilitate the development of cognitive flexibility (Evans and Cools, 2011; Riding and Sadler-Smith, 1997). Different learning contexts and work environments that ask for cognitive flexibility and awareness of one's cognitive style may contribute to the development of an effective learning strategy.

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How to develop student-centred management cases

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Case studies are very popular in management education. Many case studies, however, are written at a level that is beyond the understanding of their target audience and therefore fail to do what they are intended for. The present study examines common pitfalls of case studies and presents a framework for the development of student-centred cases, together with examples from cases that were developed from the perspective of young professionals.

Keywords: management education, student-centred, case studies, Bolman-Deal organisational domains, action research

Introduction

Case studies are popular in management education. They bring the business world into the classroom and invite lively discussion. If used properly, they can provide both Identification and recognition for the students. However, many of the cases are written from a perspective that is beyond the grasp of most students, and even their instructors. Students understand the difference between €100 and €200, because that is what they may have in their pockets. But when they are asked to discuss strategic decisions that management of large international companies are facing, the difference between 1 million and 1 billion is not always clear to them. Likewise, they can understand what it means when a person loses her job or when people cannot find employment. But when a large corporation decides to downsize and fires 10 000 employees, the impact may escape their comprehension. Mintzberg sums up the problem with contemporary management teaching cases when he states that ‘we take young people with little business experience atop institutions they know nothing about’ (Mintzberg, 1996: 63, cited in Swiercz and Ross 2003: 427).

In the present study we aim to provide a framework for case studies that does more justice to the student perspective. Based on the four-frame model by Bolman and Deal on the one hand, and service management theory on the other, we first present a model for the development of student-centred cases studies. Then we give some examples from ten case studies that were developed by students, based on analyses of companies that they had worked for and then analysed based on their work experience. Half of the case studies are based on Chinese companies, the other half on Western firms. We then argue how these case studies are markedly different from more traditional ones, such as the famous Harvard Business Review cases.

The case method

The case method plays a crucial role in management education (Banning, 2003; Dooley and Skinner, 1977 cited in Liang and Wang 2004: 397) and the aim of using teaching cases in class is to promote experiential learning and encourage active learning. Case studies have been used in education a long time. Lawrence (as cited in Liang and Wang, 2004) describes cases as ‘the vehicle by which a chunk of reality is brought into the classroom to be worked over by the class and instructor’ [our italics]. Naumes and Naumes (2012: 10–11) state that a case is ‘a description of a *real* situation’ [our italics]. Scholars give different definitions of a case, but ‘*real*’ is the most important characteristic that these definitions present.

Case studies offer real-world relevance and provide students with an opportunity to link theory with application (Auster and Wylie 2006: 350). Ashamalla and Crocitto (2001: 517–518) mention that when students analyse a case or a situation by connecting it to their own experiences, active learning will take place, and consequently students are more likely to remember. But they also state that case method has some drawbacks: in the first place, for different reasons, such as poor preparation or lack of case identification, students may be inadequately involved in the case study process and instructors overly control the case discussion; second, cultural biases exist in most of the cases drawn from American-based organisations; third, there are issues concerning validity and timeliness of transfer.

Similar and additional concerns are raised by Currie et al. (2005) and Currie and Tempest (2008). They argue that most of the current teaching cases privilege a senior management point of view, are dominated by a rational view, and are teacher-centred and therefore difficult for students to work with. The real world of senior managers is very far removed from that of the average student. Chinese scholars Liang and Wang (2004: 410) found that ‘there exists a major

gap between the stated purpose of the case method of “bring[ing] a chunk of reality” into the classroom and what teaching cases actually depict and convey’.

Bolman–Deal four-frame model

Bolman and Deal (2008) have developed a model for reframing organisations. It consists of four domains and was initially published in 1984. The model was originally designed for analysing organisations, but it is also very useful for analysing and developing case studies. The model has been used for this purpose by a number of scholars and practitioners (Swiercz and Ross, 2003; Liang and Wang, 2004; Bolman and Deal, 2008; Liang and Lin, 2008).

The structural frame focuses on the architecture of organisation, namely the design of units and subunits, rules and roles, goals and policies (e.g. analysis, facts, model).²

The human resources frame emphasises understanding people, their strengths and weaknesses, reason and emotion, desires and fears. In the human domain, the central issue highlights a good fit between human needs and organisational rationality (e.g. experience, feelings, relationships).

The political frame sees organisations as competitive arenas of scarce resources, competing interests, and struggles for power and advantage. From a political perspective, organisations are coalitions of individuals and groups with enduring differences of scarce resources (e.g. conflict, power, social responsibility).

The symbolic frame focuses on issues of meaning and faith. It puts ritual, ceremony, story, play, and culture at the heart of organisational life. An organisation’s culture is revealed and communicated by its symbols (e.g. culture, myth/stories, vision).

This multi-frame thinking suggests that all four domains should be adequately displayed in teaching cases if we want to bring real organisational life into the classroom, ‘although not necessarily in every single case’ (Liang and Wang 2004: 400). Swiercz and Ross (2003: 414) examined 36 Harvard Business School (HBS) cases using Bolman and Deal’s model and found that the structural and human resources domains accounted for 85% of all text. Liang and Lin (2008) point out that most HBS cases and ‘post-West’ Chinese cases were written from senior executive’s perspective and that lower level managerial staff and employees were left out. Liang and Lin (2008) make a comparison of two Chinese case books, one from 1992, before the Western infusion, and one from 1999. They compare a total of 85 cases. Their findings are striking and they report them in forceful language:

Narrative analysis results show that, although primitive in many ways, the 1992 case sample as a whole is more holistic in their approach. While the 1999 cases are generally more developed, they appear to have acquired many of the same deficiencies of their Western counterparts (Liang and Lin, 2008: 606).

Developing student-centred case studies

The critical comments in the previous section would merit case studies that are closer to the perspective of students or beginning practitioners so that identification with and recognition of the subject are enhanced. A number of case writers have attempted to do just this. Ashamalla and Crocitto (2001) adopted Kolb’s model and developed a series of parallel stages of student-generated cases which was for maximising case studies’ effectiveness (see Kolb, 1994; Joy and Kolb, 2009). Stage 1 was creating a case from a work experience of a management situation that carried significance for the students; Stage 2 allowed students to reflect on the chosen experience; In Stage 3 students could apply course material to their situations and develop alternative solutions; In Stage 4, the students analysed the different alternatives and selected a preferred course of action; and Stage 5 was follow-up which emphasised self-evaluation about reflective learning (Ashamalla and Crocitto, 2001: 519–524).

Derrington and Larsen (2009) asked students to rate three types of cases (textbook cases, cases written by classmates, and cases written by themselves) in relation to six learning objectives of a course they taught in 2006 and 2007. The means of the two-year combined data did not show statistically significant differences in students’ perceptions of the three approaches to case studies. But the means themselves showed a trend that the students found more value in their own cases and those created by their classmates than the textbook cases.

Gap Model of Service Quality

It is meaningful to view the hospitality industry from a service management perspective (Kandampully, 2003). Service management may be defined as ‘a total organisational approach in which the quality of services as perceived by the customers is the number one driving force for the operation of the business’ (Albrecht, 1990). A model that is particularly useful in this context is the Gap Model of Service Quality that was first developed by Parasuraman et al. in 1985. The model can be seen as a tool to diagnose organisations from a

Table 1: Overview of the four-frame model (Excerpted from Bolman and Deal 2008: 18)

	Structural	Human resources	Political	Symbolic
Metaphor for organisation	Factory or machine	Family	Jungle	Carnival, temple, theatre
Central concepts	Rules, roles, goals, policies, technology, environment	Needs, skills, relationships	Power, conflict, competition, organisational politics	Culture, meaning, metaphor, ritual, ceremony, stories, heroes
Image of leadership	Social architecture	Empowerment	Advocacy and political savvy	Inspiration
Basic leadership challenge	Attune structure to task, technology, environment	Align organisational and human needs	Develop agenda and power base	Create faith, beauty, meaning

customer perspective. According to the model, service quality is defined as the difference between customers' expectations and perceptions when they receive the service. This so-called customer gap may result from a series of organisational gaps. The key points of each gap can be summarised as follows (Parasuraman et al. 1985; Zeithaml et al. 2009; Fitzsimmons and Fitzsimmons 2011; Wilson et al. 2012):

Customer Satisfaction Gap: The difference between customers' expectations and perceptions – the service quality gap;

Listening Gap: The difference between what the customer expected and what management perceived about the customer's expectations;

Design Gap: The difference between management's perceptions of customer expectations and the translation of those perceptions into customer-driven service standards and designs;

Human Resources Gap: The difference between customer-driven service standards and the actual service delivered to customers;

Communication Gap: The difference between services delivered to customers and the promises of the company to customers about its service quality.

Issues for investigation

There are several issues for investigation in this study:

- How to develop series of cases that university students and beginning practitioners can identify with;
- How to develop cases that represent a customer oriented service perspective;
- How to develop cases that represent different aspects of the organisation (i.e. structural, human, political and symbolic).

These issues are linked in the following conceptual model (see Figure 1). The following reflections mainly deal with Phase 1 of the centre box in the model, namely case development.

Methods

The method in this study basically follows the steps of action research. According to Easterby-Smith et al. (2008: 93), action research is one of the constructive research designs which emphasises continuous change and the researcher herself/himself is involved in the implementation. It is participatory in nature and involves a spiral of action cycles (Kemmis and McTaggart, 2000, cited in Koshy, 2005: 4):

- Planning a change;
- Acting and observing the process and consequences of the change;
- Reflecting on these processes and consequences and then re-planning;
- Acting and observing;
- Reflecting; and
- Repeating the cycle from a to e.

The need for change is expressed in the issues for investigation. To address the first issue, we chose to take the content for the cases from assignments that students had written in the module Principles of Service Management, the first module of the Master in International Service Management at the School of Graduate Studies, at Stenden University in

the years 2010–2011 and 2011–2012. In this assignment students are asked to report on an organisation that they have worked for or that they know intimately as a customer. They have to analyse the organisation using the Gap Model of Service Quality. An additional requirement for the reports is that the students need to write a section on the role of the customer. These paragraphs provide rich data about the customer orientation of the various companies and happily address the second issue for investigation. The pile of student reports yielded a 'population' of 85 assignments. We made a first selection of 31 cases that was later reduced to a shortlist of 15 cases. The sample was highly purposive and the selection was made on the following criteria.

First, the assignments were chosen to represent different sectors of the service economy. Obviously, several examples were taken from hospitality, food service, leisure and tourism. But car rental, an employment agency and government services were also part of the sample. Second, the assignments represented different countries, from Europe, Asia and Africa. The third criterion was that all assignments described small or medium sized companies. And fourth, each assignment would cover at least two of the Service Quality Gaps.

After the first selection of 15 assignments, the first action was contacting the author of each assignment to get permission to use the assignment. One out of the 15 respondents declined the request. The number of the sample was then reduced to 14. The second action was contacting the companies that would be involved in the cases in order to get permission to use the company's name in the cases. Seven of the 14 respondents accepted the requests, two of the 14 respondents preferred to replace their company's names but agreed to be involved in the cases, and five of the 14 respondents were difficult to approach or did not respond. The third action was to examine and discuss the five assignments that did not yield a company response with the case writing team members in order to find solutions as to how to use these assignments. After examination and discussion, the team decided to use one of those five assignments to develop a case. The reason was that this assignment was written on a theme park in China, and all the Chinese authors in the case writing team had been there before. Combined with personal experiences, the case writers planned to use other public sources to develop this case. The total number of assignments to be used to develop cases was thus 10.

Based on these 10 assignments, the case writing team members assigned the tasks and started drawing outlines for each case using Zeithaml et al.'s (2009) Gap Model of Service Quality, other service management texts, and criteria from books on case development. Besides this, the Bolman–Deal four-frame model was also employed by the case writers to develop a more balanced view of organisational life.

The case writing team was composed of five Master's students who were studying International Service Management at Stenden University and their supervisor who teaches the module of Principle of Service Management in the Master's programme. Three of the team members are Chinese case writers and the other two are from Germany and West Africa. The supervisor is from the Netherlands. Of the 10 cases, four were written by Chinese writers on Chinese organisations, five were written by German or West African writers on non-Chinese organisations, one of the cases was

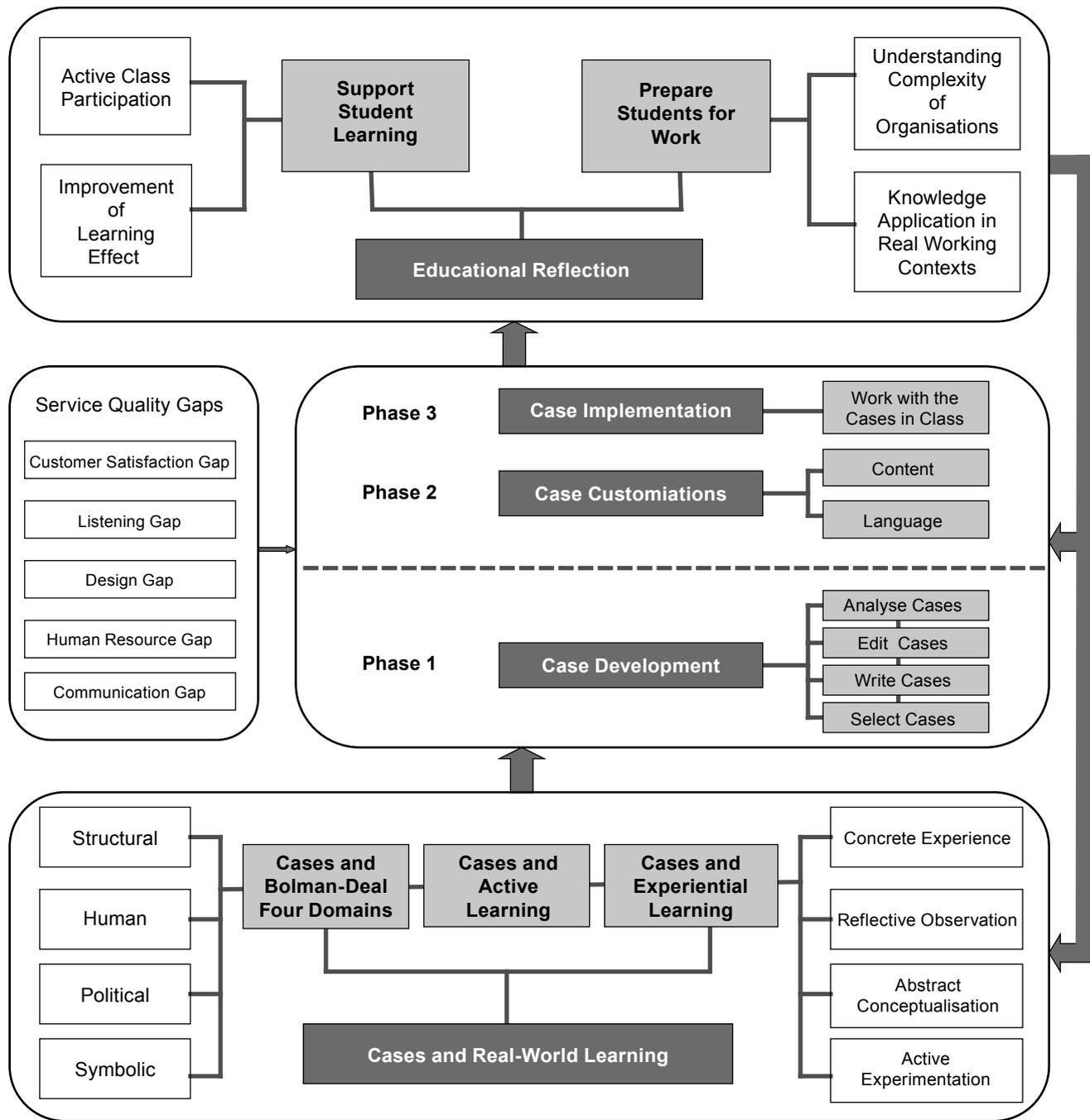


Figure 1: Conceptual model of preparing a casebook on service organisations

co-produced by a Chinese writer and a German writer on a non-Chinese organisation. The language used to write the cases was English.

After drawing up the case outlines, the case writers first sent them to each other for peer feedback on the storyline, incorporation of service-related theory and the writing perspective. The next step was collecting data for the cases. The main approaches for collecting data among the case writers were through using the assignments and additional public sources (e.g. company's website, published articles, etc.). The original authors of the assignments were

interviewed for additional information. In some cases there was email contact with the company. On one occasion the team visited the organisation and interviewed the owner.

After finishing the first version of the cases together with the teachers' notes, the cases were sent to all case writers together with the team supervisors' feedback on case content, writing style, case length, tense and grammar, and teaching notes. During regular team meetings, this feedback was discussed within the team and the case writers would then improve, refine or rewrite part of the cases based on the discussion and feedback. Then the second or third version of

the cases was produced. This version would be assigned to a group of external reviewers who were asked to work on the cases. Their task was giving feedback and comment on case content, concept, structure, and grammar. They were also asked to work on the teachers' notes in terms of answering case questions, finding the theories behind the cases by using Zeithaml et al. (2009) or other additional literature, and commenting on the learning objectives. In return, this group of reviewers would get corresponding study points and/or recognition based on their working hours and results. This group of reviewers consisted of 13 Chinese and non-Chinese students of Stenden University. Eleven were third-year BA students in International Hotel Management or Leisure and Tourism Management; and two were Master's students in the International Service Management programme. The data for this research started with these 10 second-version cases accompanied by the feedback from this group of reviewers. For a complete overview of the case studies, see Appendix 2. From here on we will refer to these case studies as Stenden cases.

Analysis of the cases

Case analysis is the last step of the case development phase in the conceptual model in Figure 1. It consists of two tasks: one is examining the four domains represented in each case; the other is evaluating each case based on a refined and adapted checklist. For the first task, the researchers replicated the coding guideline from Liang and Wang (2004) and Liang and Lin (2008) by using their list of keywords (see Appendix 1 for the full list). The researchers first independently coded every unit (i.e. paragraph) in each single case based on the domains that were represented there. If more than one domain was displayed in a paragraph, multiple domains would be coded accordingly. The researchers adopted an intra-single rating approach by coding all of the units in each case. During the coding process, the researchers left at least one week's period to forget the previous coding results and recoded every unit in each case again. The purpose of this approach was to diminish self-bias and to make a self-check. All of the cases were coded at least twice, and some of them were coded three or even four times. If there was no difference between the previous coding and recoding results, they were kept. If a discrepancy occurred, the researcher then read the text repeatedly while carefully deliberating the meaning of the key words of the organisational domain that were represented in the contents. After that, changes, such as adding a new domain into the content or replacing a domain were made. After coding and re-coding each paragraph in each case, the coding results of each case was presented. Then, at a later stage, the results of the two researchers were compared and mediated.

For the second task, the researchers read all cases in their entirety and evaluated the narratives of each case in terms of their message, style, and details by answering 17 questions listed in a refined and adapted checklist from David (2003) and Naumes and Naumes (2012). This checking tool is to help identify trouble spots among the cases and to help improve the cases. The coding results and assessing outcomes were constantly updated based on the real-time feedback.

Results and analysis

As it is customary with action research, the findings and analysis go hand in hand and are jointly presented.

Coding results of Stenden cases

Table 2 presents the mediated coding results of each case in four domains: Structural, Human, Political and Symbolic (Str, H, P, S). The second to fifth columns are the coding results of Chinese cases; the coding results of non-Chinese cases are shown from the sixth to eleventh columns.

It is worth mentioning that all of the coding results may be renewed at any time along with the updated cases, and that each of the four domains (Str, H, P, S) may interrelate and intertwine with each other.

Comparison of Stenden cases with HBS cases and Chinese cases from Liang and Lin

Table 3 displays the average coding results of the group of Chinese cases and the group of non-Chinese cases. For comparison purposes, we added four columns after the two groups of cases, representing the overall coding results of the HBS cases and 'post-West' Chinese cases which were excerpted from Liang and Lin (2008). The last two columns give the results from Liang and Lin as they are presented in their article. They state that 'if more than one perspective was noted in a paragraph, the multiple categories present would be recorded accordingly. Since one paragraph can be coded into multiple categories, the total percentages of the four categories recorded may be greater than 100 percent' (Liang and Lin, 2008: 8). For example, the 83% for Structural in 'post-West' Chinese cases in the last column would mean that 83% of the units were coded as Structural, and possibly – or even likely – also as one of the other categories.

For the Stenden cases, we used a different approach. As we were mainly interested in the overall representation of the different domains, we calculated the overall percentage of coding results per category per case, so each column would add up to 100%. To make the two approaches to coding comparable, we applied the same calculation to the results from Liang and Lin and added them in the middle columns. For comparison we will refer to the middle columns.

As Table 3 shows, the Structural and the Human domains are the dominant perspectives in the Stenden cases. However, the Structural domain is much less represented in both Chinese and non-Chinese cases than in the HBS and 'post-West' cases. The Political domain is the least developed in both groups of cases, accounting for 8% of the contents in both Chinese and non-Chinese cases. These coding results are very different from Liang and Lin's (2008) coding results for the 'post-West' Chinese cases and Swiercz and Ross's (2003) coding of HBS cases. In their findings, the cases were overwhelmingly dominated by the Structural domain, accounting for 97% and 83% of the contents respectively. However, the Structural domain is the least covered by HBS cases (5%) and 'post-West' cases (9%). The reasons behind the difference may be the following.

First, difference in management field

The HBS cases and 'post-West' Chinese cases are MBA-related, written in the field of Business Management,

Table 2: Coding results of each case

Coding category in %	Chinese Cases				Non-Chinese Cases					
	East Dawn	Happy Valley	Lido School	Plastic Surgery Clinic	Astria	Canteen Stenden	Europe Car	HAL	Horse Stable	Zambia
Structural	36	47	40	28	34	30	28	26	18	41
Human	42	31	30	38	40	52	56	46	40	21
Political	6	8	11	8	7	4	5	2	12	15
Symbolic	16	14	19	26	19	14	11	26	30	23
Units/per case	32	59	24	25	18	77	38	31	16	39

Table 3: Average coding results of two groups of cases

Coding category in %	Chinese case group	Non-Chinese case group	HBS cases overall	post-West overall	HBS cases	'post-West' Chinese cases
Structural	38%	30%	60%	63%	97%	83%
Human	35%	43%	33%	17%	53%	22%
Political	8%	8%	2%	16%	4%	21%
Symbolic	19%	21%	6%	4%	9%	5%
Units/per case	35	37	80	44	80	44

while the Stenden cases are service-related and written in the Service Management and Marketing fields. 'The uniqueness of services keeps the customer at the center', which implies that a company's strategy making, communications plans and human resources decisions should consider their impact on customers (Zeithaml et al. 2009: 27).

Second, difference in writing framework

The writing framework of the Stenden cases, the Gap Model of Service Quality, attempts to improve quality service and services marketing by 'focusing on customer and using knowledge about customer to drive business strategy' (Zeithaml et al. 2009: 43). Therefore, the Human aspect is more prominent in the Stenden cases. For HBS and 'post-West' Chinese cases, the writing models are consistent with 'strategy-environment fit' and 'a strategic decision-making at the top' frameworks.

Third, difference in writing perspective

Liang and Lin (2008) point out that most HBS cases and 'post-West' Chinese cases were written from the perspective of senior executives but lower level managerial staff and employees were left out. In contrast, the ten Stenden cases were mainly written from employees', middle managers' or customers' points of view.

Mintzberg (1996: 63, cited in Swiercz and Ross 2003: 427) argued that this kind of case education was training strategists and focusing on science instead of cultivating good management talents in practice. He also pointed out that 'we take young people with little business experience atop institutions they know nothing about'. Currie and Tempest (2008: 42) suggested that the representation of the case needs to include 'the voices of employees, customers and the wider public'.

Consistent with the above opinions, the ten Stenden cases may show two main advantages compared to the HBS and 'post-West' Chinese cases: one is involving more voices

from employees, customers and middle managers; the other is showing the voices from students' own experiences in organisations. These two advantages may help the readers see various places throughout the organisation instead of merely looking for 'silver bullets' at the top position (Liang and Wang 2004: 406). And in the real life, most of the students (Chinese and non-Chinese) who follow management education in Master's or Bachelor's programmes will not be working in top positions in companies for some time. Theoretically, we may say that these Stenden cases reflect the level of management that students will work at in the near future.

In addition, this group of scholars also points out that contemporary teaching cases promote hard skills (structural, analytic and antiseptic) rather than soft ones (human, political and symbolic). They suggest that the teaching cases should reflect the political and emotional reality of the organisations that is experienced by employees and managers in order to widen the range of learning opportunities. From the coding results we can see that the Stenden cases include more human and symbolic elements in the content but the political domain is still the least covered among the four domains. There could be several reasons for this.

Different perspectives on creating the cases

The cases, such as Happy Valley, Plastic Surgery Clinic and Stenden Canteen were mainly written from a customer point of view. Their political domain was also less developed than the cases that were mainly written from employees' or middle managers' perspective (e.g. East Dawning, Lido School, and Zambia).

Different cultural backgrounds of the case writers

In China's 'high context' culture, staff in organisations, especially in state-owned units, tend to put attention on companies' political climate, government and company policy effect on organisational and personal interests, and public opinions. The Chinese case writers who used to work in that

cultural context may consciously give attention to describing the political reality of the organisations that they have experienced.

Different types of organisations

The political domain in the Zambia case covers 15% of the content, followed by the cases of Lido Hotel School (11%) and Horse Stable (12%). The Zambia case was written on the Department of Immigration of that country, a government agency. Government policies, social responsibilities are more developed in this case. The Lido Hotel School case was written on a public secondary vocational school. This school had two identities: a public school and the Lido hotel-owned school. Therefore, the change and development of the school depended on the country's educational policies and Lido Hotel's policies. Besides, the social responsibility of an educational organisation might be more covered than that of other organisations. The Horse Stable case is about a family firm doing international equestrian business all over the world, and local government policies towards commercial protection and international business policies are also presented in the case.

In addition, the coding results display that some of the Stenden cases are fairly unbalanced in the four domains and all of the cases have room for improvement. However, the deficiencies of the 10 cases gave not only the case writers but also the future case readers an opportunity to judge on and post problems which allowed involving more personal values and facilitating continuous learning.

Conclusions and recommendations

The first issue in this study was: How to develop series of cases that university students and beginning practitioners can identify with? Starting from student assignments has been a great asset for the development of the Stenden cases. The cases may not necessarily be better in an objective sense, but – as Derrington and Larsen (2009) also found – students find more value in these cases and can identify with the protagonists, and thus learn more from these cases.

The second issue concerns the question: How to develop cases that represent a customer oriented service perspective? The second issue is largely resolved by the quality of the analysis and reflection that the students have put into their assignments that form the basis for the cases. As the students reflect on their own roles as customers, they form a different opinion of the organisations that they present, and this reflection is easily transferred to future readers and users of the case studies.

The last issue regards the question of how to develop cases that represent different aspects of the organisation (i.e. Structural, Human, Political and Symbolic). Overall, the average coding results suggest that these Stenden cases are fairly balanced, with the Human domain as the predominant perspective, followed by the Structural domain. This is due to the inclusion of more voices from employees and middle managers in the cases. There is also considerable attention given to the Symbolic domain; the interpersonal, cultural and political realities that the student writers had experienced are clearly displayed in the cases and these realities may prepare

students who work with the cases to face and cope with these issues in their near future jobs.

The outcomes reflect to a large extent that these teaching cases highlight the voices from other stakeholders in organisations, promote more soft skills instead of hard skills, and give voice to the experiences of junior employees in organisations. And these merits are missing in most post-West Chinese cases and HBS cases.

Limitations

There are several limitations to the findings. First, bias exists in the whole research process. Second, the research findings are generalisable within the specific context of developing and customising service-related teaching cases and aim at supporting student learning in higher education and preparing them for work. The third limitation is that the results are dynamic and unfixed, because all of the cases, together with the teachers' notes, need to be improved, revised or even rewritten continually. Fourth, the action-oriented findings are limited by time constraints, and therefore the fully finished outcomes cannot be presented in this piece of research.

Recommendations

The recommendations to the stakeholders of future management case writers, case instructors and teachers, and companies are as follows:

For future management case writers

- Present multiple aspects of organisational life to develop teaching cases;
- Carefully select management theory models to develop cases and use them properly (Liang and Lin 2008);
- Present more voices from employees, middle managers and society at large. This may help in 'bridging the gap between students' knowledge, experience and their preparation for the real world' (Joshi et al. 2005: 676, cited in Currie and Tempest 2008: 43);
- Use more published materials and information, such as journals, diaries and online news to create cases;
- Integrate writing teachers' notes into the process of writing the cases, because teachers' notes can provide an outlet for case writers, diminish biases when case writers are aware of them before writing the case, and help case writers to add more information (Naumes and Naumes 2012);
- Provide a warning, such as, 'this case has been approved by XXX company for publication' to the case, to remind readers that the case is the 'official version' (Liang and Wang 2004).

For case instructors and teachers

- Select cases that can reflect multiple angles of organisational life or use additional materials such as published journals, news, personal blogs to remedy missing aspects in the description of the organisation;
- To facilitate active and experiential learning and to diminish writers' biases, teachers can have students write reports as a basis for a case study.

For companies chosen for case studies

- Take an open and welcoming attitude towards the weak sides of your organisations displayed by the case writers as an opportunity to improve and grow your business.

Suggestions for future research

This study raises certain groups of research questions. First, by analysing and evaluating the case content as well as by examining the relevant literature, the cases suggest that they are good for use in a real classroom setting. Accordingly, a series of research questions about testing the cases among the real case users are raised: 'Will these cases support the students' learning process? Will the cases facilitate students' involvement in discussion?'

Second, by developing cases for service-oriented study programmes, the Gap Model of Service Quality is chosen as the theoretical model to create cases. The question, 'Are there any other research-based service-oriented models that can be used to develop cases?' should be examined when writing a new case or updating an old case.

Third, in this study we use the Bolman–Deal framework to assess the organisational aspects that represented in teaching cases and the question, 'Are there any other investigative frameworks that can be used to explore and evaluate the content?' needs an answer (Swiercz and Ross 2003).

Fourth, as indicated by Greenhalgh (2007: 183), 'cases are not, after all, real life', they are incomplete, natural narratives. Therefore, one more research question: 'How "real" must a case be to convey real-world information?' deserves an answer.

Notes

- ¹ The authors wish to thank Nina Schulz and Matilde Tchinda Tsayem who were part of the team that originally developed the case studies.
- ² See Appendix 1 for a complete list of keywords.

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Appendix 1: Keywords of Organisational Domains (Replicated from Liang and Lin 2008: 12)

Structural	Human	Political	Symbolic
Analysis	Appreciation	Bargaining	Belief
Bureaucratic	Aspiration	Coalition	Commitment
Structure	Attitude	Conflict	Culture
Chain of control	Competency	Diversity of interests	Climate
Compensation	Creativity	Fairness	Drama
Consistent	Desire	Gray area of unstated	Ethics
Efficiency	Guanxi (social connection)	authority	Euphemisms
Facts	Emotion	Influence	Faith
Formalisation	Expectation	Inner circle	Habit
Functional work units	Experience	Jockeying	Humour
Goal specification	Face (mianzi)	Legal action/reaction	Ideals
Guide	Feelings	Negotiation	Interpretation
Logic/Logical path	Individual behaviour	Nuance	Kinship ties
Measurement	Informal groups	Party activities	Meanings
Mechanical	Interpersonal skills	Political climate	Metaphors
Model	Intuition	Policies	Moral
Order	Loyalty	Power	Myth/stories
Optimisation	Motivate	Public opinion	Norm
Precision	Personality	Rumour	Philosophy
Prediction	Personal	Social responsibility	Play
Procedure	Relationships	Trade-offs	Reputation
Regulations/Rules	Recognition	Threats	Ritual/ceremony
Routine	Skills	Government interference	Rites
Scientific decision-making process	Teams	Agency Behaviour	Gala
Sequential	Team spirit	Bribery	Value
Technologies	Training		Vision
Information			Tacit knowledge
Standards			Tradition
			Spirituality
			Capitalism
			Socialism
			Equity
			Harmony

Appendix 2: Student-centred case studies¹

East Dawning. This case was written on a newly opened Chinese fast-food chain restaurant in Beijing, China. A young man, Tony, is newly promoted as the manager of this restaurant. From Tony's point of view, the case presents the restaurant's profile (Str); service facilities and standard (Str, S); company's rules (Str); employee issues (H, S); customer complaint handling (H); personal feelings towards the company and routines (H); and conflicts between the company-defined service standard and customer-perceived service standard (H, P).

Happy Valley. The Happy Valley case deals with a famous theme park in Shanghai, China. The author took a newspaper journalist's point of view to present the case. The company's profile (Str); advantages and disadvantages of its official website design (Str, H, S); the journalist's feelings (H); detailed experiences of using amusement and service facilities (H); government interference towards protecting local culture (P); Happy Valley's social responsibility (e.g. safety) to its customers (P, S); the strategy comparison of Happy Valley and Disneyland (Str); and the competitive advantage of Happy Valley from area manager's perspective (Str, H) are well displayed in the case.

Lido Hotel School. This case presents a scenario of a once famous and successful hotel-managed secondary vocational school in Beijing that experienced 27-years of success in educating and training hotel talents. It was finally shut down by Holiday Inn Lido Beijing Hotel in 2009. The issues of the school's profile (Str, P, S); educational strategy (Str, S); China's education reform background (Str, P); student enrolment standards (Str, H, P); consultant service (H, S); student activities (H, S); school's social responsibility (P); curriculum and internship design and delivery (H, S); culture climate (S); dress code and students' behaviour management (Str, H, P, S); teacher profiles and individual educational background (H); feelings (H); performance (H); conflict (P), relationship (H, P); problems of its performance appraisal and career development programme (Str, H, S); and staffing issues (H, P) are shown in the case.

Huayi Li Qinyi Plastic Surgery Clinic. The case tells the story of a young Chinese girl, Luna, who wanted to have a double eyelids operation in order to become pretty and confident, and more importantly to get good job opportunities. It presented Luna experiencing the whole service process offered by Huayi Clinic: online and face-to-face consultation (H); the service offerings before, during and after the operation (H, S); Luna's feelings and expectations towards the operation outcome and commitment (H). Besides, China's beauty standard (S); the social background of plastic surgery and job-hunting in China (P, S) were also presented in the case. After experiencing the whole service process, Luna decided to join this organisation and to help more people become beautiful and confident. Then from an internal employee, the case displayed the clinic's operation strategy (R); target customers (H, S); social responsibility (P); culture climate (S); power and conflict between the top management

and frontline employees (H, P, S); her feelings and attitude towards the top management behaviours and concepts (H).

Astria. The Astria case introduces a successful temporary employment agency in Germany. This story started with Mareike and Martin. Mareike was one of the branch managers of Astria and Martin was a newly hired customer contact employee. Through guiding Martin to become familiar with Astria and his job responsibility, the case presented the organisation's profile (R); organisational culture (S); agency behaviours (P); employee empowerment (H, S); exclusive customer service offerings (H, S); customer contact skills (H); customer relationship management (H) and the service recovery strategy (R, H, S) behind its success.

Stenden Canteen. Stenden Canteen is the restaurant for both employees and students of Stenden University. At the same time it serves as a learning company for the International Hotel Management programme. The case first presents a simple profile of the canteen interns of its mission (Str, S); functions (Str); functional unites of food (Str); staffing and green food commitment (H, S). Then the content switches to Freerk, a first year student, who started his first day of internship at Stenden Canteen. From Freerk's point of view, the case displays his food preparation task (Str, H); a snapshot of the rush hour in the canteen that Freerk and his supervisor experience (H, S); and Freerk's detailed interaction with a customer, Perry (H).

Europcar. This case was written on the Europcar rental agency in Germany. From a young employee's view, the case displays the profile of the company in terms of its staff composition (Str); uniform (S); and daily business (Str, H, S). Europcar has adopted a well-managed car distribution strategy in Germany in order to arrange their supply and demand and to meet different expectations asked by different customers (Str, H). Then the case presents two dialogues: one is about the young employee checking in a customer at the counter. When she is unable to offer the car that customer booked, she approaches her colleague Susan for help (Str, H); in the following dialogue her colleague Susan explains to the customer the reasons behind the failed car offering (Str, H). The young employee's feelings and emotions run through the whole case (H).

Holland American Line (HAL). The HAL case introduces a couple, Mr and Mrs Stern who wish to celebrate their 25th anniversary on cruise. From the Stern couple's point of view, the case shows HAL's efficient check-in system (Str); well-trained employees (H, S); the elegant cabin (S); one-stop service offered by concierge (H, S); quick and responsive service recovery (Str, H); housekeeping service (Str, H); food and beverage service (Str, H); room service (Str, H); entertainment facilities (Str); and HAL's private island trip (Str, H, S).

Then the case introduces another protagonist, Matilda, a recent graduate from Stenden University. From Matilda's perspective, the case shows the process of her contact with HAL. It included HAL's profile (Str); Matilda's interview process (H, S); HAL's support towards Matilda's work visa application

(Str, H, S); new employee orientation and training (Str, H); her internship onboard (Str, H); her experience of attending the captain's Toast event (H, S); and her contact with the onboard passengers (H). Her feelings and emotions (H) are interwoven in the narratives.

Harry de Vries Horse Stable. The Harry de Vries jumping stable is managed by its owner, Harry de Vries, and his girlfriend. This family business focuses mainly on the training and schooling of young show-jumping horses with high potential, and preparing them for jumping events. This case was written through Charley's eyes, an undergraduate in university. Due to his module assignment, he wanted to find a suitable company to help them polish their website. By accident, Harry de Vries horse stable catches Charley's eye. He then calls Harry and receives a welcome invitation to visit this company. Through the dialogue between Harry and Charley, the case displays the growth of Harry's business (Str, H, S); their reputation towards their horses excellent jumping ability via training (S); the profiles of their international customers (H); the customer expectations (S); the government policies towards trading protections (P); service guarantee and recovery (H, P, S); and trade between Harry and his customers (H, P).

Zambia Department of Immigration. The Department of immigration of Zambia plays an important role in the economy of the country. Facing the problem of corruption, the immigration office has taken a series of actions to regain customer trust and to reduce corruption. The case first presents a picture of Zambia (Str, P, S) in terms of its location, name derivation, political climate, economy, residents, population, language and culture, and poverty rate. Then the case introduces the Zambia Department of Immigration as the door to come into the country and gives the structure (Str), mission statement (S), functions and affair of the Immigration Department (Str).

Note

¹ The cases were developed at Stenden University by a group of students of the MA in International Service Management, namely Jin Yi, Matilde Tchinda Tsayem, Nina Schulz, Zhang Haowei and Zheng Xuan, and the coordinator for the case book project was Klaes Eringa.

The evaluation of career-oriented dialogues in a social constructivist learning environment

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This study explored career-oriented dialogues between study career coaches (SCCs) and first-year students in a social constructivist learning environment. Four types of orientation in career-oriented dialogues were identified: action, evaluation, analysis and design. Additionally, the type of dialogue, the topics of the career-oriented dialogue, the way of guidance, and the dialogical skills of SCCs were analysed. A multi-method approach was used. A 41-item questionnaire was filled out by 27 SCCs, 8 of whom were also interviewed. In addition, 141 first-year students wrote a narrative essay. Findings suggest action and evaluation types of the career-oriented dialogues; SCCs were mainly focused on giving information and advice and rarely focused on career issues. Meaning making was hardly a part of the dialogue.

Keywords: type of dialogues, quality of study career coaching, learning communities, meaning making process

Introduction

Young people in the 21st century need intensive career guidance (Schenck et al., 2012). Career guidance supports youngsters to develop a career identity. 'Career identity is a story that helps to define who one is and how one should act in a changing career context' (Winters et al., 2009: 9). Schools have to acknowledge their responsibility in guiding students not only in academic growth (Mittendorff et al., 2011), but also to assist students in taking meaningful career decisions (Rehfuss and Del Corso, 2011). An approach to meet the challenges of the 21st century is an integrative social constructivist career development programme (Grier-Reed and Skaar, 2010). This programme 'encourages students to construct their own identities and careers through life planning skills, personal meaning making, and co-creation of knowledge' (Grier-Reed and Skaar, 2010: 42). Through personal meaning making students gain understanding about how experiences relate to their personal norms, values, interests and ambitions (Law et al., 2002).

A constructivist career development programme needs a powerful learning environment which is focussed on real-life experiences and on creating more choices (inquiry-driven) (Kuijpers et al., 2012). The dialogue between teacher and student proves to be essential in a social constructivist career development programme. 'Without a dialogue the learning potential of a real-life experiences and inquiry-based curriculum is limited' (Kuijpers and Meijers, 2011:15). A dialogue with oneself (internal) and others (external) about real-life experiences creates an atmosphere that allows meaning making (Lengelle and Meijers, 2012; Hermans and Hermans-Konopka, 2010). According to Luken (2008; 2011) and Kuijpers and Meijers (2012), a constructivist learning environment is not feasible in most educational institutes. However, Luken (2008; 2011) emphasises the importance of dialogue

and recommends that educational institutes use (career-oriented) dialogue even when the learning environment is not constructivist.

Career-oriented dialogue

According to Neville (2008), dialogue encourages students to explore their underlying assumptions and supports students to engage with assumptions different from their own. In a career-oriented dialogue, the meaning of real-life experiences, and the relation to personal development and professional identity of the student are central (Meijers and Kuijpers, 2007; Winters et al., 2009).

Without a career-oriented dialogue 'students find it difficult to reflect upon their own learning processes or to construct meaning about themselves and their future career' (Mittendorff et al., 2008: 516). Therefore, the career-oriented dialogue between teacher and student is a crucial element of integrative career guidance (Kuijpers and Meijers, 2012; Mittendorff et al., 2008).

In a social constructivist career development programme teachers need competences to take the role of a study career coach (SCC) who facilitates students in developing self-directed learning, designing their own career path and stimulating a process of meaning making (Mittendorff et al., 2011). Instead of giving information and advice to students, a SCC should encourage students to use the dialogue to reflect on their real-life experiences, to explore the work environment, to take career actions and to start building a career network. This requires a skilled SCC who needs to suspend their own assumptions, observe students, listen carefully to students and ask open questions. The SCC should encourage students to take their own meaningful actions.

SCCs tend to focus on giving information and advice instead of having a dialogue with students. The way of guidance of SCCs is mainly care and advice-oriented (Strong and Baron, 2004; Mittendorff et al. 2011), instead of dialogue-oriented. Kuijpers and Meijers (2012: 15) showed that career counsellors speak 'rarely with students but mostly to and about them'. According to Osborn and Baggerly (2004), in the dialogue, teachers spend far more time on academic issues (study progress, study problems,) and personal issues (well-being and self-concept) and hardly any on career-oriented issues (work exploration and career identity building). It is remarkable that according to results of research by Strong and Baron (2004), Osborn and Baggerly (2004), Mittendorff et al. (2011) and Kuijpers and Meijers (2012), career issues are rarely a part of the dialogue between SCCs and students.

Although career-oriented dialogue is frequently discussed in the literature, research on the dialogical process is lacking. In a meaning making process, quality of the dialogical process is essential. According to Isaacs (1993), the evolution of a dialogue passes through four different levels and stages. At the first level, a conversation takes place and no decisions are made. At the second level, suspension and discussion takes place. At the third level, inquiry, flow of meaning and dialogue start. At the fourth level, creativity is incorporated in the dialogue. To reach the highest level of dialogue, people need a certain level of knowledge about cognitive processes, a certain level of consciousness and well-developed reflective abilities. Both Kegan (1994) and Isaacs (1993) have stated that a minority is able to reach the highest level of dialogue.

Four types of career-oriented dialogues

To determine the quality of a dialogue four different types of orientation of a career-oriented dialogue are developed: action; evaluation; analysis; design. The four types are based on levels and stages of a dialogue according to Isaacs (1993), on the four kinds of knowledge according to Plato (fantasia, pistis, dianoia and noesis) described by Kessels (2000), on the five levels of consciousness developed by Kegan (1994; 2009): impulsive, instrumental, socialised, self-authoring and self-transforming mind, and finally on the six levels of reflection (environment, behaviour, competences, beliefs, identity and mission) as listed by Korthagen (2004). The four dialogue types can be used to determine the quality of a career-oriented dialogue: when moving from action to design, the higher the quality of the dialogue. If students reach the level of career design, that would imply real meaning making and making decisions based on new paradigms, knowledge and creativity. A SCC should try to achieve the design type of dialogue.

First type: Action

At the action type of dialogue there is no distinction between fantasy, ideas and actual facts (fantasia). People have difficulties making distinctions between actual facts and own feelings; 'reality is what you see' (impulsive mind). They pay selective attention and their behaviour can be directly observed by others (environment and behaviour). Participants try to uphold certainty and hardly change their minds. Career decisions are mainly taken impulsively, based on experiences in the past.

Second type: Evaluation

At the evaluation type of dialogue, people are aware of own beliefs, own convictions and own sense (pistis). Reflection takes place by asking oneself about own knowledge, skills, beliefs, norms and values (competences and beliefs). People recognise their own point of view and care about the opinions of others. Acceptance and support of others is critical. They tend, however, to defend their own assumptions (instrumental and socialised mind). Career decisions are taken after evaluation of own skills, beliefs, values and norms.

Third type: Analysis

At the analysis level, people interact with each other and are open to the ideas and paradigms of others. Scientific and logical reasoning are important in this type (dianoia). People take responsibility for their own inner selves (self-authoring mind). They investigate other views, try to suspend their own opinions and ask themselves what is meaningful for them (identity). They start a dialogue together with others and use more alternatives than they did before; however, they avoid inner conflicts. Career decisions are based on own, developed new 'knowledge, values and norms'.

Fourth type: Design

Design type interactions lead to transformation of paradigms, knowledge and behaviour (noesis). Due to exploration and integration of other paradigms, people are able to reflect and co-creation takes place (self-transforming mind). At this level, meaning making flows, wisdom is spiritual and valued by all people involved. Meaning making takes place based on one's own mission. Career decisions are built on meaning making and a consistency of own mission.

Aims of the study

The present study was undertaken to explore the career-oriented dialogue between study career coaches (SCCs) and students. This explorative research aims to determine the quality of the career-oriented dialogue in a social constructivist career learning environment.

The following research questions will be addressed:

1. What way of guidance do study career coaches use?
2. What topics are discussed in the career-oriented dialogue?
3. Which dialogical skills do study career coaches demonstrate?
4. On what level does dialogue take place?
5. To what extent does meaning making take place?

Method

Overview

This explorative study was conducted at the Stenden Hotel Management School (SHMS) in Leeuwarden, the Netherlands. SHMS offers a 4-year Bachelor's programme in International Hospitality Management, preparing students for management careers in the hospitality industry. SHMS profiles itself as an international institution in which problem-based learning (PBL) plays a central role. The PBL curriculum is founded in social constructivism. Social constructivism is based on the assumption that students mirror their own knowledge and understanding against that of others. This creates a learning environment for discussion, dialogue and contradiction. It

challenges students to engage in meaningful learning. In addition, the real world of the hospitality industry is the starting point and framework for all learning activities. The social constructivist career development programme supports students to develop competences to manage their careers and to make meaningful educational and career choices.

To encourage career-oriented dialogues *learning communities* were developed for first-year students. SCCs met the students of the learning community on a weekly basis and scheduled three individual meetings per student per year. Eight learning communities were installed. Each learning community consisted of 48 first-year students and three or four SCCs. The learning communities were a vehicle for work exploration (real-life experiences). Eight hotels in Amsterdam each 'adopted' a learning community. Students and SCCs were able to visit these hotels. Besides that, other hospitality related activities were organised mainly by students with support of SCCs. As a result, students could choose their own activities (inquiry-driven) and get real-life experiences in the hospitality industry. They were able to discuss these experiences in a career-oriented dialogue with other students and in individual meetings with their SCC. These real-life experiences gave students the opportunity to share knowledge and practical experiences and relate their experiences to their future (career) plans. The introduction of the learning communities should encourage students to reflect on meaningful career issues and opportunities and should stimulate students to take career decisions built on a consistent set of (new) knowledge, values, norms and mission.

Participants

Participants were 27 SCCs: 13 men and 14 women. They were all lecturers of SHMS with career guidance as one of their duties. All SCCs were experienced in PBL. As a consequence, most of the lecturers were experienced in stimulating dialogues between students. At the introduction of the learning communities, SCCs were asked to emphasise career issues during the career-oriented dialogues with their students and to encourage students to take career decisions and actions based on their values, norms and mission (analysis and design type of dialogue). From each learning community one SCC was approached for an interview. All eight SCCs had worked for more than ten years at SHMS and were SCCs before. However, they had no experiences with learning communities. In addition, all first-year students were approached to write an essay about their own experiences with the real-life activities in the learning communities. In this research, 141 first-year students of SHMS participated.

Instruments and procedure

In this explorative study, data were collected with the use of a questionnaire, a narrative essay and a narrative interview. In a narrative essay or interview, respondents vocalise or write about why they thought, felt, or acted in the way they did, and reflect on the meaning of their thoughts and actions (Del Corso and Rehfuß, 2011). The narrative essay gave insight in the perspectives of students; the interview and questionnaire gave insight in the perspective of SCCs.

Narrative essay

Students were asked to write an evaluative narrative essay about their experiences with the learning communities. In this narrative essay, students wrote about their own personal feelings with regard to the real-life experiences or activities organised by the learning communities. The question was: *Did you discuss real-life experiences (hospitality related activities) during the dialogue with your SCC and did you relate these activities to your future career plans?*

Narrative interview

Eight SCCs, one from each learning community, were interviewed. Participation was voluntary. Interviews were audio-taped and transcribed. Career counsellors were invited to correct or add information to the transcriptions. Topics of these narrative interviews were: knowledge of a career-oriented dialogue, way of guidance, content (issues) of the dialogue and type of dialogue.

Questionnaire

The questionnaire focused on the perception of the SCCs on the career-oriented dialogue. A 41-item self-evaluation questionnaire was administered; 37 statements were formulated to which SCCs could express their agreement on a 4-point Likert scale (1 = strongly disagree, 2 = slightly disagree, 3 = slightly agree, 4 = strongly agree); 4 statements were on a 10-point scale.

The questions were divided into three sections.

The first section was based on the questionnaire of Kuijpers and Meijers (2009) and consists of 18 statements related to the content of the career-oriented dialogue:

- Academic issues; related to study progress and study problems (4 statements),
- Self-management issues; related to well-being and self-concept (9 statements)
- Based on the narrative interviews, four new issues related to self-management were added.
- Career issues; related to work exploration and career building (5 statements)

Furthermore, respondents were asked to mention the 5 most important issues discussed in the dialogue. These issues were scored from most important to least important. The second section consisted of seven statements allowing SCCs to express, on a 4-point Likert scale, their perception about their own dialogical skills.

In section three, statements were formulated in two categories. The first category included 12 statements rated on a 4-point Likert scale, three statements per type of dialogue. The second category included statements on a 10-point scale. SCCs rated the importance of each type of dialogue.

Results of the questionnaire and the eight interviews were presented to the SCCs. In this meeting, SCCs were able to give feedback on these results. The feedback is included in the conclusion and discussion part of this study.

Data analysis

To answer the research questions, the following analyses were carried out. Narrative essays were written by 141 students, 47% of all first-year SHMS students. The narrative essays and the interviews were analysed by using a coding scheme. The

codes were related to the activities of the learning communities and relevant concepts from the literature review. The coding themes that were marked in the narrative essays were: hospitality related activities, content of the dialogue, impact of experiences on career decisions, and future ambitions. The coding themes of the narrative essay were classified quantitatively.

Coding themes that were marked in the narrative interviews were: description of the dialogue, way of guidance (advice-oriented or career-oriented) and the four types of dialogue. The coding themes of the interviews were described qualitatively.

The questionnaire was administered to 32 SCCs, 84% of whom filled in the questionnaire. The mean score and the standard deviation were used to determine the most frequently discussed subjects, the most important subjects according to the career counsellor and the dialogue type used. Finally, a comparison was made between the quantitative and the qualitative data.

Results

Way of guidance of the SCCs

The analysis of the interviews has shown that SCCs gave a lot of advice to students with respect to study results and rules and regulations of the educational institute. In addition, SCCs prefer to 'care for' their students. This was expressed in words like 'trouble shooter' and acting like a 'Florence Nightingale'. This refers to a help-oriented or care-oriented way of guidance.

SCCs used statements like:

'If the study results are disappointing I give more advice to the student'.

'The first question I ask is if the student feels happy at school'.

Content of the career-oriented dialogue

According to the SCCs the main subject of the dialogue is the study progress of the student, which means that academic-oriented issues are the most important subjects of the career-oriented dialogue. The mean scores are: academic-oriented issues 3.61 (SD 0.45), self-management issues 2.95 (SD 0.70) and career-oriented issues 2.84 (SD 0.78). When asked what the 5 most important issues should be during the career-oriented dialogue, study results was most often reported by SCCs (16 x), followed by making own choices (14 x), passion of the student (12 x), talents of the student (12 x) and study problems (7 x). Study results and study problems are part of the academic-oriented issues, passion and talents of students are part of the self-management issues and making own choices is part of the career-oriented issues. In the narrative interviews, six of eight SCCs mentioned that the introduction of the learning communities had not changed the content of the dialogue. Neither had the SCCs changed their type of questions after introduction of the learning communities. Students reported that activities of the learning communities were not discussed during the dialogue with their SCC. Results show that 87% of the students did not discuss hospitality related activities during the dialogue. Two illustrative examples of statements by students were:

'I didn't talk about the activities because we had other things to discuss'.

'We did not talk about the activities because they did not interest me'.

On the other hand, 71% of the students related the organised activities to their (future) career. Two illustrative examples of statements:

'Those visits make you think about your own future and what you want in life'.

'These activities don't relate to my future career because I don't see myself working in a hotel'.

Results from the narrative essay and questionnaire demonstrate that the issues of the career-oriented dialogue are mostly academic and self-management issues. These results indicate that the introduction of learning communities did not stimulate career-oriented issues during dialogue.

Dialogical knowledge and skills

In the interviews, SCCs used the following keywords for the description of the dialogue: talking together, interaction between student and counsellor, equal relationship, two-sided, no prejudice and listening to each other. These keywords were related to the conditions of a dialogue. This indicates that career counsellors have knowledge about the conditions of a dialogue. Two coaches mentioned: 'a dialogue is searching for deeper motives of students'. In Table 1, the mean scores of the perception of career counsellors of their own dialogical skills are shown.

The mean scores vary from 3.41 to 2.96. These results indicate that SCCs' perception of their own dialogical skills is positive.

Type of dialogue

To identify the type of the career-oriented dialogue, results of interviews and questionnaires were compared. In Table 2 the results of the interviews related to the dialogical types are presented.

In the interviews, most SCCs reported using action and evaluation type of career-oriented dialogue. They hardly used the analysis type and did not use the design type. This is in contrast with the results of the questionnaire. The mean scores of the use of the four dialogical types are shown in Table 3.

Looking at the table, the main type applied is the action type of dialogue.

SCCs were asked to rate the types of dialogue on a 10-point scale. The mean scores were 7.78 (SD 1.13) for the design type, 7.41 (SD 1.08) for evaluation, 7.59 (SD 1.28) for analysis and 7.26 (SD 1.22) for the action type. Though SCCs

Table 1: Self-rating of dialogical skills by study career coaches

Variable	<i>n</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
I encourage students to take action	27	3.41	0.747
I ask mainly open questions	27	3.19	0.622
I recognise non-verbal signals and check my interpretation	27	3.19	0.681
I encourage students to reflect on experiences	27	3.15	0.770
I search for the message behind the message	27	3.11	0.847
I do not judge	27	3.09	0.848
I summarise frequently	27	2.96	0.808

Table 2: Application of four dialogical types in career-oriented dialogues

Type	Description	Result interviews	Presence in career-oriented dialogue
Action	Discuss issues from own point of view and own reality.	Career counsellors asked questions like; What did you learn; What are your results so far; Which actions did you take?	All career counsellors asked questions related to own actions. Action type was present.
Evaluation	Identify meaningful experiences and discuss consequences for own future ambitions.	Career counsellors asked questions like: Which experiences are valuable for you? What are your future ambitions? What are your goals for next period? What do you want to reach?	Career counsellors asked questions related to meaningful experiences and future ambitions. Evaluation type was present
Analysis	Inquire other views, suspend own views and consider other alternatives.	One career counsellor asked students to describe their own roles in different situations.	One career counsellor asked questions related to other views and other alternatives. Analysis type was hardly present
Design	Co-creation of different points of view. This leads to the 'flow' of meaning making.	None of the career counsellors asked students to create new paradigms, ideas or alternatives.	Design type was not present.

gave the design type the highest rating, actual use showed the lowest figure for that type of dialogue.

Discussion

The aim of this study was to explore the career-oriented dialogue in a social constructivist learning environment. The introduction of learning communities was expected to have stimulated a career-oriented dialogue. Combined results of this study indicate that despite of the introduction of learning communities, the quality of the career-oriented dialogue between SCCs and first-year hotel school students is generally low.

According to narrative interviews with SCCs, the introduction of learning communities had not changed their way of guidance. Results from interviews showed that SCCs like to care for the students. SCCs gave information and advice especially with regard to study progress, rules and regulations. From this perspective, the ways of guidance of SCCs were mostly 'care and advice' oriented. In a social constructivist career learning environment, SCCs need to support students to gather information and transform this information into meaningful knowledge instead of transferring information and advice (Kuijpers and Meijers, 2011).

Results from interviews and questionnaires showed that the main topics of dialogue were study progress (academic issues) and well-being (self-management issues) of the student. Results indicate that career-oriented issues like work exploration and career building (career issues) were part of the dialogue, but not as often as academic and self-management issues. These findings are consistent with the results of Osborne and Baggerly (2004), Mittendorff et al. (2011) and Kuijpers and Meijers (2012). They found that teachers spend

far more time in the dialogue on academic and personal matters than on career-oriented matters. Besides, SCCs gave academic issues (study progress and study problems) the highest priority. Additionally they mentioned self-management issues like talents and passion and 'making own choices'.

It is remarkable that the introduction of learning communities hardly changed the content of the dialogue. According to students, hospitality-related activities were hardly ever discussed in the dialogue with their SCC. SCCs stated that the dialogues did not change after introduction of learning communities. During the evaluation meeting, SCCs brought up that six of the eight learning communities were active in organising activities. So, it could be that students and SCCs of two learning communities did not discuss activities due to lack of activities.

Most of the students claimed that they related the activities of learning communities to their future ambitions, apparently without support of their SCC. This is in line with results of Kuijpers and Meijers (2009: 14) who reported that students discuss their future career plans mostly with other students and 'conversations with teachers are much less frequent'. This is also applicable for the SHMS students; first-year students have a maximum of three individual dialogues with their SCCs. This could influence the content of the dialogue.

This study confirms that SCCs have knowledge about the necessary conditions for a dialogue. In addition, SCCs' perceptions about own dialogical skills are positive. Despite their knowledge of the necessary conditions of the dialogue and the perception of their dialogical skills, the results of the interviews suggest that SCCs have difficulties applying the analysis and design type of dialogue.

The analysis and design types are important types of the dialogue. According to Grier-Reed and Skaar (2010) and Kuijpers and Meijers (2011), the essential parts of the career-oriented dialogue are: meaningful knowledge, personal meaning making and co-creation of knowledge. Two of eight career coaches emphasised the purpose of the dialogue. These two career coaches mentioned 'deeper motives' as a topic of dialogue. 'Deeper motives' could be related to involvement of students' paradigms, underlying patterns, values, norms and ideas', which refer to the design type of dialogue. Nevertheless, none of the SCCs mentioned

Table 3: Presence of four dialogical types in career-oriented dialogues

Type	<i>n</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>α</i>
Action	27	3.36	0.60	0.58
Evaluation	27	2.72	0.71	0.67
Analysis	27	2.55	0.71	0.59
Design	27	2.35	0.81	0.67

keywords like construction of own meaning making, suspend own paradigms or creating new knowledge.

The low frequency of occurrence of the analysis and design types of dialogue demonstrates that meaning making rarely takes place. Nevertheless, SCCs gave the highest rating to the design type of dialogue, which indicates that they were aware of the importance of this type. Despite this awareness most of the dialogues were action and evaluation oriented, as concluded from the interviews. Although the questionnaire indicates that half of the SCCs apply the analysis and design dialogue, in the interviews none of the career counsellors expressed words related to meaning making, creating new knowledge and discussing paradigms.

It is interesting that the predominance of the action and evaluation types is consistent with the findings related to issues addressed in the career-oriented dialogue and the way of guidance adopted by the SCCs. Action type dialogue focuses on actual behaviour. The subjects of the career-oriented dialogue are mostly achieved study results and study problems (actual problems and behaviour) and SCCs tended to give information and advice regarding study results and study behaviour. Although SCCs plan to conduct career-oriented dialogues, they do not reach the analysis and design type of dialogue. This is in line with the findings of Kegan (1994). Kegan claimed that most students and adults do not reach the so-called consciousness stage of self-authoring and self-transforming. As the analysis and design dialogue assume these higher consciousness levels, it is not surprising that these types were not widely used.

When discussing the results of this study, SCCs reported that they provide care and advice-oriented guidance, and include academic and personal issues, particularly to first-year students. They emphasised that the career-oriented dialogue, including career-oriented issues, seems more applicable in the second, third and fourth years. However, when the aim of career guidance is to help students to develop a career identity it is essential that students make connections between relevant real-life experiences and personal and professional development from the first year on. Career issues should definitely stay on the agenda in the first academic year (Mittendorff et al., 2011; Winters et al., 2012).

Findings related to way of guidance, topics and type of the dialogue suggest that introduction of learning communities did not stimulate career-oriented dialogues between first-year students and SCCs. Results from interviews showed that exploration of other views, paradigms and co-creation, related to the higher types of dialogue, does not take place. Results indicate that SCCs struggle with the transition towards a social constructivist SCC (Mittendorf et al., 2012).

Limitations and recommendations

Findings of this study should be interpreted in the light of some limitations. First of all, the limited sample size and the participation of only first-year students, make it difficult to generalise the findings. Another limitation is that this study only focused on the dialogue between SCC and student, although meaning making could also take place in other parts of the curriculum. In addition, the dialogues were not actually observed; the results are mostly based on the perceptions of the SCCs and students. Additionally, some of the learning

communities did not organise activities during the period that this study was conducted, and only three dialogues per student had been organised.

It is recommended to investigate and observe the career-oriented dialogue with second, third and fourth year students. As the SCCs suggested, it is valuable to know if these dialogues differ from the first-years' dialogues. In addition, differences between the way the four types of dialogue are prioritised and how they are used in practice should be investigated and discussed. Despite the nature of PBL and its relationship to dialogical experiences, SCCs (and students) must be trained in dialogical knowledge and skills.

Findings of this study do not warrant the conclusion that meaning making does not take place during the SHMS educational programme. Part of the dialogue might actually take place in the PBL tutorials. During PBL, students make sense of theory and practice and are stimulated to link the learning experiences to their own career ambitions (De Boer and Otting, 2009). The meaning making process during PBL also depends on the dialogical competences of the tutor and students. According to Kuijpers and Meijers (2011), it often happens that even in real-life based and inquiry driven education, dialogical guidance does not take place. This said, further research is indicated to investigate the quality of the dialogue in PBL tutorials.

Conclusion

The aim of an integrative constructivist career learning environment is to 'encourage students to construct their own identities and careers through life planning skills, personal meaning making, and co-creation of knowledge' (Grier-Reed and Skaar, 2010: 42) and support all students 'as they meet today's economic challenges' (Schenk et al., 2012). The career-oriented dialogue should be an essential part of career development programme, PBL and a part of individual meetings between SCCs and students. SCCs need to encourage students to make sense of their own learning experiences; as a result students learn to make career decisions based on their own passion, underlying patterns and new career constructs. This makes the students constantly aware of their own meaning making process.

To improve the social constructivist career learning environment all team members need to be involved in construction of the career development of students. To involve all team members it is recommended to start with a dialogue in the team: 'such dialogues begin with a certain notion that it is important to provide student-centered education instead of focusing on traditional knowledge acquisition' (Mittendorff et al., 2011: 522). Regarding the career-oriented dialogue all team members need to be trained in dialogical competences. With this approach career development becomes an integrative part of the social constructivist curriculum.

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Encouraging normative smoking behaviour

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Why do people smoke in non-smoking areas? What interventions could be used to make a change in observed smoking behaviour? This research builds on Lindenberg and Steg's goal-framing theory to identify the motivations of norm-breaching behaviour and to suggest intervention to change this behaviour. Through an investigation of physical conditions, smoking regulations, and smokers' knowledge and attitudes, it was concluded that hedonic and gain goal-frames are dominant in smokers' decisions about where to smoke. Because these two goals result in norm violation, interventions were carried out to strengthen the normative goal-frame. The following interventions were implemented to induce the change: clearing negative cues of norm violation, strengthening prohibitions signs and improving physical conditions in designated smoking areas. The results showed a significant strengthening of normative behaviour, and based on these results, recommendations are made to the authorities and for future research.

Keywords: Smoking behaviour, norm breaching, goal-framing theory, interventions

Introduction

Public smoking restrictions and the moralisation campaign against smoking are direct results of the proven health risk associated with smoking. The case for restricting smoking in public places is generally made on the basis that such policies protect non-smokers from exposure to second-hand smoke (US Department of Health and Human Services, 2006). According to the Organization for Economic Corporation and Development (OECD, 2011), the Netherlands has an average smoking rate of 22.3% among adults. This percentage is relatively high compared to other western countries such as the United States, Canada, Sweden and Australia, where it is below 17%. Weyers (2009) captures the history of smoking bans in the Netherlands – a mix of self-regulations and regulations by the government. At the social level these policies and regulations can be considered as norms that regulate smoking behaviour. Norms are generally supported by permission or prohibition signs. Smoking prohibition signs are used to state the smoking rules applicable in public places. These signs are supposed to improve norm-conforming smoking behaviour in public places (Keizer et al., 2011). This notwithstanding, smoking in no-smoking areas is a commonly observed behaviour. This is the case also at Stenden University of Applied Sciences (Leeuwarden, The Netherlands) where people breach the no-smoking norm daily by smoking outside the entrance of the main building. From this follows the aim of this study: to encourage and guide a norm-conforming smoking behaviour at Stenden by understanding the motives of norm-breaching behaviour and designing appropriate interventions to reinforce the norm.

Literature review

The literature review summarises studies on smoking behaviour and discusses the relevance of the goal-framing theory in understanding norm-breaching behaviour and in developing interventions to strengthen norms.

Smoking

Smoking is the inhalation of the smoke of burning tobacco encased in cigarettes, pipes, and cigars. Smoking behaviour is related to how smokers view themselves or in other words to their identity (Ridner et al., 2010). Ridner et al. (2010) established three categories of smokers: occasional smokers, social smokers and daily or regular smokers. Occasional smokers are those who smoke at least once per month and social smokers are those who smoke when others are present. These two groups tend not to consider themselves as smokers; they consider smokers only those who smoke daily, the third category individuated by Ridner et al. (2010). A smoking identity has been linked to the reasons that stimulate smoking. Darlow and Lobe (2012) found that people smoke for different reasons. Some of the reasons presented were: enjoyment of smoking, out of boredom, for social purposes or acceptance, and addiction. Acceptance plays a role in the social smokers' motivation, while daily smokers often refer to addiction. As a matter of fact, smoking regulations and policies apply without consideration of the substance smoked (cigarettes or soft drugs), smoking identity or the reasons for smoking.

Anti-smoking measures and smoking restrictions are public expressions of disapproval of smoking and a desire to protect vulnerable populations and non-smokers from exposure to smoke. Breathing other people's cigarette smoke is known as passive, involuntary or second-hand smoking. It can also be called 'environmental tobacco smoke'. Smokers and non-smokers alike inhale second-hand smoke. Inhaling tobacco smoke is an unavoidable consequence of being in a smoke-filled environment. Greater awareness of the health risks of smoking and increasing concern about the effects of passive smoking have fuelled support for smoking restrictions in public places (Louka et al. 2006). Within this context, health is seen not only as the responsibility of the individual but also as something over which control should be exercised (Brandt, 1997). Individuals are thus placed under a duty to be healthy that is violated by smoking (Blaxter, 1997).

There is abundant literature proving the health damages of active and passive smoke. The Ash Fact Sheets declared that 'Smoking harms nearly every organ of the body and dramatically reduces both quality of life and life expectancy' (Smoking statistics: Illness and death. n.d.: 1). The US Surgeon General Report moreover concluded that 'there is no risk-free level of exposure to tobacco smoke, and there is no safe tobacco product' (US Department of Health and Human Services, 2010: 18). The same report produced already in 2004 a list of diseases and other adverse health effects for which smoking was identified as a cause. Those were mainly: different types of cancer (such as pancreatic, stomach, lung), cardiovascular diseases, respiratory diseases, and fertility issues. In regard to the health consequences of involuntary exposure to tobacco smoke, it was established that second-hand smokers are basically exposed to the same diseases faced by smokers. Looking at the Netherlands, it has been proven that 13% of deaths between 1950 and 1999 were caused by smoking and that this number is increasing (Bonneux et al., 2003). It was forecast that between 2000 and 2015 smoking will be the cause of 14% of deaths. The need to take drastic measures to ensure the safety of non-smokers is thus well established.

To comply with the Tobacco Act and other legal prescriptions issued by the Dutch government, Stenden has designated smoking and smoke-free areas within its premises. Smoke-free policies not only comply with the regulations but have also been shown to discourage smoking, reduce cigarette consumption, increase people's desire to quit, and increase their likelihood of cessation (Bauer et al., 2005). However, it has been noticed at Stenden that people avoid the smoking facilities and smoke at the smoke-free areas, such as in front of the main entrance. This behaviour was identified as a smoking norm breaching. The attempt to understand and explain this conduct is based on goal-framing theory.

Goal-framing theory

Research in the field of social psychology converged on the idea that social norms can play an important role in orienting people's behavioural decisions in everyday life (Cialdini and Goldstein, 2004; Schultz et al., 2007). In the context of this study, the norms referred to are smoking norms and the group is the population of Stenden: smokers and non-smokers. A smoker can decide to comply or not with the organisation's expectations regarding smoking behaviour.

Hence, compliance can be understood as a behaviour that fits with behavioural expectations, and norm-breaching behaviour as behaviour that does not fit with the same expectations. In this context it should be observed that regulatory policies do more than clarify expectations to regulatees: they also influence the way they assess and choose between alternatives (Etienne, 2010). Following this line of reasoning, one could turn to goal-framing theory to understand the motivations behind respect for or violation of the norm at Stenden.

The central idea of goal-framing theory is that goals govern or 'frame' what people attend to, what knowledge and attitudes become cognitively most accessible, how people evaluate various aspects of the situation, and what alternatives are being considered (Lindenberg and Steg, 2007). Three goal-frames are distinguished: a hedonic, gain, and normative goal-frame. People in a hedonic goal-frame are especially sensitive to what increases or decreases their pleasure and affects their mood in the present moment. In a gain goal-frame people are sensitive to what increases or decreases their personal resources, such as time or money, now and in the near future. It needs to be noted that norms can also play an important role in a gain goal-frame to the degree that the individual is focused on positive or negative sanctions attached to the norm. A normative goal-frame is norm orientated, is concerned with what is appropriate to do and appears to be the weakest 'frame'. To become salient, a normative goal needs some external support, such as smoking prohibition signs in the case of smoking (Lindenberg and Steg, 2007).

Smoking at the main entrance instead of smoking in the smoking shed is a breach of the smoking norms at Stenden. Signs prohibiting smoking are used to enhance norm-conforming behaviour regarding smoking in public (Winter et al., 2000). Those signs are there to clearly state which rule applies in that specific situation, and, therefore, make more salient the normative smoking behaviour. At Stenden as well, smoking norms are supported by the presence of smoking signs in the smoking areas on the one hand and the presence of prohibition signs on restricted areas on the other hand. Those signs, as previously mentioned, are meant to strengthen normative behaviour and prevent misbehaviour.

The relative strength of a normative goal, however, is influenced not only by these signs but also by cues revealing people's respect for or disrespect of the norm (Keizer et al., 2008). The point here is that norm compliance or breaching behaviour can be inferred from the observable impact that people have made (or not) on the environment (Cialdini et al., 1990). Applied to the case at hand, from observing a large quantity of cigarette butts in the non-smoking area, a person might infer that people do smoke in the smoking restricted area even though this behaviour has not been directly observed. Moreover, the presence of cues signalling that a norm has been broken in presence of a sign reinforcing that norm creates an ambiguous situation. Cialdini et al. (1990; 1991) and Cialdini (2007) suggest that people tend to copy the behaviour of others when it is ambiguous as to how one should act. Thus more people will tend to smoke in a smoke-free area if cues (cigarette butts, for example) are present indicating that the norm is disregarded. This will reinforce the

negative non-support cues, and further weaken the normative goal-frame, instituting a self-reinforcing cycle.

This is the case at Stenden, where cigarette butts and empty packages can be found all over the no-smoking area, including near or on top of tiles with the no-smoking logo (a barred cigarette in a white circle; see Figure 1).

Finally, Keizer et al. (2011) showed that making a norm more salient by means of prohibition signs in a setting with cues signalling that other people do not conform to this norm will increase the number of other people violating that norm. Moreover, as the mechanism behind this effect runs through the weakening of the goal to act appropriately, the reverse effect will also increase violations of other norms in that setting (Keizer et al., 2008). The desire to promote normative smoking behaviour by carrying out effective and efficient interventions at Stenden was indeed also justified by the need to strengthen the normative behaviour and thus counteract and avoid the spreading of norm-breaching behaviour.

Interventions

Norm-breaching behaviour can be addressed by dedicated interventions. The desired behaviour could be inhibited by contextual factors such as physical conditions and facilities or it could be strongly related to attitudes. This study intends to design interventions strategies targeted to both these factors.

Interventions aimed to promote attitude change make use of antecedent strategies. 'Antecedent strategies are aimed at changing factors that precede behaviour. They may raise problem awareness, inform about choice options, and announce the likelihood of positive or negative consequences. Consequence strategies are aimed at changing the consequences following behaviour' (Steg and Vlek, 2009: 5).

Antecedent strategies can be approached as informational strategies or structural strategies. Steg and Vlek (2009: 5) defined informational strategies as 'being aimed at changing perceptions, motivations, knowledge, and norms, without actually changing the external context in which choices are made'. Informational strategies are more effective when connected with structural strategies aimed at the physical environment (Keizer, 2011).



Figure 1: Cues indicating norm-breaching behaviour at Stenden Leeuwarden campus

The promotion of a normative smoking behaviour at Stenden is supported by the presence of smoking prohibition signs on the campus; this is thus an informational strategy tool. However, as has been discussed above, negative non-support cues like the presence of cigarette butts around the signs have a negative impact on conforming to the norm and signal to other people that disrespect of the norm is tolerated (Keizer et al., 2011). The Stenden case unfortunately fits this description, as has been shown above (Figure 1). Moreover, the smoking shed – a few steps away from the non-smoking area – has no seats; while the non-smoking area does. Following Keizer et al. (2011) and Steg and Vlek (2009) it could be argued that these physical conditions may influence norm-breaching behaviour. Therefore, as will be illustrated below in the section 'Experiment', the interventions proposed in this study combined the two types of strategies: informative and structural.

Research methods

The aim of this study is to propose and execute appropriate interventions in order to support normative smoking behaviour at Stenden (Leeuwarden, The Netherlands). Following the chosen theoretical perspective, goal-framing, in order to reach this aim it is necessary to probe into knowledge, attitudes and motives towards smoking of the population, and understand the main goal-frame from which they act. A mixed research methodology was used to achieve this objective, consisting of two focus groups and a quasi-field experiment.

Focus group

To probe into knowledge, attitudes and motives of smokers at Stenden, to understand how they feel about smoking conditions at Stenden and what they think about smoking in restricted areas, two focus group sessions were conducted followed by a questionnaire. The focus group followed the structured questioning route. The sessions allowed for probing responses and views in detail and, importantly, gave interviewees the opportunity to raise points which would not emerge otherwise. A video and audio recorder was used to record the interviews with the full permission of the participants. Fortunately, this did not appear to distract or concern the participants. The focus groups lasted between forty-five minutes and one hour. They were conducted in a comfortable environment and snacks and beverages were served before and after the sessions. Participants were asked at the end of the sessions to fill in a questionnaire. This provided an opportunity to gather final thoughts from the participants. The questionnaire was based on the literature review and the questioning route of the focus group discussions. The questionnaire covered three types of data or scales: nominal, ordinal and interval. Rather than being seen as a different tool than the focus group, the questionnaire was a complement to it. It offered the opportunity to collect thoughts from all participants.

A total of 18 questionnaires, seven from group one and 11 from group two were collected. Out of the seven participants of group one, 57% were female and 43% male. Group two had 55% female participation and 45% male, with both groups having an average age of 23 years old, the

youngest being 18 and the oldest 29 years old. Participants were students from first, second, third, and fourth years of Bachelors' programmes, and also Masters' students, which explain the age range of the sample. Different Stenden schools were also represented, from International Hospitality Management to Small Business and Retail Management. All the participants were daily smokers with 75% of participants smoking on average 6–10 cigarettes a day at Stenden from the first group, and 27% smoking on average 11–20 cigarettes a day from the second group. Reasons for smoking varied and participants seemed to relate to more than one reason. Those reasons included boredom, enjoyment of smoking, social reasons, relaxation or addiction. This is in line with Darlow and Lobe's (2012) findings. The majority smokes alone or with friends and all participants have smoked in restricted areas.

Experiment

Analysis of the qualitative data shed light on the motivations behind the violation of the smoking norms. It also pointed out treatments and interventions to promote and encourage normative behaviour. On the basis of this understanding, three interventions were designed and carried out to reduce norm-breaching behaviour. Quasi-experiments were carried out over a period of three weeks in which there was one experiment week and two control weeks. The experiments took place in the real natural setting and not in a laboratory and participants were not randomly assigned to different conditions. The quasi-experiments, though, were run as far as possible under the same conditions. The same location (main entrance and/or smoking shed at Stenden campus in Leeuwarden) was used and data were collected at the same time every day to ensure that the results could be compared. The experiments took place under similar weather conditions (sunny days or partly cloudy) and were carried out from Monday to Thursday as on Fridays fewer people tend to be at the university. The experiment week was during the Study Start Week (the school year introductory week) at Stenden from 27 to 30 August 2012. Three main reasons motivated the choice of this period. First, Stenden needs to impart a norm-conforming behaviour to new students from the start, second, the desire to influence old students' behaviour as well and finally convenience (it fitted into the researcher's schedule).

The goal-framing theory formed the theoretical background for the design of the interventions. The expectation (hypothesis) was that all interventions would result in a strengthening of the normative goal-frame, and thus a reduction of norm breaching behaviour. This was measured by counting the number of cigarette butts in the control weeks and comparing this count to the number of cigarettes butts in the experiment week on the one hand; and by comparing the butt counts on the experiment week on day one (no intervention) with that of the three following intervention days. Intervention one was to clear the negative cues to prohibition signs by removing all the cigarette butts. This intervention addressed the reversal effect of prohibition signs, because 'prohibition signs placed in a setting with corresponding negative norm-support cues induces rather than reduces violations of the very same norm and other norms' (Keizer et al., 2011: 2). Based on the focus

groups' result that the Stenden no-smoking sign was not recognised, the second intervention focussed on reaffirming the prohibition signs. A more traditional sign, easily noticeable and understandable by the population was placed in the no-smoking area: a cigarette in a round red (and not white) sign with a white centre. Finally, barriers to normative smoking behaviour were addressed by improving smoking circumstances (Steg and Vlek, 2009) with clear smoking signs and new chairs in the smoking shed.

Results

This section presents and discusses results from the focus groups and the interventions.

Focus groups

Analysis of the focus groups transcript generated five major themes: the physical conditions; the information and knowledge of the signs; the norms' disrespect cues; the goal-frames; and potential solutions. These themes are in line with Steg and Vlek (2009), Etienne (2010), Lindenberg and Steg (2007), and Keizer et al. (2008). Each theme is briefly illustrated below with reference to the focus groups' results.

Physical conditions

Almost all participants pointed out the impracticability of the smoking areas in general and the smoking shed in particular. Major elements of complaint were the distance to the smoking shed from the entrance on one hand and the lack of ashtrays, chairs and even space in the smoking shed on the other.

Space in the smoking area in front of Stenden main entrance is objectively an issue. This smoking area is in fact a section of the bicycle shed and people tend to leave their bikes in this section, even though it is reserved for smokers. As a focus group participant observed:

'But then you know this is supposed to be for the smokers, and when it's a busy time like beginning of the module, it's also full with bikes' (P 1B, 309–310).

Ashtrays and chairs are lacking in the smoking area, while both seats and waste bins can be found in the no-smoking area. In answering the question where (s)he usually smokes, a participant said:

'Just outside Stenden where we have the chairs ... Because the weather up there is really great and I enjoy the sunshine. And I can relax and just have the smoke' (P 1E, 91–93).

Complaints about distance are interesting, considering that the distance between the main entrance and the smoking area is 20 metres. Illustrative is the following quote:

'Now the smoking areas are not convenient for us. We should go far away to smoke. Sometimes the break is only 10 minutes. I also need time to smoke' (P 1G, 211–212).

It appears therefore that the norm-breaching behaviour seems motivated by self-interests both from a hedonistic and a gain goal-frame (e.g., time saving, reducing walking time, more convenient place etc.), which corroborates the study of Lindenberg and Steg (2007). The observed issues with the current physical conditions of the smoking area ask for structural interventions (Keizer et al., 2011).

The information and knowledge of the signs

All participants admitted to have noticed the signs, either no-smoking signs on the ground or smoking signs posted on the wall of the smoking shed. It was mentioned, though, that due to the cultural diversity of the population the message of certain signs was not automatically clear to everybody at first.

'At first I didn't understand. A cigarette and a line, does it say anything? It is hard to guess what it means. It's not like 'NO', it's just a line' (P 2E, 142–143).

Misunderstanding information can indeed be a cause of the norm-breaching behaviour, and should be addressed by designing clearer signs. Yet, data also showed that the students could deliberately reject the information and knowledge provided by the signs as the following quote testifies:

'At one point you just don't see them anymore' (P 1D, 118).

In probing further into the causes of overlooking the signs, data signalled clearly the role of cues contradicting the norms.

Norms' disrespect cues

Participants noted several cues indicating that at Stenden norms could be broken without consequence, ranging from people smoking in the smoking restricted area to cigarette butts on the ground. As one of the respondents powerfully noted:

'The power of the [prohibition] sign is gone' (P 1B, 79).

The presence of people smoking at the restricted area not only weakened the prohibition signs but also encouraged other people to show norm-breaching behaviour (Keizer et al., 2008). The following quotes are exemplary in this respect:

'If they can do it I can do it also' (P 2E, 454).

'When you look on the ground you see lots of cigarette butts. It just tells you that nobody takes the sign seriously and nobody cares; so unless the school shows that it is a serious matter by giving fines, nothing will change' (P 1F, 169–173)

These results point to interventions that clear the negative cues and reinforce authority.

Goal-frames: as already noticed above the norm-breaching behaviour at Stenden seems to be mainly motivated by hedonistic (e.g. enjoying the sunshine while sitting) and gain goal-frames (e.g. saving time by avoiding the walk to the smoking shed). This went as far as blaming the non-smokers for staying in the no-smoking area and asking smokers to leave:

'I am fine where I am. If they don't like the wind blowing some smoke, then they can relocate' (P 1B, 137–138).

Normative goal-frames were almost unrepresented. Interventions should therefore be designed so that normative goal-frames are reinforced.

Potential solutions

The main solution propositions collected via the focus groups can be divided in three categories: structural solutions; informational solutions, and other solutions which are recurrent solutions proposed by participants who do not exactly fit into the other two categories.

Starting from this last category, participants suggested to fine people who smoke in a no-smoking area. This is surely effective, making the gain goal supporting the normative goal; yet it could not be easily applied to Stenden because it was unclear who would have the authority to apply the fine. Costly structural interventions, such as reshaping the smoking area completely, were not feasible in the context of this research. A third suggestion by the focus group was having non-smokers (made passive smokers as the consequence of the smoking norm breaching) to participate in volunteering campaign of information to claim their rights. This suggestion was disregarded due to the time frame of the intervention, the Study Start Week. It was impossible to recruit non-smokers before this week as few staff members and virtually no students visit Stenden premises before the Study Start Week.

Structural solutions are related to the infrastructure and the facilities. As has been seen above, the three main issues observed by participants about the smoking area in front of the Stenden entrance are: lack of seats, lack of ashtrays and lack of space. The intervention proposed is to add seats and ashtrays to the area. This intervention is rather easy to implement, and will also single out the smoking space, making it impossible for bikes to be left in the area.

Informational solutions relate to different forms of communication. In the present case participants suggested to reaffirm the no smoking norm with a sign of a banned cigarette in a red (not a white) circle and to use clearer 'smoke here' signs outside the smoking shed. These signs, though, will not work in the presence of negative clues. Therefore the third intervention proposed (and the first applied) was to clear negative clues from the no-smoking area.

To conclude, on the basis of the analysis of the focus groups, three interventions were designed and carried out: clearing the negative cues; reaffirming the prohibition signs, and improving the physical smoking infrastructure. The next section discusses the results from the quasi-experiment during which the interventions were tried out.

Experimental week

As was stated in the research method section, to measure the success of the interventions, butts were counted. The number of cigarette butts collected at the end of a day without any activity (Monday, day 1 of the experimental week), yielded 853 cigarette butts. The cigarette butts count following intervention one (Tuesday, day 2), two (Wednesday, day 3) and three, (Thursday, day 4) was 456, 303 and 280 butts respectively. Looking at these data in terms of percentage, considering 853 cigarette butts a starting point, representing 100%, it can be seen that after the first intervention the cigarette butts represented 53% of the starting point and by the end of the fourth intervention only 33% (Figure 2).

The total of cigarette butts produced at the end the experimental week was 1 892. The total number of cigarette butts collected on Monday represents 45% of this total, while day 2, day 3 and day 4 represented 24%, 16% and 15% of the total respectively. The number of cigarette butts collected dropped by 397 from the first to the second day, by 153 from the second to the third day and 23 from the third to the fourth and last day. The total of those differences is 573, which represents 30% of the total of all butts, meaning the

interventions reduced the butts by 30% compared to the total, and by 67% compared to the first day. From Table 1 it can be seen that the biggest variation occurred with the first intervention, which was cleaning all the negative cues. This variation represented 69% of the total difference (573). After the second intervention the drop was 27% and only 23% after the fourth one.

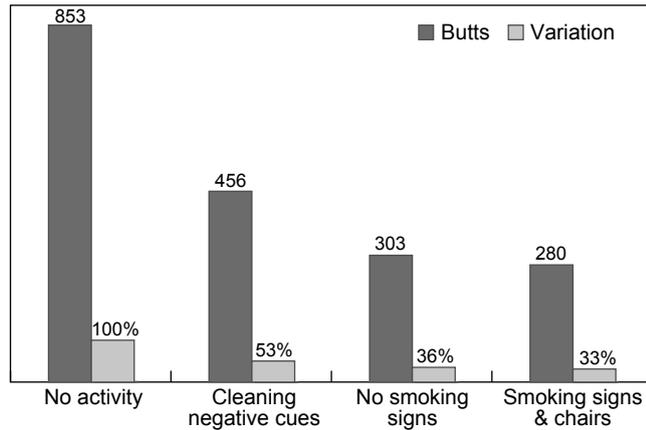


Figure 2: Results variations referred to day 1

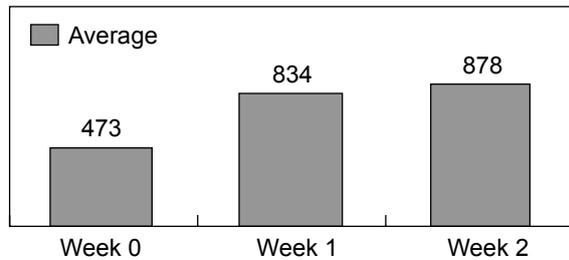


Figure 3: Daily average of number of cigarette butts

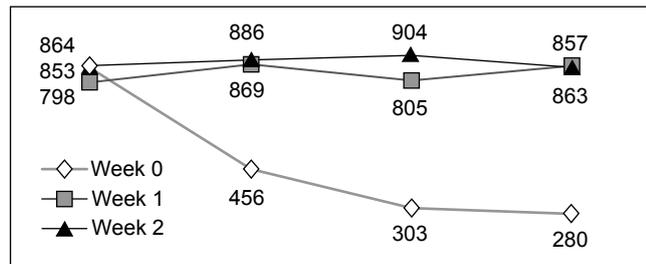


Figure 4: Daily variations of cigarette butts

Table 1: Other variations

Day	Monday	Tuesday	Wednesday	Thursday	Total
Butts	853	456	303	280	1892
% from Total	45%	24%	16%	15%	100%
Difference	-	397	153	23	573 (30%)
% difference*	-	69%	27%	4%	

*Referred to previous day

Comparison between the experimental week and the control weeks

The above findings and the analysis focused exclusively on the experimental week. However, the study also covered two control weeks with similar weather conditions as during the experiment week. The total number of cigarette butts from the experimental week (1 892) was lower than the total of control week one (3 335) and two (3 511). During the experiment week (week 0 in the table below) an average of 473 cigarette butts was collected or counted per day. That average was 833 for week one and 877 for week two (control weeks) (Figure 3). The researcher also calculated the daily differences in cigarette butts for the two control weeks. A comparison with the experiment week is made in Figure 4. The experiment week presented a constant decrease in the numbers but the two control weeks did not present any constant decrease but rather unstable variations.

ANOVA was used to determine if there was any significant difference in the smoking behaviour (i.e. number of cigarette butts) among the three weeks.

The null hypothesis here was $\mu W0 = \mu W1 = \mu W2$, where W0 is the intervention week, W1 and W2 the control weeks and μ the mean of the butts. The rule of thumb dictated to take the alpha level of 0.05.

The calculation of the single factor ANOVA gives $F = 8.204$. The p -value is $p = 0.01$; with $p < 0.05$ the null hypothesis can be rejected. This means there is a significant difference between the means of the different weeks.

ANOVA was also used to determine whether there was a difference between the means of the variation within the weeks. The null hypothesis here was $\mu D0 = \mu D1 = \mu D2$, where D is the daily difference in the number of cigarette butts in the experiment week (0) and the two control weeks, (D1 and D2) and μ represents the mean of the butts.

The single ANOVA calculation determines that $F = 2.903$. The p -value is $p = 0.013$; with $p < 0.05$ the null hypothesis can be rejected. This means there is a significant difference between the means of the variations within weeks. Yet, this does not give any information about the specific week that could be causing the difference. For this reason a series of t -tests was used, where variance among the weeks was tested.

The first t -test assessed whether the means of daily cigarette butts of the experiment week and of control week 1 are statistically different from each other. The null hypothesis was:

H0: there is no significant difference between the variations in number of cigarette butts between the two weeks.

As with the ANOVA, the alpha level is set at 0.05 and the null hypothesis is rejected if the p -value is inferior than or

equal to 0.05. An unpaired and independent *t*-test provided a $p(T \leq t)$ two-tail = 0.04 with $p < 0.05$. The null hypothesis is rejected, meaning there is a significant difference between the daily variation of the number of cigarette butts of week 0 and week 1.

The second *t*-test assessed whether the means of daily cigarette butts of the experiment week (week 0) and control week 2 are statistically different from each other. The null hypothesis was:

H0: there is no significant difference between the variations in number of cigarette butts between the two weeks.

An unpaired and independent *t*-test provided a $P(T \leq t)$ two-tail = 0.02 with $p < 0.05$. The null hypothesis is thus rejected, meaning there is a significant difference between the daily variation of the number of cigarette butts of the experiment week and the second control week.

This third and last *t*-test assessed whether the means of daily cigarette butts of control week 1 and control week 2 are statistically different from each other. The null hypothesis being

H0: there is no significant difference between the variations in number of cigarette butts between the two weeks.

An unpaired and independent *t*-test provided a $P(T \leq t)$ two-tail = 0.09 with $p < 0.05$; the null hypothesis is thus accepted, meaning there is no significant difference between the daily variation of the number of cigarette butts of the two control weeks.

From the above it may be concluded that the experiment week is at the origin of the differences noticed in the cigarette butt count among the three weeks, and that either the interventions (or any other occurrence that happened during that week and was unnoticed by the researchers) were successful in supporting normative smoking behaviour.

Summarising the results obtained by this study, it may be said that the designed interventions were successful. Intervention one, which consisted of clearing away all the negative cues (cigarettes butts, cigarette packets) from the contextual experimental area, already yielded significant results in line with Cialdini et al. (1990) and Cialdini (2007). Building upon the results of the cleaning, during intervention two more recognisable prohibitions signs were posted. By clearly stating the rules that applied in the restricted and in the smoking area, the prohibition signs made the smoking norms salient, as supported by Keizer et al. (2011), and thus prompted people to a more conforming behaviour. This allowed people not only to know what not to do but also to know what to do and where. As hypothesised, the study showed that the right information at the right place without a major influence of negatives cues promoted norm-conforming smoking behaviour.

From the focus groups it was concluded that the physical conditions for both the smoking and the restricted area were playing a role in the smoking norm violations. This is in line with Lindenberg and Steg (2007), who stated that even if people want to act appropriately but are not given the space and the means to do it then they give up their wish to act normatively and will follow hedonic or gain goal-frames. The third intervention built on the two previous ones and ameliorated the smoking facility thus giving the room to people to respect the smoking norm better. This intervention was also successful and showed that if the smoking facilities meet

standards as desired by people they will gladly respect the smoking norms. In other words, the results confirmed that a good quality of the physical conditions positively influence the right behaviour.

Conclusion and recommendations

Stenden regulations and policies on the subject of smoking translate into signs and prohibitions signaling the behaviour and norms that people are expected to follow and to respect. Failing to conform to these norms therefore results in norm-breaching behaviour. A flagrant smoking breaching behaviour at Stenden is shown by people smoking at the main entrance, a non-smoking area a few steps divided from a smoking shed. This phenomenon set the context for the present study that aimed at proposing and applying appropriate interventions to counteract this behaviour, based on an understanding of the knowledge, attitudes and motives of Stenden smokers. The focus groups exposed three main factors accountable for the violation of the smoking norms, i.e. ambiguous information, poor quality of the physical conditions in the smoking area and, finally, lack of enforcement of the regulations and policies. Up to 90% of the participants stated that on the subject of public smoking at Stenden, one should set up his or her own standards and then live up to them.

An analysis of the focus groups results based on the goal-framing theory of Lindenberg and Steg (2007) pointed out that the dominant goal-frames for smoking decisions at Stenden were the hedonic goal and the gain goal-frame. The hedonic goal-frame with the mind set on immediate pleasure fuelled on element of discomfort or inconvenience presented by the above factors and lead to the breaching of norms. The gain goal-frame, as the hedonic, fuelled on all the selfish motives that resulted in norms violations. The study showed that the breaching behaviour is highly 'contagious', because the cues left behind encourage other people to breach.

To reinforce the normative goal frame and thus promote normative smoking behaviour at Stenden, three interventions were carried out. These made a difference during the experiment week by decreasing the number of cigarettes butts collected at the restricted area. Due to the limited time frame and the nature of the experiments (quasi-field experiments), the positive results can be attributed to the interventions only with some qualifications. The three interventions were carried out consecutively and the daily variations showed a constant decrease in the number of violations; however, it has not been studied whether the interventions carried out separately would have yielded the same results. In other words, it is not possible to attribute daily results to the specific intervention carried out on that day without any doubt. The results yielded by the interventions, moreover, were very temporary: the count during the two control weeks following the experiment yielded data suggesting a complete return of the norm-breaching behaviour. This situation hence raises the question about the length of time needed before treatments would yield permanent results.

The interventions carried out were supported by the existing literature; nevertheless, the limitations faced by the researchers in terms of finances, time and legal power played a major role in the choice of the treatments applied.

In this light, the researchers were unable to apply some interventions suggested by the focus group, i.e. setting up a fine for smokers in non-smoking areas, backing up signs with authority in the person of a security guard and having non-smokers (made passive smokers as the consequence of the smoking norm breaching) participate in volunteering a campaign of information to claim their rights. This study temporarily improved the smoking situation by making use of a form of communication and improving physical conditions to reduce the breaching behaviour. However, to reach the goal of achieving a normative smoking behaviour, more permanent solutions need to be implemented and sustained. The latter will need to be set up in a way that hedonic and gain goal-frames support the normative one (Lindenberg and Steg, 2007).

The study led to the following recommendations for Stenden. Firstly, Stenden needs to develop capacity to enforce the smoking norms. The smoking regulations and policies need to be backed up by a strong authority before being translated into signs and especially prohibition signs. Secondly, Stenden needs to improve, or avoid altogether, negative cues in restricted areas that point out signs of norm-violating behaviour. This is because these cues, in addition to prohibition signs, create the contrary effect expected from the signs. Thirdly, Stenden needs to improve the quality of the smoking facilities in order to support its own no-smoking policies. Fourthly, Stenden needs to make use of different forms of communication such as the intranet, newspapers, and magazines to educate its staff and students on the dangers of this breaching behaviour for non-smokers.

On the side of further research, the following recommendations were made. Further studies could be made to determine a direct link between a specific behavioural motivation with a particular intervention and the results generated. Future research could as well expand on the quantitative analysis undergone in this study to determine if the results obtained would remain consistent over a longer study period. Finally the present case could be replicated with a control group and/or different issue to judge and test the reliability and generalisation of the present work.

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The impact of transactional versus transformational leadership on job satisfaction in the hotel industry

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This study examines the impact of transactional versus transformational leadership on job satisfaction. Data was collected through a 69-item questionnaire for employees and a 70-item questionnaire for leaders to investigate their perceptions of their own leadership style and those of their direct leaders. Completed questionnaires were collected from 43 employees and 43 leaders. Consistent with earlier findings, a strong positive impact of both transactional and transformational leadership on job satisfaction was detected. Results suggest the need for making leaders aware of their own leadership style, and the expectations and perceptions of their employees.

Keywords: Leadership styles, transformational leadership, transactional leadership, job satisfaction, employee expectations

Introduction

Leadership has increasingly become an important area of study, especially in the past decades. Recent research in the field of leadership has been focused particularly on transactional and transformational leadership (Bass and Avolio, 1993; Vecchio et al., 2008; Rowold and Rohmann, 2009; Tims et al., 2011). Particularly, leaders who display transformational leadership are generally considered to be most effective (Avolio and Bass, 2002).

Leadership has often been linked to job satisfaction as companies perform regular studies about how satisfied their staff is and which aspects of the job can be improved. In the service profit chain, it is suggested that the satisfaction of customers is based on employee satisfaction (Heskett et al., 1997). As a result, companies have a particular interest in keeping their employees satisfied. Employee turnover is particularly high in the hospitality industry, as employees start their jobs with the expectation that they have a small chance of career development and few promotional opportunities.

Research on transactional and transformational leadership showed a positive and significant effect of transformational leadership on job satisfaction (Medley and Laroche, 1995), while transactional leadership had no significant impact on job satisfaction. This result is partly supported by the findings of Bogler (2001) that showed a strong positive impact of transformational leadership, but a negative influence of transactional leadership on job satisfaction. According to Emery and Barker (2007), the correlation between transactional and transformational leadership and job satisfaction is found to be lower for transactional leadership. The differences in the findings in previous studies identify the need for further research.

The purpose of this study is to examine the impact of transactional versus transformational leadership on job satisfaction. The specific objectives are to:

1. Analyse the impact of gender, age and nationality on the perception of transformational versus transactional leadership
2. Establish whether transformational and transactional leadership styles have a positive or negative impact on job satisfaction
3. Help deepen the understanding about how leadership styles are perceived by leaders and followers
4. Provide recommendations on what leaders can do to increase job satisfaction.

The findings provide insights into the perception of transactional and transformational leadership from the perspective of employees and from leaders themselves with the aim to increase awareness of leaders in the hospitality industry about how their leadership style affects the job satisfaction of employees.

Literature review

Leadership

Often a leader and a manager are referred to as the same, but there are clear differences between their roles. The focus of the manager lies in controlling, emphasising rules and regulations and creating stability. Leaders, on the other hand, look at creating their vision and guiding their employees towards them. Their central point is to support the employees, help them to solve problems and improve situations (Woods and King, 2010). A leader encourages and motivates staff members by helping to align their individual needs with the overall goals of the department and organization' (Woods and King, 2010: 66). Much like Woods and King (2010), Zircami et al. (2004) link leadership with the motivation of followers. The authors argue that a leader tries to both satisfy the motives of his followers as well as a company's

organisational goals. In this process, the employees and the leader preferably work together towards the same vision.

Cashman (2008), on the other hand, takes a different view, describing leadership as a process and arguing that most definitions only look at the external input of leadership such as vision, results and drive. He explains that leadership should rather look at the foundation of leadership itself and states that there are three main aspects to leadership: authenticity, influence and value creation. Authenticity reflects the self-awareness of a leader to deal with challenges; influence refers to the leader's communication with other people; and value creation is about a leader's passion to make a long-term difference. Taking these three aspects into consideration, leadership can be defined as 'authentic influence that creates value' (Cashman, 2008: 24).

Leadership styles

There are many leadership styles. Theories that identified the transactional and transformational styles as two of the most important (Woods and King, 2010) first appeared in 1978 and have been developed ever since (Bass and Avolio, 1993). A leadership style can be explained as a perceived pattern of influence on other peoples' behaviour (Zirgami et al., 2004: 174). It is argued whether or not one specific leadership style can be considered to be the best. Successful leaders seem to be able to adapt their style when needed (Zirgami et al., 2004). Avolio and Bass (2002) state the same about having a mixed leadership style, but note that great leaders seem to be more transformational than transactional.

Transactional leadership style

Nowadays, transactional leadership is also referred to as leader-follower exchange, whereby leaders exchange rewards such as salary and appraisal for good performance or a bad appraisal as punishment. The nature of transactional leadership leads to 'a compliance in expectation of reward (or to avoid punishment)' (Sashkin and Sashkin, 2003: 66).

Transactional leadership has three main characteristics: 1) contingent reward, 2) active management by exception, and 3) passive management by exception. Contingent reward looks at how the leader promises rewards for good performance, offers rewards for efforts and recognises accomplishments. Management by exception in an active way means that the leader looks out for deviances from standards and rules and takes corrective action, while in passive management, the leader only intervenes when standards are not met (Bass, 1990). Transactional leaders make a clear division between task and responsibility, so that every employee is aware of these expectations. Employees are empowered by the leader so that all given tasks and responsibilities can be fulfilled. Employees and leaders have a contract relationship, whereby consequences for achieving or failing to meet expectations are discussed. In an ideal situation, the leader discusses the reward system with the employees to find a solution that satisfies both (Sashkin and Sashkin, 2003).

Transformational leadership style

Transformational leadership is the extension of transactional leadership, where it is not the transaction between leaders and followers that is important but the development of the followers into leaders. This leadership style is an 'internalising

of shared values that guide actions' (Sashkin and Sashkin, 2003: 66). True commitment and involvement, as well as the setting of more challenging goals and better performances are therefore part of transformational leadership.

Transformational leadership theory describes that the vision needs to be communicated by the leader, who needs to motivate and inspire the employees. Leaders are effective when they involve their employees in achieving the company's vision by trusting and involving them in goal setting. The focus of a leader should be to support the employees and to encourage critical thinking (Woods and King, 2010).

There are four characteristics that were identified in several surveys and cases, namely charisma, inspiration, intellectual stimulation and individualised consideration. The charismatic characteristic is defined by gaining respect and trust, instilling pride and providing a vision and a sense of mission. Communicating high expectations, using symbols to focus effort, expressing important purposes in simple ways indicate the inspiration characteristic. Intellectual stimulation is indicated by promoting intelligence, rationality and careful problem solving. Giving personal attention, treating each employee individually, coaching and advising are factors that show the individualised consideration characteristic (Bass, 1990).

Much like Bass (1990), Bass and Avolio (2002) identified four main characteristic (4-Is) of a transformational leader. These are 'idealised leadership', 'inspirational motivation', 'intellectual stimulation' and 'individualised consideration'. Intellectual stimulation, individualised consideration and inspiration are the same as defined by Bass (1990), but described slightly different by Bass and Avolio (2002). Transformational leaders give intellectual stimulation by questioning solutions and challenging people to think further. Individualised consideration is expressed by showing concern for people such as by looking after their personal needs, paying attention to personal development and the well-being of a person. Inspirational motivation means that transformational leaders motivate and inspire others by challenging them at their work and providing meaning. Followers tend to idealise the behaviour of leaders (Avolio and Bass, 2002). Idealised influence and inspirational leadership can be seen as the most effective and satisfying of these characteristics (Avolio and Bass, 2002).

There are a few differences between women and men as transformational leaders. Women have a higher interest in giving rewards equally to their employees, as well as a greater level of concern about others. Moreover, women scored slightly higher on involving and empowering their subordinates.

Transformational leaders work well together with their subordinates and generally show more commitment to companies than transactional leaders (Bass, 1990). Bass (1990) found that employees not only perform better in their jobs but are also more content with appraisals within the company when they have a transformational leader.

Transformational versus transactional leadership

Comparing the two leadership styles, research has found transformational leaders to be more effective. However, it is stressed that the exclusive usage of one style and neglect of the other is not enough (Avolio and Bass, 2002).

Job satisfaction

The service profit chain identified by Heskett et al. (1997) examines the connection between the effects of internal and external factors. The service profit chain explains that employee satisfaction and loyalty (internal factors) have an impact on customer satisfaction and loyalty (external factors) and stresses the importance of employee satisfaction (Cook, 2008).

There are many different studies about job satisfaction and they present a range of opinions about the topic. Cross (1973, cited in Macdonald and MacIntyre, 1997) sees salary, promotion, leaders, colleagues, the company and the job itself as the main factors in job satisfaction. Much like Cross, Hackman and Oldham (1975, cited in Macdonald and MacIntyre, 1997) look at job tenure, salary, leaders and talents.

Employee satisfaction and retention can be driven by coaching, empowerment, effective team building and management, reward and recognition, open communication, selection of the right employees, training and development of employees, customer focus, leaders showing excellent service, and clear setting of directions through goals, service vision and customer promise (Cook, 2008). 'Satisfaction is a psychological state that indicates how a person feels about his or her situation, based on an evaluation' (Hellriegel et al., 2005: 384). Often satisfaction is in line with employee motivation, 'a psychological state that exists whenever internal and/or external forces stimulate, direct, maintain behaviours' (Hellriegel et al., 2005: 384). High employee motivation and satisfaction leads to a lower employee resignation rates, better performance, higher customer satisfaction and more profitability for the company. There are eight guidelines that a manager should follow to keep the employees satisfied and motivated: 1) share company mission and employees role within that mission; 2) identify desired behaviour and performance outcomes as well as the reward for achievement; 3) create job designs that motivate; 4) always give feedback; 5) reward fulfilment of desired behaviours and achievements; 6) reward an employee with something that matters to the employee; 7) treat employees equally when rewarding; and 8) see each employee as something special (Hellriegel et al., 2005). In the primary data gathering of this study, the range of concepts as described in the literature review are measured among a group of hotel management students. The impact of transactional versus transformational leadership on job satisfaction will be put into context.

Methods

In this study a quantitative research approach was used to investigate the impact of transactional versus transformational leadership on job satisfaction. Previous studies that examined the impact of leadership on job satisfaction (Lok and Crawford, 2004; Emery and Barker, 2007), in particular the impact of transactional and transformational leadership on job satisfaction (Bogler, 2001; Medley and Larochelle, 1995; Emery and Barker, 2007), used questionnaires as a research tools.

Measures

The questionnaire contained 69 (employees) or 70 (leaders) items, divided into the following sections.

Background information was collected using 13 (employees) or 14 (leaders) items about age, gender, nationality, work experience.

Leadership styles were measured using the Multiple Leadership Questionnaire (Unknown, 2012) that measures transactional and transformational leadership styles. The instrument includes 24 items that are measured on a five-point Likert scale, where 1 stands for not at all and 5 for always. Transformational leadership is measured with 16 items: general (4 items), idealised influence (3 items); inspirational motivation (3 items); intellectual stimulation (3 items) and individualised consideration (3 items). Transactional leadership is evaluated using 8 items, including 2 generic ones, 3 items for the factor contingent rewards (3 items) and 3 items for management-by-exception. The scores of each leadership style are added up and indicate that scores between 0 and 4 are seen as low, between 5 and 8 as moderate; and between 9 and 12 as high. Employees are asked to rate the person directly supervising them by how frequently each statement fits their leader. In the questionnaire for the leaders, the same statements are used, but leaders are asked to rate themselves, so that the perception between the leadership styles from employees and leaders can be measured. A sample item for transformational leadership is 'I make others feel good to be around me'. 'I am satisfied when others meet agreed-upon standards' is an example of transactional leadership and 'I ask no more of others than what is absolutely essential' indicates *laissez-faire* leadership.

Employee satisfaction is based on the 'Guidelines towards managers' what they can do to keep employees satisfied (Hellriegel et al., 2005) and measures employee satisfaction using 11 items. Employees are asked to rate the person directly supervising them on their performance on these 11 items. A 5-point Likert scale was used, where 1 stands for bad and 5 for good.

Employee expectations used the same 'Guidelines towards managers' (Hellriegel et al., 2005) and measured the expectations towards employee satisfaction. Employees are asked to indicate what they expect from their direct supervisor and leaders about 11 aspects of supervisor performance. A 5-point Likert scale was used, where 1 stands for unimportant and 5 for important.

Job satisfaction was measured through a slightly modified version of the short version of the Minnesota satisfaction questionnaire (MSQ) (Unknown, Regents of the University of Minnesota, 2012) was used. The 20-item scale was measured on a five-point Likert scale. The MSQ measured 20 aspects of job satisfaction. Both, leaders and followers received the same statements and were asked to indicate how satisfied they were with the 20 items. Here, 1 stands for dissatisfied while 5 indicates satisfaction. Sample items for job satisfaction are 'Being able to keep busy all the time' and 'The working conditions'. Because each of the 20 aspects of job satisfaction shows only one statement in the questionnaire for each aspect, the reliability of each aspect is low, job satisfaction will be seen as one factor standing for all aspects.

Participants

The data was collected via questionnaires in a teaching hotel which is linked to a Dutch hotel school. The teaching hotel allows students enrolled in a 4-year BA programme in international hotel management to get practical experience and learn about organisational processes. In the teaching hotel the first-year students act as operational staff, second-year students as supervisors and third-year students as managers. The study was undertaken in Module 4 of the academic year 2011–2012. In this study first-year students were seen as employees and second and third-year students as leaders. Students that were asked to participate were doing practice during this module period. To be able to measure the perceptions of employees and leaders, two questionnaires were created, one handed out to the employees (first-year students) and the other to the leaders (second and third-year students). In total 86 questionnaires were filled in, 43 by 'employees' and 43 by second and third-year students as leaders.

Data analysis

The data collected from the two questionnaires was analysed using the statistical program SPSS 20. Frequency tables, independent *t*-tests, ANOVA, as well as correlation and regression analysis were applied.

Results

Demographic profile

In this study, the demographic statistics (Table 1) for 43 employees, represented a dominance of female respondents ($n = 34$; 79.1%). The 43 respondents of the leadership questionnaire showed a more equalised distribution of the genders, where 55.8% ($n = 24$) were female and 44.2% ($n = 19$) were male. Most employee respondents were between 16 and 20 years old ($n = 34$, 79.1%), while the leaders showed an age range between 21 and 25 ($n = 24$; 62.8%). In both cases, most participants were Dutch.

Descriptive statistics

The variables of the employee questionnaire showed a range in mean from 3.28 to 4.04, and in the leadership questionnaire from 3.18 to 4.06. A detailed overview of the means and standard deviations can be found in Table 2.

Reliability of the questionnaire

A study shows reliability if the Cronbach alpha of the variables is above 0.6 (Malhotra, 2004).

This research showed that the individual variables of the transactional and transformational leadership style had a lower reliability than the required 0.6, ranging from 0.50 to 0.59 in the employee questionnaire and from 0.21 to 0.55 in the leader questionnaire. However, seeing transactional and transformational leadership as variables that include the individual factors, means the study is reliable (Table 3).

Gender

As shown by the data in Table 4, male employees perceived their leaders to be less transactional ($M = 3.44$, $SD = 0.59$) than female employees did ($M = 3.58$, $SD = 0.53$). Particularly 'idealised influence' (male: $M = 3.74$, $SD = 0.32$; female: $M = 3.55$, $SD = 0.67$) and 'inspirational motivation' showed

Table 1: Demographic profile of the sample

	Employees		Leaders	
	<i>n</i>	%	<i>n</i>	%
Gender				
Male	9	20.9	19	44.2
Female	34	79.1	24	55.8
Age				
16–20	34	79.1	15	34.9
21–25	9	20.9	27	62.8
>25			1	2.3
Nationality				
Dutch	27	62.8	31	72.1
German	11	25.6	8	18.6
Chinese	5	22.6	3	7.0
American			1	2.3
Total	43	100.0	43	100.0

Table 2: Descriptive statistics for the sample

Variables	Employees		Leaders	
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Employee satisfaction	3.57	0.63		
Employee expectations	4.04	0.41		
Transformational leadership	3.54	0.51	3.80	0.39
Idealised influence	3.59	0.62	3.76	0.50
Inspirational motivation	3.59	0.65	3.76	0.48
Intellectual stimulation	3.28	0.65	3.76	0.54
Individualised consideration	3.71	0.66	3.93	0.48
Transactional leadership	3.55	0.54	3.60	0.46
Contingent reward	3.47	0.67	3.52	0.55
Management by exception	3.63	0.56	3.68	0.50
Job satisfaction	3.72	0.56	3.64	0.41

a higher mean by males ($M = 3.8148$, $SD = 0.75$) than by females ($M = 3.5294$, $SD = 0.62$), while 'individualised consideration' is perceived as higher by females ($M = 3.75$, $SD = 0.67$) than by males ($M = 3.56$, $SD = 0.60$). On the contrary, the data of the leader questionnaire showed that female leaders perceive themselves to be less transformational ($M = 3.77$, $SD = 0.383$) and transactional ($M = 3.59$, $SD = 0.481$) than males (transformational: $M = 3.84$, $SD = 0.402$; transactional $M = 3.61$, $SD = 0.438$). Particularly, 'idealised influence' was ranked higher by males ($M = 3.8772$, $SD = 0.372$) than by females, as well as the factor 'inspirational motivation' where males scored higher ($M = 3.842$, $SD = 0.449$) than females ($M = 3.6944$, $SD = 0.509$).

Independent sample *t*-tests were performed, whereby an equal distribution of the variances was found. The outcomes of the *t*-test showed that the minor difference between the two genders on transformational leadership style was not significant in the employee ($t = 0.267$, $df = 41$, $p = 0.79$) and leader questionnaire ($t = 0.167$, $df = 41$, $p = 0.868$). The independent *t*-test showed that the differences between the two genders on transactional leadership style was also not significant in both the employee ($t = -0.662$; $df = 41$, $p = 0.512$) and leader questionnaire ($t = 0.556$, $df = 41$, $p = 0.581$).

As shown in Table 5, Dutch ($M = 3.48$, $SD = 0.54$) employees perceived their leaders to be less transactional

Table 3: Cronbach’s alphas

Variable	Employees		Leaders	
	Number of items (<i>n</i>)	Cronbach alpha	Number of items (<i>n</i>)	Cronbach alpha
Employee satisfaction	11	0.80	11	0.80
Employee expectations	11	0.72	11	0.91
Transactional leadership	2	0.75	2	0.67
Contingent reward	3	0.59	3	0.46
Management by exception	3	0.42	3	0.21
Transformational leadership	4	0.80	4	0.78
Idealised influence	3	0.49	3	0.50
Inspirational motivation	3	0.64	3	0.52
Intellectual stimulation	3	0.64	3	0.55
Individualised consideration	3	0.75	3	0.52
Job satisfaction	20	0.91	20	0.84

Table 4: Transactional and transformational leadership by gender

		Employees			Leaders		
		<i>n</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>n</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Transformational leadership	male	9	3.58	0.46	19	3.84	0.40
	female	34	3.53	0.53	24	3.77	0.38
Idealised influence	male	9	3.74	0.32	19	3.87	0.37
	female	34	3.55	0.67	24	3.67	0.56
Inspirational motivation	male	9	3.81	0.75	19	3.84	0.45
	female	34	3.53	0.62	24	3.69	0.51
Intellectual stimulation	male	9	3.22	0.47	19	3.71	0.64
	female	34	3.29	0.70	24	3.79	0.47
Individualised consideration	male	9	3.56	0.60	19	3.93	0.53
	female	34	3.75	0.67	24	3.93	0.45
Transactional leadership	male	9	3.44	0.59	19	3.61	0.44
	female	34	3.58	0.53	24	3.59	0.48
Contingent reward	male	9	3.41	0.64	19	3.53	0.43
	female	34	3.49	0.68	24	3.51	0.64
Management by exception	male	9	3.48	0.63	19	3.70	0.54
	female	34	3.67	0.54	24	3.67	0.48

Table 5: Transformational and transactional leadership by nationality

Nationality		Employees		Leaders	
		Transformational leadership	Transactional leadership	Transformational leadership	Transactional leadership
Dutch	<i>M</i>	3.50	3.48	3.81	3.60
	<i>n</i>	27	27	31	31
	<i>SD</i>	0.43	0.54	0.41	0.49
German	<i>M</i>	3.69	3.58	3.72	3.68
	<i>n</i>	11	11	8	8
	<i>SD</i>	0.66	0.57	0.40	0.34
Chinese	<i>M</i>	3.43	3.87	3.86	3.61
	<i>n</i>	5	5	3	3
	<i>SD</i>	0.61	0.40	0.34	0.19

than Germans ($M = 3.57$, $SD = 0.57$) and Chinese respondents ($M = 3.87$, $SD = 0.39$). Chinese respondents ($M = 3.43$, $SD = 0.61$) saw their leaders as less transformational than Dutch ($M = 3.50$, $SD = 0.43$) and German respondents ($M = 3.69$, $SD = 0.66$). An illustration of the score about the different nationalities and their perception of the transactional and transformational leadership can be found in table 15 above. Dutch ($M = 3.81$, $SD = 0.41$) and Chinese leaders ($M = 3.86$, $SD = 0.34$) perceived themselves to be more

transformational, while German leaders ($M = 3.69$, $SD = 0.34$) saw themselves to be mostly transactional.

A one-way ANOVA was conducted, looking at employees of different nationalities and their perceptions on different leadership styles. The outcomes of the one-way ANOVA showed no significant differences between nationalities and their perception of transformational leadership ($F = 0.65$, $df = 40$, $p = 0.530$). This outcome could be verified also in

transactional leadership, that showed no significant differences between different nationalities ($F = 1.11$, $df = 40$, $p = 0.340$).

No significance was found between differences of nationalities and the perception leaders of their transformational ($F = 0.13$, $df = 42$, $p = 0.985$) or transactional leadership ($F = 1.04$, $df = 42$, $p = 0.387$).

Impact of leadership

The correlation analyses showed strong and significant relationships between several study variables in the employee questionnaire. Table 6 illustrates the significant impact of transactional ($r = 0.68$, $p < 0.01$, $n = 43$) and transformational leadership ($r = 0.48$, $p < 0.01$, $n = 43$) on job satisfaction. Moreover a significant impact of employee satisfaction ($r = 0.64$, $p < 0.01$, $n = 43$) and employee expectations ($r = 0.48$, $p < 0.01$, $n = 43$) is found on job satisfaction.

The correlation analyses (Table 7) of the leader questionnaire indicates that transactional ($r = 0.51$, $n = 43$, $p < 0.01$) and transformational leadership ($r = 0.42$, $n = 43$, $p < 0.01$) have a significant impact on job satisfaction.

A multiple regression analyses was performed (Table 8), whereby job satisfaction was used as dependent variable. In the analyses, the predictor variables were standardised to reduce any potential multi-collinearity. Model 1 took into consideration the control variables of this study and found that age ($\gamma = -0.23$, $se = 0.096$, $t = -2.41$, $p = 0.02$) and nationality ($\gamma = 0.24$, $se = 0.10$, $t = 2.4$, $p = 0.02$) are significantly related to job satisfaction. Model 2, taking into consideration the control variables and transactional and transformational leadership as independent variables, showed that nationality is significantly related to job satisfaction ($\gamma = 0.17$, $se = 0.08$, $t = 2.1$, $p = 0.04$). Moreover, significant effect of transformational leadership ($\gamma = 0.31$, $se = 0.08$, $t = 4.01$, $p < 0.01$) on job satisfaction was found. Contrary to model 1, age had no significant impact in model 2 ($\gamma = -0.12$, $se = 0.08$, $t = -1.54$, $p = 0.113$).

Table 6: Correlations between dimensions for employees

Variables	Employees ($n = 43$)			
	1	2	3	4
1. Employee satisfaction	–			
2. Employee expectation	0.38*	–		
3. Transformational leadership	0.72**	0.13	–	
4. Transactional leadership	0.66**	0.40**	0.46**	–
5. Job satisfaction	0.64**	0.48**	0.68**	0.44**

*Correlation is significant at $p < 0.05$

**Correlation is significant at $p < 0.01$

Table 7: Correlations between dimensions for leaders

	Leaders ($n = 43$)	
	1	2
1. Transformational leadership	–	
2. Transactional leadership	0.46**	–
3. Job satisfaction	0.42**	0.51**

**Correlation is significant at $p < 0.01$

Discussion

Perception of leadership styles

The first aspect of this research examined the perception of the leadership style of leaders by employees. The results showed that transactional leadership ($M = 3.55$, $SD = 0.54$) was perceived slightly higher than transformational leadership ($M = 3.54$, $SD = 0.508$). The findings showed a higher presence of transformational ($M = 3.80$, $SD = 0.388$) than transactional leadership ($M = 3.60$, $SD = 0.457$) in the employee questionnaire.

According to Klein and House (1995), how transformational and transactional leadership is perceived by employees is dependent on the character of the employee. This can be found not only for transactional and transformational leadership, but can be seen as a general assumption (Felfe and Schyns, 2010; Klein and House, 1995). When looking at transformational leadership, it was found that employees perceive the factors 'inspirational motivation' and 'idealised influence' to be shown more often than the aspects 'individualised consideration' and 'intellectual stimulation'. Leaders particularly did not discuss how employees can contribute to the values and beliefs of the company. Transformational leaders like to execute their power and are self-confident around their employees (Brown and Arendt, 2011).

The results of this study showed the presence of both transactional and transformational leadership, which is positive, as a leader performs best when having more than one leadership style (Zirgami et al., 2004). The differences show that employees perceive their leaders to be less transactional and transformational than leaders rate themselves. As indicated by Felfe and Schyns (2010) and Klein and House (1995), perception depends on the character of a person. Therefore the differences in perception can easily be explained by the fact that different people perceive things differently based on their character. This study further found the aspect 'individualised consideration' to be one of the factors rated highest by employees. This contrasts with previous research that indicated this to be one of the least frequent aspects (Brown and Arendt, 2011). Leaders consider themselves to show 'individualised consideration' more often.

The author believes that the differences in findings can be explained by two main factors, namely the character of the person and the fact that the employees and leaders were not paired, so that a comparative rating of the presence of leadership styles cannot be made.

Differences of gender and nationality on perception of leadership styles

Another aspect of this research was to identify whether the perceptions of transformational and transactional leadership styles are different by nationality and gender. Tested through, the independent t -test, no significant differences between males and females on transactional ($t = -0.662$; $df = 41$, $p = 0.512$) and transformational leadership ($t = 0.267$, $df = 41$, $p = 0.79$) was found. The one-way ANOVA showed that there is no significant difference between the nationalities and their perception of transactional ($F = 1.11$, $df = 40$, $p = 0.340$) and transformational leadership ($F = 0.65$, $df = 40$, $p = 0.530$). The independent t -test of the leaders showed no significant differences between males and females on

transactional ($t = 0.556$; $df = 41$; $p = 0.58$) and transformational leadership ($t = 0.167$; $df = 41$; $p = 0.868$). Moreover, the one-way ANOVA showed no significant differences between the nationalities and transformational ($F = 0.13$, $df = 42$, $p = 0.985$) and transactional leadership ($F = 1.04$, $df = 42$, $p = 0.387$).

This research found that female leaders tend to be more transformational than male leaders. This result is in line with the findings of Sashkin and Sashkin (2003) that female leaders tend to be more transformational than males. According to Boehnke et al. (2003), differences between nationalities and their transformational leadership behaviour can be expected. These differences can be seen in the aspects 'stimulating', 'coaching', 'teambuilding', 'inspiring' and 'visioning'. Transactional leaders and the perception of their leadership styles showed that the power level and self-confidence is perceived differently.

While previous researchers have found significant differences between the perceptions of transactional and transformational leadership by different genders and nationalities, this study shows no significant difference.

Transformational and transactional leadership was rated differently by different nationalities. However, it is unclear whether this difference in rating is caused by the nationality and age or because of the differences in characters of the respondents, as identified by Felfe and Schyns (2010) and Klein and House (1995).

In conclusion, the findings of this research contradict the findings of previous studies, which suggests that further research is needed.

Impact of leadership on job satisfaction

The main aim of this study was to examine the impact of transactional and transformational leadership on job satisfaction. Correlation analyses found out that transactional ($r = 0.68$, $p < 0.01$, $n = 43$), transformational leadership ($r = 0.48$, $p < 0.01$, $n = 43$), employee satisfaction ($r = 0.64$, $p < 0.01$, $n = 43$) and employee expectations ($r = 0.48$, $p < 0.01$, $n = 43$) are significantly related to job satisfaction of employees. Multiple regressions, showed that if control variables are given in relation to transformational and transactional leadership, transformational leadership is significantly related to job satisfaction ($\gamma = 0.31$, $se = 0.08$, $t = 4.01$, $p < 0.01$).

The outcome of the study validates the findings of Bogler (2001), Medley and Larochelle (1995) and Emery and Barker (2007), which found that transformational leadership has an impact on job satisfaction. In the study of Medley and Larochelle (1995), transactional leadership had no significant impact on job satisfaction, while transformational leadership was significantly related. Bogler (2001) supports these findings, as a strong positive impact of transformational leadership, but a negative significance of transactional leadership on job satisfaction was found in his study. In general it can be said that transactional leadership is less closely correlated with job satisfaction than transformational leadership (Emery and Barker, 2007). Job satisfaction deals with the aspects of Herzberg's two-factor theory, which includes motivator factors, such as 'achievement, the challenge of the work itself, responsibility, recognition, advancement, and growth' (Hellriegel et al., 2005: 403). This

clarifies the link between leadership and job satisfaction, as recognition and responsibility can be given by the leader to the employee. Transformational leadership is concerned with seeing the employee as an individual and to set goals so that the employee can grow (Sashkin and Sashkin, 2003; Woods and King, 2010).

Transactional leadership on the other hand is concerned with a highly professional work environment, where payment is offered for the work itself (Sashkin and Sashkin, 2003; Woods and King, 2010).

Taking these aspects into consideration, the findings of this research are supported by previous research that found that transformational leadership is positively related to job satisfaction. It is the author's assumption that transformational leadership creates a working environment that allows an employee to feel more comfortable and that in the long term would be more satisfying. While the multiple regression analysis only identifies transformational leadership to be significantly related to job satisfaction, the correlation analyses showed that both transformational and transactional leadership are positively and significantly related to job satisfaction. The author assumes that these contradictions in findings can be explained by Maslow's (1943) hierarchy of needs, which shows that every person is in need of different things. Therefore, whether transactional and transformational leadership have a positive effect on job satisfaction is based on what employees perceive as motivating factors, such as only salary (transactional) or encouragement and personal engagement of the leader (transformational).

Conclusion, future research and limitations

The results of this research showed that a significant impact of transformational and transactional leadership on job satisfaction exists. Tested through independent sample *t*-tests on the employee and leader questionnaires, no significant differences between genders and transactional and transformational leadership were found. The one-way ANOVAs show that nationalities do not have a significant difference in the perception of transactional and transformational leadership.

Looking at how employees and leaders perceive the transactional and transformational leadership style, minor differences can be found in the leadership questionnaire, where transactional leadership is found to be more present. Leaders perceive themselves to be more transactional and transformational than their employees see them. The individual variables of transactional and transformational leadership in the employee questionnaire show that 'individualised consideration' and 'management by exception' were perceived to be the most present factors in leaders. On the contrary, 'intellectual stimulation' was perceived as the factor least present.

Leaders rated themselves higher on transformational than on transactional leadership. Leaders rate themselves particularly low on 'contingent reward' and high on 'individualised consideration'.

The main limitations can be seen in the fact that the questionnaire tools were based on a 5-point Likert scale, with most of the answers clustered around the midpoint of the scale. The reliability of the questionnaire, as seen through the Cronbach's alpha calculations, shows that the individual

factors of transactional and transformational leadership have a lower reliability than 0.6. Another limitation is the use of a student sample. Their motivation and expectations can be different than in an organisation, where employees work for money. The results show no significant differences between genders and nationalities on leadership. The inequality in numbers between genders and nationalities can therefore be seen as a limitation. To investigate the discrepancies between our findings as compared to earlier research and to avoid some of the limitations, further research is strongly suggested.

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