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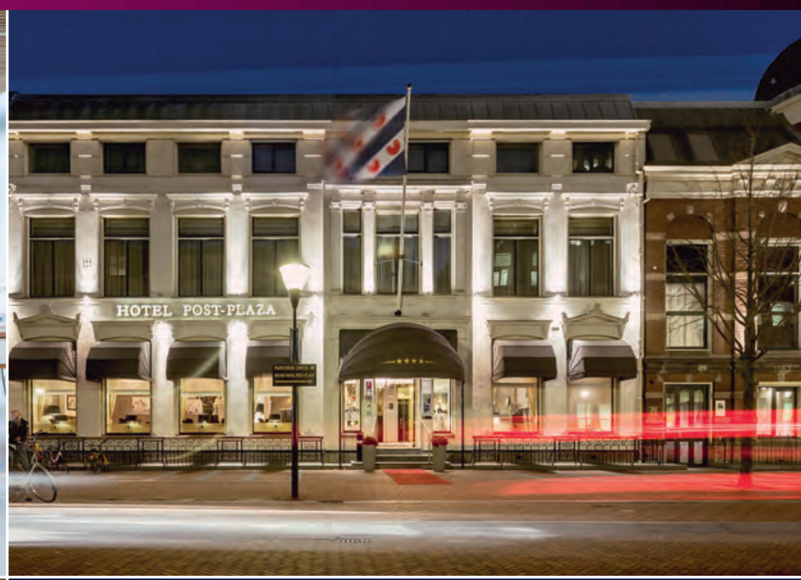
Research in *Hospitality Management*



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Aims and Scope

Research in Hospitality Management (*RHM*) 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 focusses on three main areas: (1) "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; (2) "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; (3) "Student Research Projects" allows excellent student work to be published. Student work can relate to excellent BA dissertations or MA theses.

RHM also accommodates short communications, working papers, book reviews, and discussion papers

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Research in *Hospitality Management*

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EHMA
EUROPEAN HOTEL MANAGERS ASSOCIATION

SPECIAL EDITION

EDITORIAL

This issue of Research in Hospitality Management (RHM) will be disseminated to our industry colleagues at the Annual General Meeting of the European Hotel Managers Association (EHMA) in Marbella (16–18 March 2018). Stenden Hotel Management School is proud to have been one of only three academic partners of EHMA for more than ten years. During this time, the school has provided EHMA with data on talent in, and entering, the industry through the publication of "Profiles". However, we feel we can better serve our industry partners going forward by connecting them directly with research undertaken in the school. To this end, this special edition of our research journal is designed to introduce our colleagues at EHMA to the journal's editorial ambitions by including papers on hospitableness, hospitality management, hospitality management education and sustainability, and an increased number of papers informed by research undertaken by our own undergraduate students. It is also satisfying to note that many papers submitted reflect and highlight the school's commitment to applied research and international partnerships.

Andy Heyes, a former student and now part-time member of staff at the Hotel School here at Stenden University, has partnered with **Ajay Aluri** from West Virginia University in the USA. Their paper explores the perceptions of luxury hotel brands by the "millennial generation", which exemplifies the potential link between research and EHMA in that it is directly related to the theme of the EHMA AGM: providing "Smart Data for Luxury Destinations". **Staffieri, Cavagnaro and Rowson** are also based at Stenden and their research explored the impact of travel on young people's development and motivation. Their findings support the benefits of international travel experience.

Mohamed Nasser from Alexandria University in Egypt contributes a paper which explores the impact of psychological empowerment on the acceptance of change among hotel employees. **Irina Tamminga and Elsbeth de Boer** are based at Stenden University and their paper explores front office personnel's desire for personal development in a major hotel brand property in Miami.

Student Research Projects

Four of the papers included in this issue are edited versions of student management projects. The research is similar to a final-year dissertation and is submitted for assessment for the Bachelor of Business Administration (Hotel Management) in Stenden Hotel Management School at NHL Stenden University. Unusually, the final year of the programme takes the form of a work placement with a commercial organisation for a minimum of ten months. This format provides significant benefits to students and industry partners, not least in providing (for the vast majority of our graduates) a seamless transition from internship to full-time employment. Locations reflect the international location of the student placements. The management project involves students conducting both secondary and primary research on topics informed by the hosting work placement organisation. Typically, this has some benefit to the host organisation, resulting in recommendations for improvements in management practice. The four projects published in this issue were all selected from a list of management projects judged to be distinctive by two members of the university's assessment team.

The management project demonstrates much about the student's abilities. Academically, it involves research undertaken by the student with minimal supervision and input from academic staff. The student is required to select and explore a topic relevant to both the university programme and the host employer organisation. The student needs to investigate and review relevant published academic research on the topic, and from this, decide on the issues to be explored as well as identify the research method to be used. Findings have then to be written up in the final report in a manner that reflects back on the prior literature and demonstrates an understanding of scientific objectivity. On a personal level, the work involved requires a high degree of self-discipline and self-control, as well as the ability to critically evaluate the context they are investigating.

Laura Velten's management project also connected with the international theme, but it explores some of the experiences of working in a multinational workforce and suggests that this can be highly beneficial, particularly in hotels dealing with a multinational customer base, though work relations need to be sensitively handled by organisation management. **Ambra Hekman**'s research is conducted in order to find out whether demographics such as age, gender and working in different departments have an influence on the motivational factors of

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workers in the luxury hospitality industry. This study found that appreciation for a job well done was the most important motivational factor, whereas the opportunity for advancement was ranked as least important.

Annemarie Geerlink explored the influence of student jobs on study performance and subsequent careers. She concludes that the work undertaken prior to, or during, the degree can be highly beneficial. However, part-time work during the course needs to be kept within limits. She confirms the findings from other studies that too much work during the school term can have a negative impact on study performance, and in some cases can lead to failure.

Helga Tweebeck researched a highly relevant topic, that of women in leadership positions. Specifically, this was conducted in a Frankfurt branch of a major hotel brand. The company had ambitions to increase the number of women in senior management roles, but did not have a subtle enough understanding of both the workplace and domestic experience of would-be senior women managers.

We are confident that all our readers, and specifically our colleagues at EHMA, will find the papers interesting and informative. And, if you are interested in discussing how Stenden HMS might integrate with and contribute to your organisation (perhaps through placement, research, or training), we would be delighted to hear from you.

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How millennials perceive leisure luxury hotels in a sharing economy?

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The introduction of both the experience and sharing economies can potentially be seen to be the start of a new type of luxury accommodation, but is that really true? The generation best adapted to such changes, who are also the generation to shape the future is the millennials. However, the research literature does not seem to understand millennials' expectations of what tangible and intangible variables are to be found in luxury accommodation. This conceptual paper will attempt to fill this gap, taking a critical look at the future of the leisure luxury accommodation industry.

Keywords: experience economy, leisure travel, luxury hotels, millennials, sharing economy

Introduction

According to a recent study conducted by Adkins (2016), millennials have the lowest level of customer engagement, over gen-Xers, baby boomers, and traditionalists. Only 14% of millennials in the United States are part of a hotel loyalty programme, underscoring the reality that as this generation become mainstream travellers, the industry will have to find new ways to build relationships with these customers and offer the customised and personalised products and services they seek (Ezra, 2016).

According to the U.S. Travel Association (2016), almost 4 out of 5 (79%) domestic trips are for leisure purposes, and the total direct spending in 2015 on leisure travel totalled US$650.8 billion, compared to US$296.3 billion in business travel. Throughout the world, leisure travellers are important to the hospitality and tourism industry. A special report on big brands by Mayock (2015) in *Hotels News Now* of Smith Travel Research (STR), reported that 5% rooms globally are luxury class, out of which 44% are branded and 56% are non-branded. Additionally, 13% of global rooms are upper-upscale class, a luxury brand category based on the average daily rate (ADR), according to STR Global Chain Scales (Digital Luxury Group, 2014; Mayock, 2015).

As we are now considered to be living in the sharing and experiential economies, product alone is not enough for luxury hospitality companies. In the commercial hospitality industry, there is so much diversity and competition that customers are experiencing an overload of information and price inconsistency, which has made many of them seek hospitality products and services that offer simple options (Oates, 2017). According to Smith (2016) of the Pew Research Center, home-sharing services such as AirBnB, VRBO, and HomeAway are popular among college graduates, especially the age groups 18–29 (11%) and 30–49 (15%), a market share that includes both younger and older millennials. Furthermore, Beckwith (2016) of Slice Intelligence states that the sharing economy concept, especially the AirBnB brand, resonates with and is driven by millennials, and is showing a revenue increase of 89% as of July 2016. Even Price Waterhouse Coopers (2015) corroborated this demographic preference, showing that this new sharing economy appeals to both older and younger millennials, reaching age groups of 18 to 24 (14%) and 25 to 34 (24%). Because the sharing economy is exposing millennials to unique luxury places, it will likely impact their future use of leisure luxury hotels, although just how much is still a question for further study.

But why millennials? According to Fry (2016) of the Pew Research Center, millennials (ages 18–34 in 2015), are the largest generation in the United States, with a 75.4 million population that surpassed the 74.9 million baby boomer population (ages 51–69 in 2015), and generation-X (ages 35–50 in 2015). Millennials are also the largest generation in the US labour force, with 53.5 million millennials in the work force in 2015, compared to gen-Xers (52.7 million) and baby boomers (44.6 million) (Fry, 2015). A study conducted by The Nielsen Company (2014) on the millennial generation found the following characteristics that differentiate them from other generations: millennials are (a) diverse, expressive, and optimistic; (b) driving a social movement back to the cities; (c) struggling, but expressing an entrepreneurial spirit; (d) deal shoppers who desire authenticity; and (e) connected and seeking a personal touch. Furthermore, millennials are divided into two groups: younger millennials (18–27 years old) and older millennials (28–36 years old) (The Nielsen Company, 2014). The seemingly contradictory finding that millennials are deal shoppers and at the same time looking for authenticity, and are connected but seeking the personal touch, is threatening traditional luxury branding practices and how they cater to the millennial leisure customers who are their future.

Millennials describing ideal luxury experiences seem to focus on the character and personality of these properties, including the architecture, design, and artwork. How do we appeal to the preferences and current trends among millennials in ways that resonate with them in terms of uniqueness, style, and innovative personal experiences? This current study will focus on answering these questions by analysing luxury experience preferences among millennials, specifically describing the characteristics of leisure luxury as described by this segment of travellers in light of the emergence of the sharing and experiential economies.

Luxury hotels

Initial readings of the luxury phenomenon suggest that a singular definition that is accepted by all is virtually impossible. It is argued that the word *luxury* holds different meanings for everyone (Berry, 1994; Weidmann et al., 2007) – a sentiment academics thus far have agreed with (Choi, 2003; Wiedmann, Hennigs & Siebels, 2009) – brought about from differences in cultural backgrounds (Hoffmann & Coste-Marniere, 2012). Luxury is seen to be a fluid concept, with 21st century concepts of luxury driven by ideas which relate to innovation, creativity and excellence (Gardetti & Giron, 2014), fuelling society's love and need for technological advancements in our day-to-day living habits. As the times move ahead, so does luxury – suggesting that what luxury meant 50 years ago does not necessarily count as luxurious today! As one luxury becomes familiar over time, the next desired product/service will need to take its place, predicting that the luxury concept as envisioned in the present will soon be overtaken by the thoughts of the future (Gardetti & Giron, 2014).

For luxury hotel branding, again things are accelerating rapidly. The Victorian(esque) grand hotels of Europe, which traded on their royalist reputations, were operated by large multinational luxury hotel corporations, and functioned in prestigious locations such as London and Paris, and are quickly being eclipsed by more innovative and pioneering modern designs in locations such as Dubai and Singapore (Slattery, 2012). The calibre of luxury hotels is both improving and becoming more diverse, leaving the hotel industry confused about labelling that uses established national and international hotel classification systems (Slattery & Games, 2010). According to Melissen, van der Rest, Josephi and Blomme (2015), there is currently no international standardised definition or grading criteria for a luxury hotel or brand, leaving the categorisation of luxury open to individual preference and interpretation. Further descriptives, such as boutique or lifestyle hotels, have entered the industry vocabulary as a way to distinguish and categorise hotels/brands. In the past, the word boutique referred to small hotels with no more than 125 rooms but not less than 20 rooms. The industry also defined less than 25 rooms as a bed and breakfast or inn, and hotels with more than 120 rooms as a standard, full-size hotel (Ellishotel.com, 2014).

A study conducted by Jones, Day and Quadri-Felitti (2013) to define boutique and lifestyle characterised boutique hotels more fluidly as "small and stylish hotels that offer high levels of service", and described lifestyle hotels as "innovative [hotels] that offer a more personal experience than 'branded' hotels" (p. 729). In a further blurring of old industry distinctions, even branded and chain hotels are embracing the boutique and lifestyle trend (Oates, 2014; *Travel and Leisure*, n.d.). Updated definitions for boutique and lifestyle hotels in the industry would characterise the term boutique as "unique in style, design-centric, either independent or affiliated with a smaller brand system, with 40 to 300 guestrooms", and lifestyle as "prescribed franchised products that are adapted to reflect current trends" (*Hotel News Now*, 2015). Even though these definitions are closely related within academia and industry literature, there is no clear explanation of how boutique and lifestyle fits into the definition of luxury.

Past research highlights how luxury has been seen through tangible variable measurements such as exclusivity, quality, and expense (Frank, 1999; Thomas, 2007; Bellaiche, Mei-Pochtler & Hanisch, 2010; Kapferer, 2012; Hoffmann & Coste-Maniere, 2012; Yeoman, 2014). Other studies have tried to define luxury as an absolute concept that calls to mind the images of the "ordinary [lives] of extraordinary people" (Kapferer, 2012, p. 333). Recently, Kapferer and Laurent (2016) wrote that to learn where a consumer perceives luxury, we must study each dimension or factor, since the level at which people perceive luxury varies across countries. One dimension which surrounds luxury is that of price, with society still perceiving that for anything to be luxurious, it must have an element of expense (Dubois & Paternault, 1995; Kapferer & Bastien, 2012). In a study about consumer attitudes towards discounts, Yeoman (2014) and Future Foundation (2013) proposed four groups of customers: those who are willing to pay full price most of the time (4%); those who seek deals on a continuous basis (23%); those who are full- or part-time discount hunters (70%); and those who desire to avoid paying full price (54%).

The work of Berry (1994) predicted that the luxury phenomenon would become more complex. Something is not deemed luxurious unless it is seen to be desired. Berry's thought raised interesting ideas, suggesting that luxury is not only seen to be about the tangible components, but also the intangible emotional responses which power the consumer toward purchasing such products and services.

Both tangible and intangible variables can be seen in luxury hotels, with common variables being somewhat expected. Chan and Wong (2006) suggest that prices set by a luxury hotel are pivotal in maintaining the hotel's status, with a price which is deemed too low possibly resulting in a deterioration of the hotel's status, a decrease in the supposedly high standards, and the loss of its exclusive and privileged nature. Further research conducted by Heo and Hyun (2015) shows that consumers expect more for their money in regard to quantity and quality of the tangible products, but they also expect the intangible service to reflect the prices they are being charged (Sherman, 2007). Lavish surroundings are not enough for a luxury hotel – customers now desire specific forms of service which were unheard of within luxury hotels 50 years ago (e.g. high-speed Wi-Fi). Consumer expectations, as well as the reasons for guests staying at these places, are changing the way luxury hotels are operating across the world.

The changing face of luxury hotels

Products and services are not the only things consumers' desire from luxury hotels – they are also looking for a new concept in a hotel stay. Luxury hospitality businesses are finding that today's guests are seeking more simplicity and a greater convergence of experiences integrated into their luxury experience (Oates, 2017). According to Transparency Market Research (2015), in 2014 the global luxury hotels market was nearly US$150 billion, and by 2021 it is forecast to reach US$195 billion, a situation that has created the changing consumer preference for leisure luxury and the major driver for this growth in the market. Is the expansion of the luxury market wiping out the former selling point of rarity? Are consumers in the market actively seeking luxury brands?

In the research we have discussed thus far, it is apparent that the concept of luxury hotels is changing as time progresses. Guest's preferences are shifting as cultures become exposed to different services and technological advancements to assist with their daily living, with the luxury concept moving to embrace innovative concepts to meet consumer's daily needs (Garetti & Giron, 2012).

While studies have identified the roots of this trend in the luxury hotel industry (Chan & Wong, 2006; Sherman, 2007; Heo & Hyun, 2015), it must be considered that the samples from which these findings were taken were predominantly not from a millennial perspective, but rather focused on previous generations (gen-X and gen-Y). With consumer expectations changing, and the millennial generation having grown up within this heavily service-based experiential economy, further research is needed to look into this younger group's expectations from a luxury accommodation perspective.

Conceptual model

The first of a series of studies to examine the possible future of the leisure luxury world will explore the expectations that millennials have when it comes to experiencing a luxury hotel, looking to identify the tangible and intangible variables they expect to find in a luxury hotel, whether independent or branded.

Both tangible and intangible components have been found to be present in luxury hotels (Chan & Wong, 2006; Sherman, 2007; Heo & Hyun, 2015), while the work of Berry (1994) suggests that both can and likely do work in parallel with one another. The conceptual model in Figure 1 has been constructed to represent this relationship, illustrating the suggestion that as both work together simultaneously, the optimum luxury experience is created.

Research approach

Both qualitative and quantitative research methods will be used in the current study. The methods are descriptive and causal modelling tests. In the preliminary study, tangible and intangible components of luxury, and how these components create an optimum luxury experience, will be explored among the millennials. The list (Table 1) of tangible and intangible hotel components was drawn from the previous studies by Chan and Wong (2006), Sherman (2007), Elgonemy (2013), and Heo and Hyun (2015). From those sources, we will derive an overall concept of optimum luxury experiences that millennials seek in the hotel industry.

In the second phase of this current study, a true-experimental, between-group and post-test only design will be used to examine the preferences, experiences, and intentions to seek an optimum luxury experience in millennials choosing between luxury hotel brands and luxury property offered through the sharing economy, such as AirBnB. The respondents will be randomly assigned to a scenario before answering a set of questions. All respondents will be assigned to a test scenario that includes a website that details information about a luxury hotel brand (or luxury property in AirBnB), and they will examine this website for at least 10 minutes. Using the components of luxury (derived from the first phase of the study) that guests seek in a luxury stay, the hotel brand or property will be examined based on the price, location, luxury amenities, architecture, design, and technology amenities. This travel scenario is designed to get the participants to think about the kind of luxury experience they are looking for online. Both groups of respondents will use the same scenario, apart from the website they will be assigned, so the same scenario will be used for both control and experimental groups. After visiting the websites, respondents will be given access to an online survey designed to measure their preferences, experiences, and intentions to make a purchase of the luxury hotel experience.

The target population for this current study includes working millennials (19–35 years old) who were attendees at a major industry conference in the United States. Millennials were chosen for this study because they are the largest population in the country and in the workforce (Fry, 2015; 2016). Moreover, millennials in the workforce (working full-time) today will very soon be the mainstream population for luxury businesses, regardless of whether those businesses are branded or offered through AirBnB. Furthermore, it is vital that researchers focus on this segment of population if they want to study social change as it develops with this demographic. A non-probability sampling procedure will be used. Based on the sample size recommendations of Hair et al. (2010), a minimum of 385 millennials is needed for the experimental study. The data collected during the first and second phases of this current

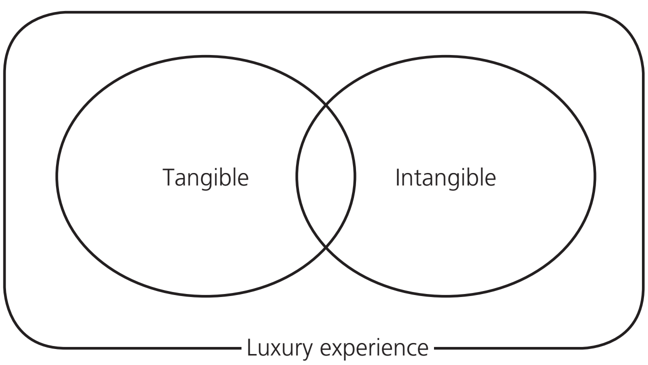

Figure 1: Constructing a luxury experience

Table 1: Tangible and intangible variables to be explored

Tangible	Intangible
Size of hotel (e.g. number of rooms)	Formality levels (e.g. white gloves, platters, etc.)
Exterior architecture (e.g. Victorian)	Special guest services (e.g. concierge, butler services)
Interior design (e.g. luxury design)	Brand name (e.g. franchise vs non-franchise)
Hotel amenities (including tech amenities) (e.g. gym, pool, HDTVs, Wi-Fi, iPads, etc.)	Trained workforce (e.g. professionalism, luxury training)
Service facilities (e.g. spa, restaurant, etc.)	Reputation (e.g. history, popularity)
Price range (e.g. US$ 100–$1 000/ night)	Guest relationships (e.g. loyalty programmes)

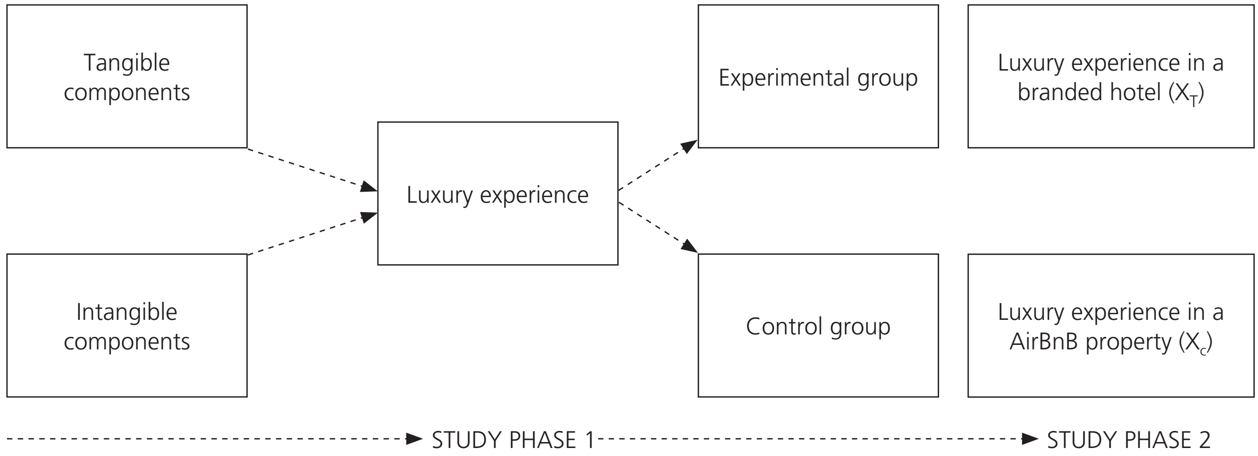

Figure 2: Proposed research design

study will be analysed using SPSS. The univariate tests and ANOVA will be used to examine the differences between millennials' preferences, experiences, and purchase intentions toward a luxury hotel brand versus a luxury property offered through AirBnB.

Discussion and future research directions

Existing public opinion and studies have said that comparing hotels to AirBnB listings is like comparing apples to oranges. For instance, Dogru, Mody and Suess (2017) found that between January 2015 and September 2016 AirBnB in the Boston market increased its supply, demand, and occupancy; however, this upward trend in the AirBnB market did not negatively influence Boston luxury hotel average daily rate (ADR) and revenue per available room (RevPAR). Most practitioners and researchers would argue that AirBnB demand and target markets are different from those of the hotel industry. So, who is using AirBnB? Most researchers would say that it is the millennials – young travellers or sometimes students who cannot afford to stay in a hotel. Nevertheless, it should be noted that this may not accurately describe all millennials, since they are the largest generation in the United States and also the largest in the country's work force (Fry, 2016). These millennials are the mainstream and future target customers for most lodging properties out there. Therefore, it is important not to review only the historical data to understand the impact, but rather the situation requires real-time data to reveal the future intentions of millennials to stay in an AirBnB listing vs a traditional hotel.

Out of the whole hotel industry, luxury is an important class that needs to be reviewed. Even though only 5% of hotel rooms are considered luxury globally (Mayock, 2015), millennials, unlike the silent generation (those born between the 1920s and 1940s) and baby boomers, do not have any personal loyalty to luxury brands and their features. For instance, hotel guests in luxury and upscale hotels have to pay for hi-speed Wi-Fi, whereas in AirBnB properties, Wi-Fi is free when it is available. By the way, Wi-Fi is the most important thing for millennials. This might be more critical for business travel, but when it comes to leisure travel, how will differences in offerings influence the preferences of leisure luxury hotels among millennials? This study delved into these factors and how they would influence the future of leisure travel, especially in the lodging industry, considering the increase in supply and demand in AirBnB type accommodations. Does AirBnB offer unique enough experiences to customers to lure the millennial market away from the "cookie cutter" hotels? The results of this study will offer key insights regarding the millennial demographic's future intentions to stay in leisure luxury hotels vs AirBnB-type luxury properties and this phenomenon's impact on the industry.

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Change as a travel benefit: Exploring the impact of travel experiences on Italian youth

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This paper aims, firstly, at identifying the main dimensions of perceived change induced in young people by a travel experience and, secondly, at understanding which dimensions of the tourism experience have the greatest influence on this change. A survey was designed based on the contemporary literature and validated through a series of in-depth, semi-structured interviews with experts. Data were collected from a representative sample of 400 young Italian travellers. Principal Components Analysis (PCA) identified two dimensions of perceived personal change. The first dimension is linked to cultural knowledge and openness to other cultures, while the second relates to the introspective benefits that allow young travellers to enhance their self-understanding. By using logistic regression models, the influence of sociodemographic variables and the tourism experience on the two change dimensions were identified. This study confirms the potentiality of tourism to promote change in the young traveller. Moreover, in answering its first aim, it shows that change is a two-dimensional construct involving personal and interpersonal change. Regarding the second research aim, this study has contributed to a more solid distinction between meaning and motivation to travel. Results moreover show that meaning, motivation and satisfaction are the components of the travel experience that exercise a significant influence on the perceived change.

Keywords: youth tourism, millennial travel experience, personal and interpersonal change

Introduction

This paper investigates the impact of youth travel on personal development and focuses on those travellers born between 1980 and 2000, the so-called "millennial" generation (Richards & Wilson, 2003; Glover, 2010). This generation is considered to look at the world through a global lens and to show an attitude of openness to new experiences. Research suggests that millennials are usually confident in themselves, are connected thought social networks, and use these and the internet to plan holidays and trave, are aspirational and promote change (Benckendorff, Moscardo & Pendergast, 2010; Rainer & Rainer, 2011; Ruspini, Gilli & Decataldo, 2013). These characteristics of millennials are often summarised with three Cs: Confident, Connected and (open to) Change. However, research focused on how travelling impacts on these three Cs, and especially on the last of the Cs, is limited. Therefore this article focuses on perceived personal change as a travel benefit. The target group of this study is young Italians aged between 16 and 29 years who travelled independently of their family or an organisation in 2010/2011. The aim of this article is twofold: firstly, to identify the main dimensions of perceived change induced in young people by a travel experience; and, secondly, to understand which components of the tourism experience have the greatest influence on this change.

Literature review

Specific benefits expected from a tourism experience, such as personal development and change, depend on what the traveller is looking to experience. As briefly pointed out in the introduction, "millennials" are thought to share characteristics that set them apart from other generations (Benckendorff, Moscardo & Pendergast, 2010; Rainer & Rainer, 2011; Ruspini, Gilli & Decataldo, 2013). It is therefore relevant to single out this group when researching travel benefits. Although there is some debate on the possibility of investigating behavioural patterns by using generations and thus incurring the risk of downplaying individual differences, it is also acknowledged that focusing on generations is useful from a professional perspective and feasible from an academic viewpoint (Glover, 2010).

Focusing on the travel experience of "millennials" is not only interesting because of their shared characteristics, but also because academic literature has dedicated little attention to youth tourism, preferring to focus on workplace expectations and consumer behaviour of the millennial generation (Glover, 2010). Consequently the existing research on youth travel is fragmented (Richards & Wilson, 2004; Staffieri, 2016). The lack of interest in youth travel is surprising because youngsters in general and the millennial generation in particular have a significant social and economic impact not only on the present, but also on the future of the tourism industry (Cavagnaro & Staffieri, 2015). Economically the total value of international youth travel was estimated at US$190 billion in 2009 (Richards, 2011). The same study found that on a major trip young people spend on average of US$2 600, which is almost three times more than an average tourist. From a sociocultural perspective, it has moreover been observed that young people are an innovative force and that their choices may lead to new approaches to tourism by the wider society (Martinengo &

Savoja, 1993; Fermani, Crocetti, & Carradori, 2011). Therefore new developments in tourism behaviour can be anticipated by describing young people's present behaviour (Leask, Fyall & Barron, 2013; Cavagnaro & Staffieri, 2015). The economic and sociocultural impact of the young tourist segment underlies the importance of investigating this target group and identifying the benefits they receive from a travel experience.

Research on (youth) tourism identifies several benefits derived from travelling (Chen & Petrick, 2013; Durko & Petrick, 2013; Petrick & Huether, 2013; Chen, Petrick & Shahvali, 2016). Primarily, travelling is seen as an important step in the training and knowledge development of young people. It is an opportunity for cultural exchange and socialisation, which has the potential to make young people more open-minded (Leed, 1991; Gemini, 2008). As the United Nations World Tourism Organization and the World Youth Student & Educational Travel Confederation (WTO & WYSETC) noted: "The majority of young travellers feel that they have broadened their horizons and become more open-minded, flexible, confident and tolerant as a result of their travel experience" (WTO & WYSETC, 2008, p. xii).

In addition to broadening his/her horizons, the young traveller develops his/her communication skills, both within the group of travelling friends and with the people he/she meets at the destination (Mattioli, 1998). Furthermore, the tourism experience meets the young people's need to expand the boundaries of everyday reality (Buzzi, Cavalli & De Lillo, 2007) and encourages the deepening of core values such as respect and trust towards others (Leed, 1991; Higgins-Desbiolles, 2006; Smed, 2009). As several authors have noted, the relationship with other young people enriches the relationship with the self, giving rise to the construction of the traveller's identity (Leed, 1991; Martinengo & Savoya, 1993; Gemini, 2008; WTO & WYSETC, 2008; Stone & Petrick, 2013). For these reasons, travel is considered a radical experience of the individual traveller (Buzzi, Cavalli & De Lillo, 2007; Moisă, 2010). Independence is a key concept here: travelling gives young people the opportunity to experience independence and this, in some cases, leads to the further development of traits of his/her personality. Parallel to the development of the young travellers' independence, the journey promotes knowledge of the self, of others and of the cultures with which the traveller comes into contact, (Leask, Fyall & Barron, 2013; Ruspini, 2013).

In sum, the literature suggests that the benefits that young people derive from travel range from cultural exchange, socialisation and developing an open mind to deepening core values, (re)-constructing their own identity and experiencing personal change. This range may be reduced to a dichotomy between forces pushing toward the other and forces pushing toward the self (Leed, 1991). In other words, benefits individuated by the literature such as cultural exchange, socialisation and developing an open mind are a result of forces pushing towards the other, leading to change in the relationship between the self and the other; while deepening core values and personality development are connected with the forces pushing towards the self and leading to interpersonal change. Interestingly, no reference is made in the literature to changes in the way a traveller perceives his/her relationship with the natural environment. In this light, it can be concluded, in order to investigate benefits that young people derive from a travel experience, it is essential to explore the transformation and change of the traveller's identity in regard to themselves and in regard to others (Leed, 1991). However, research that examines the perceived value and benefits of tourist behaviour focuses mostly on satisfaction and loyalty (Prebensen, Woo & Uysal, 2013; Cohen, Prayag & Moital, 2014), leaving practically unexplored the dimension of change. This study wishes to close this gap by assessing whether youngsters perceive both intrapersonal and interpersonal change after a travel experience.

It should be considered, though, that the value that tourists derive from being in a location for an extended period of time is more than a trade-off between quality and price, and includes social, emotional and epistemic benefits (Prebensen, Woo & Uysal, 2014). As such, benefits, including perceived change through travel, reside more in the experience than in the object of consumption, and should be researched in relation to the different phases of a travel experience. Therefore, the present research investigates change as a travel benefit in relation not only to the main sociodemographic variables, but also to the main phases of the travel experience (Prebensen, Woo & Uysal, 2013; Staffieri, 2016), i.e. the need recognition (including meaning given to and motivation for travelling), the experience itself (here condensed in the destination choice) and the post-experience evaluation (satisfaction).

Meaning "brings to the surface the general needs associated with travelling and is heavily related with the symbolic character of travelling" (Cavagnaro, Staffieri & Postma, in press). It is the "combination of the needs and the desires that affect the propensity to travel in a general sense" (O'Leary & Deegan, 2003, p. 247). Previous studies have concluded that millennials attribute to travel a self-enhancing and self-transcending meaning. Travelling is self-enhancing in the sense that it allows them to escape the quotidian and experience novelty (WTO & WYSE, 2016). It is self-transcending because it embraces the need of being in contact with other people and with nature (Cavagnaro & Staffieri, 2015). In contrast to the more general bearing of travel meaning, motivations have an immediate influence on a specific travel choice. Though the difference between meaning and motivation has not always been properly upheld in the existing literature, it may still be stated that previous studies on youth tourism have identified several motives such as socialising, building friendships, seeking adventure, exploring other cultures, being in contact with nature, resting and relaxing, and furthering personal knowledge and education (Richards & Wilson, 2003; Tibon, 2012; Staffieri, 2016). The relationship between motivations and other constructs, such as perceived value at the destination, and satisfaction, has also been widely studied in the tourism literature, leading to the insight that motivations largely influence the whole tourism experience (for a review, see Prebensen, Woo & Uysal, 2013). Moreover, research has pointed to the importance of considering the tourism destination not only as a pull factor influencing the tourists' choices (e.g. Yoon & Uysal, 2005), but also in its relation to other constructs pertaining to the tourism experience – such as motivation – that may influence the way in which a traveller perceive the destination's value (Prebensen, Woo & Uysal, 2013). Considering satisfaction, finally, research has concluded that this phase of the travel experience is also influenced by motivation (Yoon & Uysal, 2005; Staffieri, 2016). Summing up, existing literature is not only valuable for the support it provides in categorising the benefits perceived by youngsters after travelling, and their meaning and motivations to travel, but also and foremost because it clearly shows that the several phases of a travel experience should be studied conjointly.

The aim of this paper is to improve our understanding of youth travel behaviour by focusing on change as benefit in a travel experience and by assessing which of the several dimensions of the tourism experience impacts on the perceived change. Specifically, we wish to assess whether, as suggested by the literature, youngsters perceive intrapersonal and interpersonal change after a tourism experience; and whether sociodemographic variables and the phases of a tourism experience (meaning, motivation, destination chosen and satisfaction) influence the perceived change.

Research approach

An electronic questionnaire was designed to manage the sequence of questions through filters and rules. A private company[1] prepared the lists sample (telephone numbers), computerised the questionnaire and provided the software for scheduling the survey. The sample was stratified on two variables: geographical area (north, central, and south Italy) and type of municipality of residence of the phone user (capital/non-capital of the province). Twenty samples were prepared (telephone contacts) in order to obtain names to be used should replacements be necessary, for example due to non-response (for rejection or unavailability), or in such a case as the person contacted via the telephone is not a suitable respondent (aged between 16 and 29 years) and who had taken at least one trip independently during 2010/2011. The sample size of 400 respondents was set above the amount of 300 respondents considered as a good sample size by Comfrey and Lee (1992).

As no existing scale was found in the literature to verify whether youngsters perceive change as a travel benefit, a scale needed to be developed for this study. The development followed a three-step process. First, existing academic literature on the benefits of travel was scanned (e.g. Pearce, Filep & Ross, 2011) and benefits suggested by this literature were listed. Second, this list was compared with the outcomes of research carried out by WTO and WYSETC in 2005 (2008). This research was conducted using mailing lists provided by members of WYSETC in

Canada, the Czech Republic, Germany, Ghana, Ireland, Mexico, the Russian Federation, South Africa, the United Kingdom and the United States of America. In total, 1 452 pre-trip responses and 510 post-trip responses were collected. It was therefore possible to measure directly the changes in attitudes of the same respondents pre- and post-travel (WTO & WYSETC, 2008, p. 37).

In line with the literature on youngsters' motives for travelling (e.g. Richards & Wilson, 2003; Tibon, 2012), the WTO and WYSEC research found a vast array of reasons, including increasing knowledge, exploring other cultures, interacting with local people, and building friendships. Moreover, the study upheld the existing insights on perceived travel benefits (e.g. Leed, 1991) by concluding that young travellers perceive change both in the way they conceive of their own identity (becoming more confident, for example) and in the way they interrelate with others (becoming more tolerant, for example). Combining the insights from the existing literature and the outcomes of the WTO and WYSE survey, a list of 10 items was developed to measure perceived change as a benefit gained from travelling. The third and last step was aimed at evaluating whether these 10 items matched the Italian situation. To this scope, twenty Italian experts were asked to assess the items during in-depth interviews. All experts agreed with the proposed items. Considering the specific situation of the Italian youth confronted with high levels of unemployment and often looking abroad for employment opportunities, one expert (Respondent number 4, personal communication, 4 March 2012), suggested inclusion of one item related to job opportunities: *"The travel/experience provided me with job opportunities"* (Staffieri, 2016). The final instrument was therefore composed of 11 items, and a degree of agreement on a Likert scale of one to five was set for each item.

Results

This section reports the study's results, starting with an illustration of the sample. It proceeds to answer the study's first research question, i.e. whether young travellers perceive changed both personally and interpersonally. It then concludes by evaluating the impact of demographic variables and the travel experience's components (meaning, motivation, destination, and satisfaction) on the perceived change, thus answering the second research question.

Sample

The survey reached 401 young travellers living in Italy. Respondents' ages varied between 16 and 29 years. The most consistent age group is formed by 21–25 year olds (35.2%), followed by 16–20 (33.9%) and 26–29 (30.9%). This fits with the definition of young traveller used for this study. In Table 1, other demographic data are summarised. The demographic profile of the respondents does not significantly differ from the population (see Table 1).

In addition to sociodemographic characteristics, the data permits us to design a profile of the young respondents' tourism behaviour and to explore whether sociodemographic variables have an influence on this behaviour. Looking at the family history, 85% of respondents had enjoyed at least one trip with their family of origin in the last two years. In the same period, all respondents have travelled independently. Having travelled independently was the eligibility condition of participating in the survey. On average, respondents undertook

Table 1: Overview of demographic data

		%
Gender	Men	51.4
	Women	49.6
Nationality	Italian	97.1
	Other	2.9
Education	Elementary/low	14.5
	Intermediate	55.5
	High/university	19.9
Area of residence	North	50.5
	Central	20.4
	South	29.2
Living situation	With family of origin	92.5
	Independently	7.5

1.4 trips independently in the last two years. 75.2% of the sample carried out only a single trip, while 15.2% undertook two trips, and 6.3% three trips.

Age groups and gender did not have a significant influence on the average number of independently undertaken trips. There is, however, a statistically significant influence ($p < 0.05$) by the area of residence. Young people living in the north of Italy undertook on average 1.5 trips, compared with 1.4 and 1.2 of young people living in the south and centre of the country respectively. This result is interesting because it suggests that while young women and men have achieved the same degree of liberty when it comes to travelling, young people from the north still have an advantage when compared to their peers from less economically strong regions.

Perceived change

This section addresses the question of whether young travellers perceive themselves to be changed though a travel experience by firstly describing the answers given on the 11-item scale measuring change as a travel benefit, and secondly sharing the results of a Principal Component Analysis (PCA) performed to test whether these items could be reduced to underlying constructs. Table 2 reports the degree of agreement with the items on the change scale. The highest level of agreement is observed for the following three items: "*The travel/experience gave me a taste for more travel*" (83.5%), "*The travel/experience has contributed to my personal growth*" (75.8%) and "*The travel/experience allowed me to socialise with different people*" (74.5%). Interestingly, significantly lower levels of agreement are observed in correspondence of items related to changing of one's life (19.3%) and changing the way of being (27.3%). Lowest of all is the level of agreement with the ability to find job opportunities through travelling (12.1%).[2]

In order to verify the internal consistency of the items in the change scale, Cronbach's alpha coefficient[3] is calculated. The Cronbach's alpha coefficient is 0.800. When one item is eliminated *("The travel experience provided me with job opportunities"*), then this value increases to 0.825.[4] Therefore, this item was dropped from the scale and will not be considered in further analysis. Subsequently, in order to reduce the number of variables and discover eventual underlying constructs, a PCA was conducted on the remaining 10 items (see Table 3). The PCA suggested the extraction of two components explaining 58.5% of the total variance. The suitability of the analysis has been verified using Kaiser-Meyer-Olin (KMO = 0.824).[5]

The first component extracted through PCA is related to cultural knowledge and openness regarding other cultures. The second component relates to the introspective nature of change that allows the young person to get in touch with him/herself and to know him/herself better. In short, it may be said that these two components or dimensions of change reflect the dichotomy identified by Leed (1991) in the existing literature on travel benefits between the push toward the other and the pull toward the self. This study's results therefore confirm that young travellers perceived changed on a personal and interpersonal level after a travel experience.

Table 2: Degree of agreement related to the items of the change (percentage values)

Items of the perceived change	Strongly disagree/ disagree more than agree	Neither agree nor disagree/ indifferent	Agree more than disagree/ strongly agree
1. The travel/experience allowed me to socialise with different people	12.3	13.2	74.5
2. The travel/experience has contributed to my personal growth	12.5	11.7	75.8
3. The travel/experience helped me gain a greater cultural awareness	18.9	13.1	68.1
4. The travel/experience increased my openness to other cultures	19.6	16.0	64.4
5. The travel/experience change my way of being	54.2	18.5	27.3
6. The travel allowed me to know myself better	37.8	17.3	44.9
7. The travel/experienced allowed me to express myself in new ways	41.3	21.3	37.4
8. The travel/experience provided me with job opportunities	81.8	6.0	12.1
9. The travel/experience changed my life	68.0	12.6	19.3
10. The travel/experience gave me a taste for more travel	10.4	6.1	83.5
11. The travel/experience broadened my horizons	19.1	17.6	63.3

Table 3: Principal component analysis figures

Component	Item/category	Description
Change perceived*: "I and you"	The travel/experience helped me gain a greater cultural awareness The travel/experience increased my openness to other cultures The travel/experience has contributed to my personal growth The travel/experience gave me a taste for more travel The travel/experience allowed me to socialize with different people The travel/experience broadened my horizons	First component (FC), obtained from PCA, of the ten items related to the concept of change. FC variance explained = 32.5% Total variance explained = 58.5% KMO = 0.824
Change perceived*: "I"	The travel/experience change my way of being The travel/experience changed my life The travel/experienced allowed me to express myself in new ways The travel allowed me to know myself better	Second component (SC), obtained from PCA, of the ten items related to the concept of change. SC variance explained = 26.0% Total variance explained = 58.5% KMO = 0.824

Note: The order of the items in the table corresponds to their contribution to the new component.

This point stated, the question still needs to be answered about which components of the travel experience impact most on perceived personal and interpersonal change. To answer this question, starting from the two components of change individuated above, two binary variables were computed, considering the median value as a discriminator. Then these two new variables were used as dependent variables in logistic regression[6] models in which sociodemographic variables (such as gender, age group and family educational level) and the components of the travel experience were used as independent variables (Staffieri, 2016). How the components of the travel experience were calculated is described in the section below.

Influence of demographic variables and the travel experience components on the perceived change

This section is dedicated to answering the second research question of this study, i.e. whether demographic variables and the travel experience's components (meaning, motivation, destination, and satisfaction) impact on the perceived change. In order to do so, on the basis of the gathered data, the travel experience is deconstructed and its main components revealed. This analysis concludes with a table presenting all independent variables, i.e. demographics and the components of the travel experience. Secondly, the results of the logistic regression models used to assess the influence of the independent variables on the perceived change are presented and discussed.

The tourism experience's components

As noted in the literature review, a tourism experience may be deconstructed in three phases: needs recognition, with the sub-components of meaning given to travel and motivation to travel; the experience itself; and the evaluation of the experience. Pre-existing scales were used to measures these constructs (Cavagnaro & Staffieri, 2015; Staffieri, 2016; Cavagnaro, Staffieri & Postma, in press). The scales measuring meaning and motivation contained several items that were reduced through PCA to their underlying constructs (Staffieri, 2016). The PCA identified five meanings associated with the travel, and three motivations for undertaking the travel that were labelled by looking at the common denominator of the subtending items (see Table 4).

A contribution of this study is to have individuated five meanings and three motivations, thus more clearly distinguishing these two components of the travel experience that are often coalesced in the literature. The individuated meaning, moreover, not only confirms the suggestion that that millennials attribute to travel a self-enhancing and self-transcending meaning (Cavagnaro & Staffieri, 2015; WTO & WYSE, 2016), but also suggest the importance of health as a component and not as an outcome of the travel experience (Fermani, et al., in press). Looking at motivations, it is interesting to observe that the third motivation extracted by PCA connects the items on independency with the item about following a mode. To complete the set of independent variables, in Table 4, destination choice illustrates the experience phase, while satisfaction covers the evaluation phase. After completing the list of independent variables, it is now time to consider whether these have any influence on the perceived change. This is the aim of the next section.

Impact of sociodemographic variables and the travel experience on perceived change

The dependent and independent variables have been presented above. This section illustrates the results of the logistic regression models testing the influence of demographic factors and the tourism experience on the perceived change. As explained above, the items measuring change as a benefit from travel have been reduced through a PCA to two dimensions of change: one related to cultural knowledge and openness to other cultures, and one related to introspection and personal change. The first dimension has been labelled "*I and You change*"; the second "*I change*". To assess the influence on these two dimensions of change of sociodemographic variables and of the components of the travel experience, two logistics models were run. The models were tested using the Hosmer-Lemeshow (HL) test, especially suitable in the case of small sample sizes. If the HL test statistic is not significant, the model fit is acceptable (Hosmer & Lemeshow, 2000). The HL statistic test confirms the goodness of fit for all of the logistic regression models carried out. The sociodemographic variables (gender, age group, father's and mother's education levels) do not seem to have any influence on the two dimensions of change. For this reason these variables are not reported in Table 5 where the results of the logistic regressions are shown.

Several components of the travel experience influence the type of change perceived. Four out of five meanings of travel influence change significantly. The meanings "*knowledge*" and "*physical and mental well-being*" increase the propensity of feeling changed in terms of cultural growth ("I and you" change). Personal, introspective change is influenced by the meanings "*friend/romances, changing/growing*" and "*sociality*". However, while the first meaning increases the likelihood of "I change", the second decreases it. Meaning three ("*fun, relax*") is not conducive to change. Similarly, the travel motivation "*fun, relax, and friend*" is also not conducive to change. Respondents who travel in order to learn about different cultures and interact with other people ("*knowledge*") are more likely to experience cultural growth. Moreover, the likelihood of being changed both in terms of personal and of cultural growth increases when the motivation to travel is "*independency and vogue*".

Commenting on these results in general terms, it can be noted that they confirm that motivation is a driver of change (Prebensen, Woo & Uysal, 2013). More specifically, the positive influence of the motivation and the meaning labelled "*knowledge*" on the "I and you" change may be explained with reference to the items constituting these constructs: all point towards the wish to know new cultures, explore new ways of life and deepen understanding of other cultures and people. This result therefore confirms literature suggesting that travelling offers to youngsters the opportunity to transcend themselves (Cavagnaro & Staffieri, 2015) and that cultural exchange and socialisation have the potential to make young people more open-minded (e.g. Gemini, 2008). It is more difficult to understand why the motivation "*physical and mental well-being*" positively influences this type of change. Tentatively, it could be argued that being engaged in a reflective process involving spiritual and bodily health sets a firm psychological foundation from which it is easier to open up to the other. Researchers have only recently started considering

Table 4: Set of independent variables

Independent variables	Categories
Gender	Male/female
Age group	16–20/21–25/26–29
Father's education level	Low/medium/high
Mother's education level	Low/medium/high
Meaning 1"knowledge" (a) to discover and experience new cultures to explore different ways of life to acquire and deepen knowledge of art, history to live authentically	Binary variable, built considering the median value of the first component (FC) obtained from PCA, of the 18 items related to the concept of motivation. FC variance explained = 15.2% Total variance explained = 57.9% KMO = 0.826
Meaning 2 "friend/romances, changing/growing" (a) To make new friends to meet many people to change to have holiday romances to grow	Binary variable, built considering the median value of the second component (FC) obtained from PCA, of the 18 items related to the concept of motivation. FC variance explained = 14.7% Total variance explained = 57.9% KMO = 0.826
Meaning 3 "fun, relax" (a) entertainment (nightlife, pubs) escape from everyday life to rest and relax	Binary variable, built considering the median value of the third component (FC) obtained from PCA, of the 18 items related to the concept of motivation. FC variance explained = 9.9% Total variance explained = 57.9% KMO = 0.826
Meaning 4 "physical and mental well-being" (a) to explore a meaningful path of faith to improve health to live in contact with nature	Binary variable, built considering the median value of the fourth component (FC) obtained from PCA, of the 18 items related to the concept of motivation. FC variance explained = 9.7% Total variance explained = 57.9% KMO = 0.826
Meaning 5 "sociality" (a) to not have tensions with fellow travellers being with friends to live in contact with local people	Binary variable, built considering the median value of the fifth component (FC) obtained from PCA, of the 18 items related to the concept of motivation. FC variance explained = 8.4% Total variance explained = 57.9% KMO = 0.826
Motivation 1 "fun, relax and friends" (a) I travelled in order to have fun I travelled in order to relax I travelled in order to have a break from everyday life I travelled in order to interact with my friends	Binary variable, built considering the median value of the first component (FC) obtained from PCA, of the nine items related to the concept of motivation. FC variance explained = 23.0% Total variance explained = 60.4% KMO = 0.724
Motivation 2 "knowledge" (a) I travelled in order to discover different cultures I travelled in order to see the beauty of the destination I travelled in order to meet new people	Binary variable, built considering the median value of the second component (FC) obtained from PCA, of the nine items related to the concept of motivation. FC variance explained = 20.0% Total variance explained = 60.4% KMO = 0.724
Motivation 3 "independency and vogue" (a) I travelled in order to feel more independent I travelled in order because most people think that it is necessary to do at least a trip once in one's life	Binary variable, built considering the median value of the third component (FC) obtained from PCA, of the nine items related to the concept of motivation. FC variance explained = 17.4% Total variance explained = 60.4% KMO = 0.724
Destination	Italy/Europe/Outside Europe
Satisfaction (a) (b) The travel was a positive experience I found happiness from my travel I consider the experience of the travel favourable I would like to repeat this experience The travel was a satisfied experience I will recommend to others to do the same travel The tourism experience gave me back a deep sense of joy and fulfilment	Binary variable, built considering the median value of the first component (FC) obtained from PCA, of the seven items related to the concept of satisfaction. FC variance explained = 71.7% Total variance explained = 71.7% KMO = 0.914

(a) The items related to the meaning, motivation and satisfaction of the travel are measured through a five-point Likert scale (Strongly disagree, Disagree, Neither agree nor disagree/Indifferent, Agree, Strongly agree);

(b) The Cronbach's alpha coefficient, calculated in correspondence of the seven items, is equal to 0.93, which suggests that the items have excellent internal consistency; the scale used effectively measures a single dimension on satisfaction with the tourist experience. This result is also confirmed from the PCA conducted on the seven items. In fact, a single component is extracted that is able to explain 71.7% of the total variance.

Table 5: Results of the logistic regression model

	Change perceived: "I and you"			Change perceived: "I"		
	Coeff. b	Sig.	Exp(B)	Coeff. b	Sig.	Exp(B)
Meaning 1 "knowledge" (ref. No)						
Yes	0.889	0.001**	2.432	0.126	0.581	1.134
Meaning 2 "friend/romances, changing/growing" (ref. No)						
Yes	0.351	0.212	1.421	0.821	0.000***	2.274
Meaning 3 "fun, relax" (ref. No)						
Yes	0.142	0.609	1.153	–0.291	0.195	0.747
Meaning 4 "physical and mental well-being" (ref. No)						
Yes	0.572	0.043*	1.771	0.371	0.098†	1.450
Meaning 5 "sociality" (ref. No)						
Yes	–0.183	0.502	0.833	–0.503	0.023*	0.605
Motivation 1 "fun, relax and friends" (ref. No)						
Yes	0.136	0.632	1.145	0.287	0.210	1.333
Motivation 2 "knowledge" (ref. No)						
Yes	2.059	0.000***	7.835	–0.168	0.485	0.845
Motivation 3 "independency and vogue" (ref. No)						
Yes	0.653	0.020*	1.921	0.951	0.000***	2.587
Destination (ref. Italy)		0.009**			0.251	
Inside Europe (excl. Italy)	0.500	0.093†	1.649	–0.230	0.342	0.794
Outside Europe	1.449	0.003**	4.257	0.341	0.369	1.407
Satisfaction (ref. No)						
Yes	1.716	0.000***	5.561	0.303	0.214	1.354
Constant	–3.578	0.000***	0.028	–0.876	0.010*	0.416
Number of cases		400			400	
Hosmer-Lemeshow test		not significant			not significant	
Percentage of observations that are correctly classified		78.6%			65.8%	

Note: ***$p < 0.001$; **$p < 0.01$; *$p < 0.05$; †$p < 0.10$

psychological health as an antecedent and not as a consequence of travelling (Fermani, et al., in press). A deeper exploration of linkages between psychological health, travel and change through travel is therefore needed to test this explanation.

As noted above, the "I" change is positively influenced only by the meaning labelled "*friends/romance*" and the motivation "*independency and vogue*". The items constituting these two dimensions of the tourism experience reflect the emotional component of travelling. This result supports Leed's (1991) observation that the push towards the other and the push towards the self, interact as mirrors and reflections, and lead to personal growth. The meaning "*sociality*" decreases the eventuality of being changed. This may be explained because the items composing it (such as no tensions with fellow travellers) are linked to the process of travelling itself. A focus on the actual travel process may distract the traveller from the self-reflection needed to deepen personal values and perceive a change (Higgins-Desbiolles, 2006; Smed, 2009). A similar explanation can be used to clarify why the meaning and motivation connected to the hedonic component of travelling have no influence on change. Moreover, all travelling may be framed as a hedonic activity (Kim, Ritchie & McCormick, 2012) leading to the reflection that this generic characteristic is insufficient to motivate young travellers to change. Interestingly, the chosen destination influences the level to which the travel is conducive to change in terms of cultural growth. Young people who choose a destination outside Italy feel a change in their openness towards other cultures more acutely than those who chose Italian destinations. Contrary to literature that considers geographical distance insignificant due to the digital age (Wilson & Gerber, 2008; Ruspini, Gilli, Decataldo & Del Greco, 2013), for the Italian sample the geographical distance covered during a trip does indeed matter: destinations outside Italy lead to encounters with cultures that – being more acutely different from the local, Italian culture – favour the "I and you" change. Whether this is a peculiar characteristic of young Italian travellers may only be assessed in new research covering a sample form different regions. Finally, the perception of satisfaction positively affects change. Even though this is true only for cultural change, it confirms the role of satisfaction as influencer in the evaluation processes of the tourism experience (Prebensen, Woo & Uysal, 2013).

Conclusions

The aim of this study was twofold: on one side it wished to identify the main dimensions of perceived change induced in young people by a travel experience and, on the other, to understand which dimensions of the tourism experience have the greatest influence on this change. Regarding the first aim, the study confirms that a tourism experience leads to changes in the young traveller. Moreover, it confirms the intuition of Leed (1991) that there are two main components of change: one directed towards the other and one directed towards the self. The tourism practice may indeed be conceived as a cultural laboratory in which people have the opportunity to experience and learn new cultures through social relationships and reaching destinations outside their usual environment (Löfgren, 1999). Travelling alters the structures of meaning and increases the traveller's educational and cultural level (Leed, 1991; Gemini, 2008; Gilli, 2009) and is therefore conducive to an experience of maturation and cultural growth.

The second aim of this study was to assess in a simultaneous model the influence of the tourism experience (meaning, motivation, destination, and satisfaction) on the two change dimensions. Results show that not all dimensions of the tourism experience influence change through travel equally. They confirm, though, the role of motivation as driver and of satisfaction as influencer of change (Prebensen, Woo & Uysal, 2013). This result provides a more detailed picture of the relationship between the different aspects involved in the change process. The influence exercised by meaning, motivation and satisfaction confirms and integrates earlier research underlining the impact of the travel experience on young people's minds (WTO & WYSETC, 2008). Additionally, the present study shows that young people travelling abroad feel more acutely changed than those who chose destinations close to their place of residence. Young people who choose a destination outside Italy more strongly experience a change in their openness towards other people and cultures. By travelling abroad, they experience cultural growth by learning about different cultures and interacting with other people. To sum up, they experience the broadening of horizons and express the desire to engage in more tourism experiences that is postulated in the literature (WTO & WYSETC, 2008).

The research results confirm the importance of the topic investigated and represent a useful and strategic information base for the definition of policies in support of youth tourism. Some critical issues have emerged during the research phases: the change studied is not the result of a measurement between two observations (pre- and post-tourism experiences), but as it is perceived by the young people at a specific point in time. Most studies in this area present this problem and the difficulty of measuring the performance post-experience (Pearce, 2011). Moreover, the change dimensions investigated may not be exhaustive. Future, longitudinal studies should improve on these weaknesses by trying to discover new potential change dimensions, by measuring change at different times (before and after the tourism experience), by replicating this research in other geographic areas and by considering more variables involved in the tourism experience such as psychological well-being and leisure-oriented versus study-orientated travel.

Notes

1. Demetra Opinioni.net srl (Venezia).
2. The item (as noted in the research method section) has been eliminated from the scale due to the low Cronbach value.
3. Cronbach's alpha is a measure of internal consistency. A high value of alpha is used to indicate that the items measure an underlying factor or dimension. To verify the unidimensionality of the used scale, it is necessary to carry out additional factor analysis (Lavrakas, 2008).
4. The exclusion of the item "The travel/experience provided me with job opportunities" has allowed us to improve the reliability of the scale used to measure change.
5. The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) value is a measure of appropriateness of factor analysis.
6. Logistic regression fixes the influence of multiple independent variables existing simultaneously to predict belonging to one or other of the two dependent variable categories (Hosmer & Lemeshow, 2000).

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Psychological empowerment and organisational change among hotel employees in Egypt

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Empowering employees can have a significant impact on increasing job satisfaction, efficiency and productivity in the hotel industry. This paper aims to investigate the effect of empowerment on readiness for and acceptance of organisational changes among employees in Egyptian chain hotels. The study used a survey questionnaire to examine psychological empowerment across four dimensions (meaning, competence, self-determination, and impact) and readiness for change. Data were collected from 386 employees in chain hotels in Egypt, and the relationships between variables were examined using correlation and multiple regression analysis. The results show that there were no correlations between acceptance of change and any individual dimension of psychological empowerment. However, the regression analysis shows that psychological empowerment had a slight, but significant, positive effect on acceptance of organisational change. The overall model explained 2.7% of the variance in organisational change. Both "meaning" and "impact" constructs were significant, although "meaning" had a slight negative effect. These findings suggest that hotel managers should consider the effect of psychological empowerment when preparing for organisational change, although this is only one factor which should be taken into account.

Keywords: psychological empowerment, organisational change, hospitality industry, Egypt

Introduction

In recent years, the idea of employee empowerment has developed increasing influence in the hospitality and service sector (Kruja, Ha, Drishti & Oelfke, 2016). It is considered to be one of the most efficient methods of increasing productivity and efficiency, as well as improving guest satisfaction (Lee & Ok, 2015a; 2015b; Kruja et al., 2016). Empowerment has been found to help increase employee productivity and efficiency across a wide range of sectors. It can also improve employee satisfaction and help to retain the best employees (Elnaga & Imran, 2014; Fernandez & Moldogaziev, 2015; Lee & Ok, 2015b).

Empowerment concerns the relationship between managers and employees. Managers are defined as those who make decisions that guide employees through their work. Employees are the subject of decisions made by managers, but can also be actively involved in decisions as they participate in the processes of a job or organisation (Kim, 2011; Kara, 2012; Al-khasawneh, 2013; Fernandez, & Moldogaziev, 2015). This suggests that it is likely to be important to empower employees in any organisation. When employees are given authority and responsibility, and are provided with a suitable environment in which to work, they will significantly contribute to the organisation's ability to achieve its objectives (Elnaga & Imran, 2014; Fernandez & Moldogaziev, 2015; Lee & Ok, 2015a; 2015b).

Hospitality is a service industry, provided from a variety of venues, including hotels, motels, resorts, clubs, and restaurants. The industry has a wide range of management structures and ownership arrangements, ranging from independent owner-operators to chain operators. The hospitality industry is not seen as a major user of technology, but is in reality reliant upon fairly sophisticated computer equipment for reservations, accounting and monitoring of energy consumption (Kim, 2011; Kara, 2012; Al-khasawneh, 2013). Operational management systems, marketing and finance vary in their sophistication, depending principally upon the size of the company. The staff and customers probably have the biggest impact upon how the process of providing hospitality is carried out. The use of tacit skills – those that interpret the contextual framework and acknowledge the shared perception of customers and staff – are crucial to the enhancement of the service experience (Blanchard, Carlos & Randolph, 2001; Curtis & Lucas, 2001; Mills & Ungson, 2003). Employee perceptions of their organisation, expressed through the concept of "organisational climate" and the employees' relationship with customers are also crucial to the success of the enterprise.

A wide range of research has been conducted across the hospitality industry, and on empowerment. There are, however, few if any studies that specifically focus on the effect of empowerment on organisational performance in hotels. There are studies on empowerment within the hotel industry (Kim, 2011; Kara, 2012; Al-khasawneh, 2013), but these studies have tended to concentrate on how organisational climate can be translated into an indicator of organisational effectiveness. A recent study on psychological empowerment among primary healthcare workers in Iran suggested that it could improve readiness for, and acceptance of, organisational change (Khammarnia, Ravangard & Asadi, 2014).

The aim of this exploratory study was therefore to evaluate the effect of empowerment among hotel employees on their acceptance of organisational change. It sought to answer the question: "Does employee psychological empowerment affect employee acceptance of organisational change?" A detailed literature review was carried out and a scale to measure empowerment was developed. 385 hotel employees working in the Egyptian hotel sector completed this via a self-administered questionnaire survey.

Employee empowerment

The concept of empowerment has been increasingly used in management in recent years. Scholars in the field have discussed and developed the understanding of empowerment using various perspectives (Eby, Adams, Russell & Gaby, 2000; Weber & Weber, 2001; Cunningham et al., 2002; Madsen, Miller & John, 2005; Rafferty & Simons, 2006; Lam, Cho & Qu, 2007; Kim, 2011; Fachruddin & Mangundjaya, 2012; Kara, 2012; Al-khasawneh, 2013), and several definitions have been proposed. Some authors have suggested that empowering employees is part of the overall management process, in which authority and power is delegated to employees to involve them in the decision-making process and improve organisational productivity (Lee & Koh, 2001). Pardo del Val and Lloyd (2003, p. 102) defined empowerment as the "involvement of employees in the decision-making process". The concept of empowerment has also been studied from the psychological or motivational perspective, where it is considered to be a strategy to increase feelings of self-efficacy and motivation among organisation members. According to Jha (2011, p. 380), empowerment is "the process of enhancing feelings of self-efficacy among organisational members through the identification of conditions that foster powerlessness, and through their removal by both formal organisational practices and informal techniques of providing efficacy information". Other authors provide similar definitions, which consider empowerment to be designed to reduce "powerlessness and increase intrinsic task motivation" (Ahmad & Oranye, 2010, p. 583).

Although the empowerment literature offers different definitions of empowerment, most of these assume that empowerment implies giving employees more authority and discretion in performing work tasks. Thomas and Velthouse (1990, p. 667) offer a comprehensive definition of empowerment, stating as follows:

Our perception is that the word empowerment has become popular because it provides a label for a non-traditional paradigm of motivation…that encourage[s] commitment, risk-taking, and innovation…We use the word empowerment to refer to the motivational content of this newer paradigm of management.

This definition suggests there may be different understandings of empowerment in the literature. It describes two main perspectives of the empowerment concept, relational (or organisational) and motivational (or psychological). The literature identifies three common types of empowerment, leadership empowerment, structural empowerment, and psychological empowerment (Kuokkanen & Leino-Kilpi, 2000; Menon, 2001). This study examines the two most frequently used perspectives, *structural/relational* and *motivational/psychological*.

Empowerment as a relational construct

When empowerment is viewed as a relational construct, it is considered to be the relational process by which leaders or managers share their power with employees (Özaralli, 2003). The primary focus is on the authority of the actors (either manager or employee) within the managerial process. Empowering subordinates means they are allocated more power or authority over organisational resources. Many scholars have agreed that the central tenet of empowerment as a concept is to decentralise decision-making power to a lower level of management (Fulford & Enz, 1995; Morrison, Jones & Fuller, 1997).

This perspective therefore considers empowerment as a set of strategies including policy practices, and work processes to distribute responsibilities, authority and power to subordinates (Daft & Lewin, 1993; Chebat & Kollias, 2000). It includes specific aspects of decentralising authority, such as management by objectives, goal-setting by subordinates, and quality circles (Logan & Ganster, 2007; Raelin & Cataldo, 2011).

There are a number of definitions of structural empowerment including "management practices and policies that aimed to transfer power from management to employees" (Kassim, Yusoff & Fong, 2012, p. 133), and "freeing someone from rigorous control by instructions, policies, and orders, and giving that person freedom to take responsibility for ideas that he/she provides for management, decisions, and actions that he/she makes in the workplace context" (Melhem, 2004, p. 73). The main focus of structural empowerment is therefore to set out appropriate policies and practices in the organisational setting to distribute power, authority, and responsibility to the lower levels of the organisation.

The idea of structural empowerment is fostered by democratic values within an organisation. Empowerment is a mechanism in which responsibility and power are shared with individuals at all levels of a system (Prasad, 2001). The main focus of structural empowerment is on sharing power through a system set out for the purpose, in which employees participate and are given responsibility (Chang & Liu, 2008). The structural perspective emphasises the importance of changing organisational policies, practices, and structures from top-down control systems to high involvement practices (Ferris, 2009). As more power, information, knowledge, and rewards are given to employees, they become more empowered.

This structural perspective is limited in several ways. Firstly, it does not address the nature of empowerment as experienced by employees. Some studies have found that even where employees had been given delegated power, knowledge, information and rewards, they still felt disempowered (Elnaga & Imran, 2014; Fernandez & Moldogaziev, 2015; Lee & Ok, 2015b). Lack of awareness about the purpose of employee empowerment can lead to its failure in the organisation. These issues suggest that the psychological perspective on empowerment is also important.

Empowerment as a motivational construct

In a motivational sense, empowerment is linked to an intrinsic need for self-determination (Spreitzer, 1992), or a belief in personal self-efficacy (Kuokkanen & Leino-Kilpi, 2000). Empowering employees is therefore a managerial strategy or technique to support their self-determination need or self-efficacy belief. Lee and Koh (2001) defined "empower" as "to enable", and equivalent to motivating through enhancing personal efficacy. This has a quite different meaning from the earlier definition of empowerment as delegation of authority and resource sharing.

Psychological empowerment is therefore the set of psychological conditions necessary for individuals to feel in control of their own destiny. In contrast to the structural perspective, which sees empowerment as the process of delegating authority and resources to the lower levels of the organisation, psychological empowerment views empowerment as a strategy that enables or enhances personal efficacy (Liden, Wayne & Sparrowe, 2000). Definitions of psychological empowerment include the state of mind in which an employee experiences the feeling of control over how the job can be done, has enough awareness of the work tasks that are being performed, a high level of responsibility for both personal work outcome and overall organisational advancement, and the perceived justice in the rewards is based on individual and collective performance (Melhem, 2004).

There are four aspects to building a psychological sense of empowerment, competence, impact, meaning and self-determination (Thomas & Velthouse, 1990; Spreitzer, 1995b). *Competence* reflects self-efficacy, a belief in personal capability to perform work activities with skill. *Impact* is the degree to which the individual can influence strategic, administrative, or operating outcomes at work. *Meaning* describes consistency between perceptions of the role and the employee's beliefs, values and behaviours. Finally, *self-determination* is a sense of choice in initiating and regulating personal actions. These four together reflect an active, rather than passive, orientation to the designated role of employees (Spreitzer, 1995b).

This four-dimensional conceptualisation of psychological empowerment is supported by the literature on empowerment from several disciplines including psychology, sociology, social work, and education (Spreitzer, 1995b). Based on the work of Thomas and Velthouse (1990), Spreitzer (1995b) developed a four-dimensional scale to measure psychological empowerment, which was later validated (Kraimer, Seibert & Liden, 1999). This scale has dominated empirical research on psychological empowerment across a wide range of contexts, including a large service organisation (Liden et al., 2000), a Fortune 500 manufacturing company (Spreitzer, 1995a), the lower levels in the insurance industry (Denison & Spreitzer, 1991), the hospitality industry (Corsun & Enz, 1999), hospitals (Kraimer et al., 1999; Brossoit, 2001), and particularly nursing (Brancato, 2007), and banking services (Kark, Shamir & Chen, 2003). It is therefore possible to assert that the psychological perspective on empowerment applies widely and can be generalised across a range of environments (Mallak and Kurstedt, 1996; Bach, Kessler & Heron, 2007; Raelin & Cataldo, 2011; Anders & Cassidy, 2014).

Organisational change and excellence

Organisations have been urged by scholars over many years to use innovative practices to strategically enhance their manpower, achieve organisational excellence and accomplish organisational goals (Holden, 2003; Bach et al., 2007). Organisational change is therefore seen as an essential factor in improving employee performance, productivity, job loyalty, and superordinate–subordinate trust.

There is an extensive body of literature on the factors affecting organisational change. It demonstrates, in particular, that one factor in its success is employee readiness for change, also known as willingness to accept, or acceptance of organisational change. This is defined as "the extent to which individuals are mentally, psychologically or physically ready, prepared or primed to participate in organization development activities" (Hanpachern, 1997, cited in Mangundjaya, 2013). This is demonstrated in particular by a high score for promoting and participating in change in the scale established.

A recent study by Khammarnia et al. (2014) examined psychological empowerment and attitudes towards organisational change among primary healthcare workers in Iran. It found positive and significant relationships between competence, impact and attitude towards organisational change. This strongly suggests that improving psychological empowerment of employees could increase the success of organisational change projects designed to improve organisational performance. This may also be the case in the hotel industry. This study therefore aimed to explore the relationship between psychological empowerment and readiness for organisational change among employees of chain hotels in Egypt.

Research approach

This section describes the research setting and design for this study, including the sampling methods, sample, instruments and procedures for data collection and analysis. The study's main approach is quantitative, to investigate the relationships between acceptance of organisational change and psychological empowerment. The study applied a quantitative design, influenced by its positivist orientation (Creswell, 2003) (i.e. the quantitative data is seen as the most important data collected). The study hypotheses were:

- H1: Employee empowerment affects acceptance of organisational change.
- H1a: The competence domain of employee empowerment affects acceptance of organisational change.
- H1b: The impact domain of employee empowerment affects acceptance of organisational change.
- H1c: The meaning domain of employee empowerment affects acceptance of organisational change.
- H1d: The self-determination domain of employee empowerment affects acceptance of organisational change.

A list of four- and five-star chain hotels in major cities in Egypt was obtained from a directory of Egyptian hotels provided by the tourism authority in Egypt. This served as the sampling frame. These hotels were considered more likely than smaller and more independent organisations to have formal HR practices about employee empowerment.

HR managers in these hotels were contacted personally or by telephone and given information about the study and its aim, then asked whether the researchers could visit the hotel with the questionnaire. Questionnaires were distributed to the 17 hotels that agreed to participate.

The employees were informed in advance of the survey and asked to agree to participate on a voluntary basis. Approximately 45–50 employee in each hotel were involved. Volunteers were asked to set aside 15 minutes of uninterrupted time to complete the survey.

The questionnaire design was informed by the model of Spreitzer (1995a; 1995b), and included questions across four main domains of employee empowerment. Each question was completed using a seven-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree). A higher score indicates a higher level of psychological empowerment. Sample questions included:

Meaning

- The work I do is very important to me
- My job activities are personally meaningful to me
- The work I do is meaningful to me
- Competence
- I am confident about my ability to do my job
- I am self-assured about my capabilities to perform my work activities
- I have mastered the skills necessary for my job
- Self-determination
- I have significant autonomy in determining how I do my job
- I have decided on my own how to go about doing my work
- I have considerable opportunity for independence and freedom in how I do my work

Impact

- My impact on what happens in my department is large
- I have a great deal of control over what happens in my department
- I have significant influence over what happens in my department

To measure acceptance of organisational change, this study used Hanpachern's (1997) original 14-item readiness-for-change scale. The items use a seven-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1 (very unlikely) to 7 (very likely). Summing and averaging the 14 items, with possible scores ranging from 14–70, determined the overall readiness score. A higher score indicates greater readiness for change.

The data analysis used linear/logistic regression. All analyses used SPSS 23. A descriptive analysis of the demographic data was used to describe the sample characteristics, including means and standard deviations for the demographic variables. Frequency tables were used to assess distribution of study variables for normality, and the data were tested for skewness and kurtosis. Data were inspected for inconsistencies, outliers, and wild data entry codes.

Correlations between the study variables used a chi-square test for nominal level data. A two-tailed test with significance set at the 0.05 level was used, even though the hypothesised relationship was directional, as a conservative check (Field, 2005). The correlation matrix was used to investigate correlations between independent variables and the dependent variable, to determine whether any controls for these were needed in subsequent analyses. The correlation matrix was also checked to see whether the psychological empowerment variables were significantly related to acceptance of organisational change.

Multiple regression analysis was used to assess the relationship between the four dimensions of psychological empowerment. Each of the four dimensions was entered into the model to see its impact on organisational change, and then all four were inserted simultaneously, to see if any were significant predictors of acceptance of organisational change.

Findings

Of the 850 employees who were sent the questionnaire survey, a total of 386 staff responded with usable questionnaires, a response rate of 45%. The sample therefore contains 386 observations and 35 variables (seven demographic and 28 survey questions). Quality analysis was performed on the data for each variable to determine if there were any outliers or erroneous data. No data cleaning was required.

The mean age of the respondents was 32.88 years with a standard deviation of 8.43. The sample was reasonably evenly split between males (n = 206, 53.4%) and females (n = 180, 46.6%). Most respondents had more than ten years of experience (n = 280, 72.5%), but had been in their current position for less than ten years (n = 344, 89.1%). The majority had a Bachelor degree (n = 287, 74.4%) and were not classed as managers (n = 242, 62.7%). In total, 249 were employed in four-star (64.5%) and 137 in five-star hotels (35.5%).

Cronbach's alpha was calculated to test the reliability of organisational change and empowerment items (see Table 1). All the items had sufficient and strong reliability.

Means for each survey question were compared and results are shown in Table 2. Overall, respondents reported a high level of likelihood for each item. "Create new ideas" had the lowest mean at 5.99 and "Learn new things" had the highest mean response at 6.51.

Means for each survey question for empowerment are shown in Table 3. Overall, and like the organisational change items, respondents reported a high level of agreement with each item. "My job activities are personally meaningful to me", from the Meaning construct, had the lowest mean at 6.05 and "I have a great deal of control over what happens in my department", from the Impact construct, had the highest mean at 6.36.

The effect of employee empowerment on acceptance of organisational change was tested using four sub-hypotheses.

Table 1: Reliability statistics

Scale	Cronbach's alpha	Number of items
Organisational change	0.890	14
Empowerment	0.934	12

Table 2: Comparisons of means of organisational change items

Item	Mean
Learn new things	6.51
Change the way I work because of the change	6.40
Be a part of the change programme	6.40
Change something even if it appears to be working	6.40
Take responsibility for the change if it fails in my area	6.39
Work more because of the change	6.38
Improve what we're currently doing rather than implement a major change	6.36
Support change	6.33
Sell ideas about the change	6.33
Do things in a new or creative way	6.29
Find ways to make the change fail	6.28
Be a part of the new project	6.12
Solve organisation problems	6.00
Create new ideas	5.99

Table 3: Comparisons between means for the empowerment dimensions

Construct	Item	Mean
Meaning	The work I do is very important to me	6.17
	My job activities are personally meaningful to me	6.05
	The work I do is meaningful to me	6.15
Competence	I am confident about my ability to do my job	6.12
	I am self-assured about my capabilities to perform my work activities	6.23
	I have mastered the skills necessary for my job	6.32
Self-determination	I have significant autonomy in determining how I do my job	6.32
	I decide on my own how to go about doing my work	6.31
	I have considerable opportunity for independence and freedom in how I do my work	6.30
Impact	My impact on what happens in my department is large	6.31
	I have a great deal of control over what happens in my department	6.36
	I have significant influence over what happens in my department	6.32

There were no significant correlations between the individual sub-domains and acceptance of organisational change, although the individual sub-domains were correlated with each other. Table 4 shows the overall correlation matrix.

Multiple regression analysis was used to examine whether Meaning, Competence, Self-determination, and Impact were significant predictors of acceptance of organisational change. The overall regression model has an R^2 of 0.027, which means that the model explains 2.7% of the variation in acceptance of organisational change. The *F*-test statistic was 2.615 with a *p*-value of 0.035, meaning the model is statistically significant. Meaning was a significant predictor, with a *t*-test statistic of –2.452 and *p*-value of 0.015. The model therefore predicts that for every one point increase in Meaning, acceptance of organisational change will decrease by 0.128. Impact was also a significant predictor, with a *t*-test statistic of 2.585 and *p*-value of 0.01. The model predicts that for every one point increase in Impact, acceptance of organisational change will increase by 0.125. Tables 5, 6 and 7 show these results.

A logistic regression model was run first on the organisational change and empowerment items to determine the best predictors of whether the respondent worked at a four- or five-star hotel. The results showed that no individual items were significant predictors of hotel rating. The same logistic regression model was also run to determine the significant predictors of whether the respondent was a manager. The results revealed one significant predictor: from empowerment, "The work I do is very important to me" was significant (Wald = 5.356, *p*-value = 0.021). The odds ratio showed that for every one point increase in the level of agreement for that item, the respondent was 1.61 times more likely to be a manager.

Conclusion

This study has investigated the relationship between psychological empowerment of employees and their acceptance of organisational change. Overall, none of the individual dimensions of psychological empowerment (Spreitzer, 1995a; Hanpachern, 1997) were significantly correlated with acceptance of organisational change. However, the overall regression model showed that psychological empowerment explained 2.7% of the variance in organisational change acceptance (although this is small, it is nonetheless significant, and so should not be ignored), with the Meaning and Impact constructs both being significant. Although Impact was positively related to acceptance of organisational change, Meaning was negatively related. This seems to suggest that as employees are given more meaningful work, their acceptance of organisational change decreases slightly.

Overall, the finding that psychological empowerment has a direct positive effect on acceptance of organisation change is consistent with previous studies (e.g. Eby, Adams, Russell & Gaby, 2000; Weber & Weber, 2001; Cunningham et al., 2002; Madsen, Miller, & John, 2005; Rafferty & Simons, 2006; Lam, Cho & Qu, 2007; Fachruddin & Mangundjaya, 2012). The findings are also similar to other studies using the same constructs, but in different industries or sectors (for example, in the health sector, Khammarnia et al., 2014, and Abd-Elkawey & Sleem, 2015). This study's strength lies in the size and consistency of its sample. A total of 386 questionnaires is a very reasonable sample size, especially compared to previous studies on empowerment and acceptance of organisational change (Helfrich, Li, Sharp & Sales, 2009).

Hanpachern (1997) suggests that there are three types

Table 4: Correlation matrix (*N* = 386)

		Acceptance of change	Meaning	Competence	Self-determination	Impact
Acceptance of change	Pearson Correlation	1	–0.064	–0.005	0.023	0.081
	Sig. (2-tailed)		0.211	0.921	0.654	0.112
Meaning	Pearson Correlation	–0.064	1	0.727*	0.575*	0.597*
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.211		0.000	0.000	0.000
Competence	Pearson Correlation	–0.005	0.727*	1	0.784*	0.612*
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.921	0.000		0.000	0.000
Self-determination	Pearson Correlation	0.023	0.575*	0.784*	1	0.699*
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.654	0.000	0.000		0.000
Impact	Pearson Correlation	0.081	0.597*	0.612*	0.699*	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.112	0.000	0.000	0.000	

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

Table 5: Multiple regression analysis

Model summary	R	R^2	Adjusted R^2	Std. error of the estimate
1	0.163*	0.027	0.017	0.41480

*Predictors: (Constant), Impact, Meaning, Self-determination, Competence

Table 6: ANOVA*

Model		Sum of squares	df	Mean square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	1.800	4	0.450	2.615	0.035**
	Residual	65.554	381	0.172		
	Total	67.354	385			

*Dependent variable: Acceptance of change
**Predictors: (Constant), Impact, Meaning, Self-determination, Competence

Table 7: Coefficients*

Model		Unstandardised coefficients		Standardised coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	6.275	0.235		26.715	0.000
	Meaning	–0.128	0.052	–0.190	–2.452	0.015
	Competence	0.024	0.054	0.044	0.452	0.652
	Self-determination	–0.022	0.053	–0.038	–0.414	0.679
	Impact	0.125	0.048	0.194	2.585	0.010

*Dependent variable: acceptance of change

of factor which could affect readiness for change: work, non-work, and demographic factors. Few studies, however, have examined whether individual readiness for change varies with age, gender, job title, level of employment or level of education. Madsen et al. (2005) found that demographic factors did affect acceptance of change. This study, however, found no significant links between demographic factors and acceptance of change, which is consistent with Hanpachern's original work.

This study found a small, but significant, positive influence of employee psychological empowerment on readiness for change among hotel employees. This suggests that hotel managers should consider issues of psychological empowerment when preparing for organisational change. However, there are clearly many other factors that will affect acceptance of organisational change; the model in this study explained only 2.7% of variance in this factor. Further research is needed to identify other factors that should also be taken into account in preparing for organisational change.

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Employees' desire for personal development in the front office of the InterContinental Miami

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Employees in the hospitality industry are under continuous pressure to perform better and to develop and adapt themselves to ever-increasing demands and challenges. The purpose of this research was to identify the relationship between the time an employee has been working for the InterContinental Miami hotel, their personality type and their perception of need for growth and personal development. A 74-measurement item survey was used to measure the variables. Surprisingly, the results showed no relationship between job tenure and the need for personal development. Relationships between job motivation and personal development, and the personality type agreeableness and personal development were identified. The data revealed that the relationship between job motivation and personal development turned out to be the strongest.

Keywords: job tenure, job motivation, personality, personal development, front office

Introduction

The hospitality industry has become a very challenging industry over the past years, and faces many issues to overcome. Besides the continuously increasing competition in a hotel's direct environment (Wang & Wang, 2009), the hospitality industry is confronted with dealing with ever-increasing customer demands (Dixit, 2013). In order for companies to keep delivering the high-quality performance their guests demand, it is crucial that they invest in their employees. By means of motivating and monitoring employees' personal development, companies support expertise development as well as make sure the employees are fit to adapt to new parameters, scenarios and challenges they face within their job and personal life (Beausaert, Segers & Gijselaers, 2011).

Over the last few years the workload has increased significantly for the employees working in the front office department of the InterContinental Miami. In the past five years the average occupancy percentage of the hotel has increased by 31%, resulting in an increase of 33% of the amount of arrivals and departures the front desk deals with. The average rate guests are paying has increased by 23% and the total room revenue of the company has increased by 61% (InterContinental Miami, personal communication, 13 December 2015). All numbers indicate that the hotel's business is increasing, as well as there being an increase in workload for the employees. With labour costs the highest cost a hotel has, it limits the option of hiring more staff.

These drastically increasing numbers for the InterContinental Miami raise a central question: whether all employees are fit to adapt themselves to the continuous changes and increasing challenges and parameters. This research will therefore focus on the need for personal development in the front office department of the InterContinental Miami hotel. To determine which employees are more eager to develop themselves, the variables of job motivation, job tenure and personality will be taken into consideration.

Theoretical background

Many different definitions and explanations of personal development can be found. Thomas (2014) states that personal development is signified by the conscious pursuit to achieve growth by means of expanding one's knowledge and self-awareness in order to improve one's personal skills. It indicates that personal development is a process rather than one event occurring in which a person strives to improve. Beausaert, Segers and Gijselaers (2011) add that personal development is not only necessary to improve, but also to maintain one's expertise. Personal development is all about individuals learning about themselves, their strengths and weaknesses. It involves continuous improvement of a person's ability to master oneself (Thomas, 2014). All of the previous definitions show that the development is all focused on one's skills, abilities and expertise. However, Hughes and Youngson (2009) take it one step further and state that personal development does not only include the search for skills and knowledge, but that the search for acceptance, awareness and understanding is also essential in this process.

Determining one's personal development level can be done according to the Personal Growth Initiative Scale (PGIS) developed by Robitschek (1998). The instrument determines a person's active and intentional involvement in changing and developing as an individual (Robitschek, 1998).

Another measurement tool used to assess employees' job motivation is the Shirom-Melamed Vigour Measure (SMVM) (Shirom, 2004). Shirom developed a three-dimension vigour measurement tool that included (1) physical strength, (2) emotional energy and (3) cognitive liveliness. SMVM specifically examines "vigour", defined by Shirom (2004) as a positive affective response to an individual's on-going interactions with several elements in one's working environment. Moreover, Shirom (2007, p. 86) describes vigour as an affective dimension of energy reservoirs that all employees possess that could be used when challenges arise from the environment. One of the direct results of vigour is, according to Sheldon, Ryan and Reis (1996), that it will stimulate a proactive mind-set and creativity at work, as well as other forms of extra-role behaviour at work (such as taking extra initiative in performing additional tasks or ensuring tasks are of a higher quality).

Job tenure refers to the length of time an employee works in a certain job or has been working with an employer. With job tenure being one of the most readily available metrics that organisations have of their employees, it has been used in much research to try and determine its impact on employee performance (Bartlomiejczuk & Jin, 2015). However, there are two contrasting theoretical approaches that display a different relationship of job tenure to job performance. Human capital theories suggest that one's performance should increase over time due to the fact that employees gain in job experiences. Job experience increases overall knowledge, skills and the abilities to perform a task and makes an employee thus more capable of properly performing their task (Bartlomiejczuk & Jin, 2015). However, motivation and job design theories suggest otherwise and emphasise the fact that the longer an employee stays in a position, the more it reduces their motivation and engagement, and thus results in poorer performances (Bartlomiejczuk & Jin, 2015).

An individual's unique pattern of thoughts, their feelings and behaviour that persist over time and across different situations is defined as personality (Morris & Maisto, 2012). Therefore, every person has his own unique personality; all individuals behave in a different manner and perceive situations in their own way. After decades of doing research, the research field is approaching a general consensus on taxonomy of personality traits, namely the "Big Five personality dimensions" (Pervin & John, 1999). The Big Five personality dimensions do not represent one particular theoretical perspective, but serve as an integrated function to represent the various and diverse personality descriptions in one common framework (Pervin & John, 1999). The five dimensions are identified by Goldberg (1990; 1992) as: Neuroticism (N), Extraversion (E), Openness to Experience (O), Agreeableness (A), and Conscientiousness (C).

The first dimension, Neuroticism, shows the extent to which someone is self-conscious, moody, anxious and insecure about oneself (Barrick, Mount & Judge, 2001). Extraversion displays the extent to which an individual is social, talkative and assertive. Furthermore, Openness to Experience shows the extent to which an individual is likely to be curious, unconventional, open-minded and imaginative. The traits of being cooperative, caring, concerned for others and being generally good-natured are associated with the dimension Agreeableness. The final dimension, Conscientiousness, is associated with traits such as being achievement-oriented, responsible, rule abiding and dependable (ibid.).

Research approach

This research specifically focused on a correlational analysis. It is this type of research in which relationships between variables are explored. According to the research questions, several issues needed to be explored. Four variables are central in the research, namely investigating how long an employee has been working in the company, what their need for development is, what their job motivation is, and how the employees score on the Big Five personality dimensions.

Aim

Based on the information, the theoretical background provided and the still unknown relation between the variables, the following problem statement has been created which this research will further investigate.

Identifying the relationship between the time an employee has been working for the InterContinental Miami, their personality type and their need for growth and personal development is the first problem statement.

In order to be able to answer this problem statement, several research questions have been created:

- To what degree do the employees in the front office department of the InterContinental Miami feel the need for personal development?
- What relationship exists between job motivation and the need for personal development?
- What relationship exists between the time an employee has been working for the InterContinental Miami and their need for personal development?
- How are the employees' personality dimensions related to their need for personal development?

The need for development was investigated by means of the reviewed version of Robitschek et al. (2012) known as the Personal Growth Initiative Scale II (PGIS-II). This revised version consists of a 16-item questionnaire which the respondents had to answer by means of 7-point Likert scale (0 = disagree strongly; 7 = agree strongly). The PGIS-II scale contains four items in the subdivision "readiness for change", five items for "planfulness" (i.e. ability to plan), three items for "using resources", and four items for "intentional behaviour". The total mean of all 16 items provided the overall initiative score.

For the theoretical background, the Shirom-Melamed Vigour Measure (SMVM) (Shirom, 2004) is a tool that can be used to measure employees' motivation towards their jobs. The questionnaire for this particular part consisted of a 12-item questionnaire existing of the three subscales; (1) physical strength, (2) emotional energy, and (3) cognitive liveliness. These three subscales were measured based on a 7-point Likert scale.

In order to measure the employees' personality types according to the Big Five theory, it was decided to make use of the Big Five Inventory (BFI) measurement method created by John, Donahue and Kentle (1991). In the literature, the most commonly used measurement tools for the Big Five are the NEO-PI-R, the NEO-FFI and the BFI. For this research, BFI was selected due to fact that it was less time-consuming (than the NEO-PI-R) for a respondent to fill in the questionnaire, while still maintaining its complexity when compared to other measurement tools. The finalised 74-item self-completion questionnaire was first subjected to a pilot survey before being distributed among all participants.

Sample

The research was conducted in the front office department of the InterContinental in Miami. The front office department in the InterContinental Miami consists of the following sub-departments: the front desk, the instant service centre, concierge, the bell desk and the gift shop. All employees in this department were included in the research and were asked to participate. Approximately 60 employees are employed in the entire department. As the company and department to be investigated had been selected beforehand and all employees from this department were included, the sampling was based upon pre-selected characteristics, and thus the sampling was done according to non-probability sampling. While conducting this research it was also essential to take the ethical issue of confidentiality into account. In order to guarantee the privacy of all employees who took part in the research, no questions concerning their demographics such as age or gender were required. These variables were not a subject of interest in the research and would have resulted in the researcher being unable to guarantee 100% anonymity.

Findings

Table 1 provides an overview of the correlational analysis that was conducted. This table forms the essence of the following section. Furthermore, Figure 1 provides a clear and concise visual overview of the key correlations this research discovered.

Tenure and personal development

Both job tenure and the average PGIS score ($r = 0.19$, $n = 39$, $p = 0.26$), as well as job tenure and the PGIS subscales show a significance of $p > 0.05$, and thus resulting in the conclusion that there is no relation between job tenure and personal

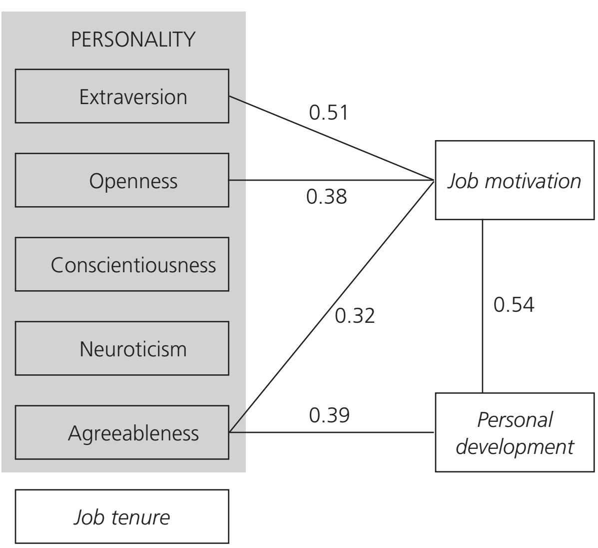

Figure 1: Key correlational

Table 1: Correlation matrix: personal development, job tenure, job motivation and personality types

	M	*SD*	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15
1. PGIS	6.18	0.51	1														
2. Readiness for change	6.27	0.58	0.71**	1													
3. Planfulness	617.00	0.65	0.81**	0.57**	1												
4. Using resources	5.67	1.12	0.71**	0.23	0.30	1											
5. Intentional behaviour	6.50	0.49	0.80**	0.46**	0.58**	0.52**	1										
6. Job tenure	58.87	104.70	0.19	0.14	0.16	0.17	0.05	1									
7. Job motivation	6.17	0.55	0.54**	0.44**	0.47**	0.26	0.52**	-0.00	1								
8. Physical strength	5.92	0.70	0.49**	0.26	0.55**	0.20	0.52**	0.04	0.77**	1							
9. Emotional energy	6.40	0.73	0.32	0.32*	0.23	0.16	0.30	-0.11	0.81**	0.34*	1						
10. Cognitive liveliness	6.31	0.68	0.43**	0.52**	0.25	0.26	0.34*	0.08	0.72**	0.27	0.59**	1					
11. Extraversion	5.05	0.81	0.28	0.44**	0.30	-0.02	0.19	-0.17	0.51**	0.34*	0.48**	0.36*	1				
12. Agreeableness	5.96	0.71	0.39*	0.29	0.29	0.44**	0.06	0.06	0.32*	0.14	0.47**	0.13	0.57**	1			
13. Conscientiousness	5.61	1.07	0.13	0.17	0.44**	-0.23	-0.02	0.22	0.08	0.21	-0.02	-0.08	0.16	0.27	1		
14. Neuroticism	2.65	1.18	-0.07	-0.03	-0.02	-0.12	-0.03	-0.06	-0.16	0.18	-0.45**	-0.19	-0.28	-0.54**	-0.15	1	
15. Openness	5.13	0.63	0.20	0.02	0.20	0.19	0.14	-0.25	0.38*	0.22	0.41**	0.25	-0.04	0.23	0.03	-0.11	1

*Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed)
**Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)

development. Through the correlation matrix it becomes evident that job tenure does not display any correlations with any of the other variables.

Job motivation and personal development

In order to display whether a relation exists between the factors of job motivation and personal development, a Pearson correlation test was conducted between the scores of the variables, while also taking the subscales into account.

According to Table 1, several relations exist between the variables. With $p < 0.05$ between the overall job motivation and the PGIS score, it can be seen that there is a significant relationship between personal development and job motivation ($r = 0.54$, $n = 39$, $p = 0.00$).

All data show that the relationship between the overall job motivation and the PGIS score display the strongest relationship, with $r = 0.54$, and all other relationships between job motivation and PGIS and its subscales display rather weak relationships with r varying between 0.32 and 0.52.

Personality and personal development

The final research question looked into the fact whether a relationship exists between personality and one's need for personal development. With the data presented in Table 1, it becomes evident that a total of four relationships can be found between the two variables. First of all, it shows that a clear positive relationship exists between one's need for personal development and the personality type of agreeableness ($r = 0.39$, $n = 39$, $p = 0.01$). The personality type of agreeableness is also slightly stronger, and positively related towards the subscale using resources ($r = 0.44$, $n = 39$, $p = 0.01$).

Besides the previous two correlations, two different ones can be discovered as well. First of all, the personality type of extraversion is positively related with one's readiness for change ($r = 0.44$, $n = 39$, $p = 0.01$), and the personality type of conscientiousness is positively correlated with one's planfulness towards personal development ($r = 0.44$, $n = 39$, $p = 0.01$).

The strength of the four relationships are rather similar with the value of r between 0.39 and 0.44. However, it can be stated that the relationships do display as moderate to weak.

Personality and job motivation

Even though it was not a defined research question, Figure 1 displays several personality traits showing significant correlations with the variable of job motivation. The strongest relationship exists between the trait of extraversion and job motivation ($r = 0.51$). Moreover, openness ($r = 0.38$) and agreeableness ($r = 0.39$) show a significant relationship with job motivation.

Conclusions

First of all, this research showed that the employees of the InterContinental Miami indicated a high motivation for personal development as an element of change and innovation, as they scored 6.18 out of 7. This information indicates that the employees are looking for ways to change themselves and have the intention of changing themselves.

Several relationships between job motivation, personal development and one's personality exist. One's personality has an impact on one's overall attitude towards one's own personal development and is also related to job motivation. The three personality traits of extraversion, openness and agreeableness displayed a positive correlation with job motivation, and the trait of agreeableness also showed a positive relationship with personal development. The strongest relationship appeared to be between job motivation and personal development. This relationship is in agreement with earlier studies. Sheldon, Ryan and Reis (1996) state that a direct result of job motivation is that it increases employees' engagement in extra role behaviour at work, such as taking increased initiative towards increasing their performance. A conclusion that can be drawn is that staff spending time on personal development appear to have a larger interest in development of the company, and are better able to cope with change.

Job tenure, on the other hand, did not display any relationship with personal development or job motivation. Thus, employees who have been working in the company for a longer period of time are not necessarily more motivated, nor do they have a higher need for personal development compared to employees who recently joined the company.

Therefore, it is advised that the company takes personality and perhaps even personality testing into consideration in their recruitment and selection process. Focusing on the teams' different personalities will have a direct effect on the overall job motivation and need for development and can contribute towards the effort the team will make to strive towards change and development.

When it comes to limitations of this study, it is clear that it was specifically focused on the employees in the front office department of the InterContinental Miami, entailing that it specifically applies to the hospitality industry in the US state of Florida. Therefore, the findings may be less applicable to employees in other departments of the property or even to other front office employees in different cities or countries. Conclusions that were drawn were specifically related to the population that was used in this research, therefore the conclusions may differ in a different cultural context.

Moreover, it could be argued that the total sample size ($n = 39$) could be considered to be relatively low, and for more accurate results increasing the sample size is suggested. The final limitation is the assumption that the respondents completed their surveys by providing answers they expected to be socially desirable. Respondents might have found themselves in an ethical dilemma, as they might have been afraid results would be given to their superiors and that the results would not remain anonymous.

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The meaning of cultural diversity among staff as it pertains to employee motivation[1]

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Recent trends in increasing ethnic diversity in Park Hyatt Hamburg brought up the question on how cultural diversity is linked to employees' motivation. The study focuses on the relationship between cultural diversity and employees' motivation. The research is based on twelve, forty-five-minute, semi-structured interviews with front office and housekeeping employees of Park Hyatt Hamburg. It reveals that cultural diversity plays an important role in the motivation of employees as most employees mention atmosphere and teamwork including cultural diversity as the most motivating factors. Most of the employees responded positively to cultural diversity. However, deep level dissimilarities including different standards and values can lead to negative outcomes. These findings are consistent with published research and literature on the subject. An important factor with regard to the perception of cultural diversity is the cultural competence of the employees. Therefore, it is recommended that the employment of culturally diverse employees is favourable, though attention has to be paid when employees have a very different culture from other employees, as it can lead to conflict.

Keywords: cultural diversity, motivation, cultural competency, team work

Introduction

The importance of globalisation is increasingly leading to an international mobilisation of human resources as well as cross-border exchanges causing a worldwide immigration flow (Craig & Douglas, 2006). This shifting scale of citizenship leads to discussions of cosmopolitanism, global citizenship and cultural diversity (Dower, 2000; Carter, 2004). Further, the increase of international migration to industrialised countries can be identified as causing a higher share of ethnic minorities in countries such as Germany. The number of ethnic minorities in Germany in 2014 was approximately 8.2 million; which is approximately 10% of the German population. By contrast, it was approximately 7% in 2013, indicating a strong growth of ethnic minorities in Germany (FAZ, 2015).

This recent trend of increasing ethnic diversity and the high number of ethnic minorities is also reflected in German companies and the amount of multicultural employment is increasingly leading to a culturally diverse workforce (FAZ, 2015). As a result, it is essential that managers pay attention to the management of cultural differences such as language, culture, age, gender, religion or ethnicity (Grin, 2004; Köppel, 2008; Amadeo, 2013). This includes the process of integration as well as the management of teamwork among the employees. According to Wlodarczyk (2011), the motivation of employees is one of the most important factors needed to enable good teamwork. Therefore, the question arises: what is the link between a culturally diverse workforce and an employee's motivation?

Despite the fact that cultural diversity is becoming more and more important, the literature in regards to this link is ambiguous (Al-Jenaibi, 2011). Most diversity studies focus on nonvisible diversity types such as job tenure and functional background (Finkelstein, Hambrick & Cannella, 2009). Nonetheless, cultural diversity also includes differences in visible characteristics including gender and race (Richard, Barnett, Dwyer & Chadwick, 2004). On one hand, numerous diversity studies have found that cultural diversity can increase the effectiveness of employees and strengthen creativity and innovation (Adler, 2002; Köppel, Yan & Lüdicke, 2007; Köppel, 2008).

And in contrast, studies have concluded that working in heterogeneous groups is less effective. These studies also suggest that cultural differences can lead to barriers and conflicts, especially deep-level dissimilarities that are negative for group cohesion (Harrison, Price & Bell, 1998; Białostocka, 2010; Martin, 2014). As a result, negative emotions arise and productivity suffers (Martin, 2014).

Workforce diversity

There is no clear idea of whether cultural diversity increases or decreases an employee's motivation, as indicated by the inconsistent findings. Looking at the hotel, Park Hyatt in Hamburg, it can be stated that employees with different cultural backgrounds work together, making the hotel a highly cultural diverse workplace. These cultural differences include primary dimensions such as race, age and gender as well as secondary dimensions such as religion and education. Depending on the department, a different level of cultural diversity can be noticed.

The housekeeping (henceforth: HSK) department is made up of 63 employees with mainly German, Ghanaian, Afghan, Algerian, Turkish, French and Belgian nationalities. The most predominant religions are Christianity and Islam, and the languages spoken are French, German, English and Turkish. On the other hand, there are 54 employees in the front office (henceforth: FO) department who speak German and are mainly Christians. The main nationalities found in the FO department are German, Afghan, Egyptian, Turkish and Polish, where most of the employees grew up in Germany. The other departments in Park Hyatt Hamburg such as human resources, marketing and sales and accounting are mainly made up of German and Christian employees; therefore the FO and HSK department is the main focus of this research. When examining the HSK department, it can be seen that many male Turkish employees work in this department and sometimes have a different ethnicity and religion, leading to a different role allocation of gender. Therefore, it is sometimes hard for them to accept orders and criticism from a female supervisor. If a female supervisor has the feeling that her feedback is not accepted due to her gender, it can be demotivating.

Cultural diversity

The link between cultural diversity and employee's motivation is very two sided. On one hand, it can increase innovation and creativity (Cox, Lobel & McLeod, 1991; Adler, 2002; Köppel, 2008). However, it can also lead to barriers, resulting in miscommunication (Martin, 2014). This ambiguity is also underlined by personal experiences in the Park Hyatt company. It can be seen that cultural competencies seem to play an important role when it comes to cultural diversity. In order to get a clearer image, a review is given in the following discussion of different topics. First of all, a definition and description of cultural diversity as well as motivation are given to provide a proper understanding. Afterwards, both the advantages and disadvantages of cultural diversity are looked at. Due to the fact that cultural competencies seem to play an important role, this topic is described in more detail at the end of this review.

Cultural diversity can be seen as a characteristic of a group with two or more people. It normally refers to demographic differences which distinguish one from another within the group (McGrath, Berdahl & Arrow, 1995). These differences include biological characteristics such as genitalia, physical differences including skin colour, or stylistic differences, for instance dress codes (Cox, 2001; Green, López, Wysocki & Kepner, 2002). This is in agreement with Parvis (2003), Grin (2004), Köppel (2008) and Amadeo (2013), who state that cultural diversity includes factors such as skin colour, gender, language, nationality, religion, culture, sexual orientation and ethnicity. Referring to Powell (2011), these different dimensions can be divided into two different sections, namely primary dimensions and secondary dimensions of diversity. Primary dimensions of diversity are personal characteristics which cannot be changed such as race, physical and mental abilities, age and sex. Secondary dimensions of diversity represent personal characteristics that are changeable and can be acquired or modified, for instance income, parental status, education and religion. In conclusion, it can be stated that cultural diversity can be divided into primary and secondary dimensions. Now that the term cultural diversity is clear, the term motivation is explored.

Employee motivation

Motivation can be defined as the process which accounts for employee's persistence, direction and intensity of effort towards reaching a goal (Pinder, 2008). Therefore, if an employee is motivated, he or she will continue with a task until it is fulfilled. Further, motivation can be distinguished between two dimensions, namely intrinsic and extrinsic motivation. According to Otis, Grouzet, and Pelletier (2005), intrinsic motivation means an engagement in an activity for inherent reasons. On the contrary, one is extrinsically motivated when he or she engages in an activity due to instrumental reasons such as grades, rewards or verbal reinforcement (Sansone & Harackiewicz, 2000; Otis, Grouzet & Pelletier, 2005).

Different motivation theories show what is important in order to have a satisfied employee. Frederick Herzberg differentiates between the hygiene and motivation factors in the two-factor theory. It is stated that on one side there are hygiene factors that avoid dissatisfaction, but also do not lead to satisfaction, and on the other side, the motivation factors satisfy and motivate an employee. Parts of the hygiene factors include supervision, relationship with supervisors and relationship with peers. Recognition, growth and advancement are, on the other hand, motivation factors (Herzberg, Mausner & Snyderman, 1959).

A more recent theory, namely the goal-setting theory, states that setting difficult and specific goals leads to higher employee motivation. Edwin Locke already suggested in the 1960s that a major source of work motivation is the intention to work towards an aim (Locke, 1968). A specific goal shows an employee what exactly is expected from him and how much effort he needs to put into the task (Tubbs, 1968; Earley, Wojnaroski & Prest, 1987; Locke & Latham, 2006).

All in all, it can be said that there are different theories stating that, for instance, recognition, growth and specific goals motivate an employee. Nonetheless, it has to be taken into consideration that the reasons for the different levels of motivation depend on each individual employee and the situation. As the terms cultural diversity and motivation are clear, a closer look can be taken at the positive and negative aspects of cultural diversity.

Positive aspects of cultural diversity at the workplace

Cultural diversity includes many different characteristics and, depending on the individual and the situation, the reasons for an employee's motivation differ. Consequently, the relationship between cultural diversity and motivation also varies. According to Köppel, Yan and Lüdicke (2007), a culturally diverse workforce increases the profit of an organisation, the customer satisfaction as well as the image of the company. On one hand, it decreases the number of conflicts and the rate of turnover, and on the other hand, it increases the satisfaction and effectiveness of employees as well as customers (Cox & Blake, 1991; Larkey, 1996).

Creativity and innovation are strengthened, and diversity helps to create new ideas (Adler, 2002; Köppel, 2008). This fact is also underlined by an older study conducted by Cox, Lobel and McLeod (1991) and Esty, Griffin and Schorr-Hirsh (1995), who declared that cultural differences improve creative problem solving. However, these beneficial outcomes are mainly gained when group members share similar preferences in an organisational culture such as values and goals (Chatman, Polzer, Barsade, & Neale, 1998; Jehn, Northcraft & Neale, 1999).

Appointing staff based on their cultural backgrounds can win new markets, and products targeting certain markets can be developed (Esty, Griffin & Schorr-Hirsh, 1995; Adler, 2002; Köppel, 2008). Martin (2014) states that building in-house cultural talents enables companies to integrate smoother into foreign cultures, and workplace diversity enhances the chance of staff to overcome culture shock.

Employees from a different cultural background often speak several languages, have cultural competencies and are highly motivated (Franken & Kowalski, 2006). Another advantage of a culturally diverse work force is that workers with different cultural backgrounds often have different ways of thinking. This leads to the fact that they analyse and solve situations and problems from a variety of perspectives as they often bring distinctive experiences, providing the organisation with a beneficially vast and sound base of knowledge and information (Esty, Griffin & Schorr-Hirsh, 1995; Martin, 2014). This is also underlined by a study conducted by Al-Jenaibi (2011), who researched the scope and meaning of cultural diversity in organisations in the United Arab Emirates. Based on that study, group work with culturally diverse people helps "to overcome cultural differences through shared experiences" (Al-Jenaibi, 2011, p. 71).

Negative aspects of cultural diversity in the workplace

Even though recent literature remarks on the advantages of cultural diversity in the workplace, including a higher level of creativity and increased competencies, it can be stated that these benefits do not reflect as effective in actual practice as it does in theory (Al-Jenaibi, 2011). When cultural diversity is not handled properly it can also lead to disadvantages. One of the main drawbacks is miscommunication, which often arises through language barriers and a different perception of non-verbal language. Employees with different backgrounds encode and decode messages in different ways leading to a higher possibility of misunderstanding, collision and tension (Kim, 2001; Wang & Mattila, 2010; Martin, 2014). In addition, barriers and difficulties in general can be created due to, for instance, religious differences and dysfunctional adaption behaviour (Martin, 2014).

Working in a culturally diverse field, the tendency of employees to get entangled in interpersonal conflicts is intensified. This is due to dissimilar beliefs, thoughts, opinions, traditions, norms, trends, values and customs (Białostocka, 2010). The challenge with regard to this is that not all dimensions of cultural diversity such as age, gender and skin colour are visible. For instance religion, politics and culture are less visible, leading to the fact that it takes some time to understand another's culture. Pelled (1996) elaborates that diversity incites intergroup bias which can lead to negative outcomes in group work. In addition, the primary dimensions of diversity, which are highly visible, can lead to discrimination, stereotyping and prejudices if there is little to no experience in working as a group (Fiske, 1998; Hunter, 2009). These prejudices and discrimination can lead to losses in work and personnel productivity (Devoe, 1999).

On the other hand, it can be seen that deep-level similarities such as equal values and thought patterns lead to a positive group cohesion. On the contrary, deep-level dissimilarity is negative for group cohesion (Harrison, Price & Bell, 1998). This again can create conflicts between employees that can but do not necessarily have to be based on work issues. A conflict could also have historical or regional causes, leading to negative emotions among workers and lost productivity (Martin, 2014).

The connection between cultural competency and cultural diversity

Looking at the previous two sections, it can be seen that the existing literature is not always in agreement. Questions arise over why such differences occur. Based on several pieces of literature, one of the main factors generating a different perception of cultural diversity is the level of cultural competencies the employee has, including their ability for cross-cultural communication (Odenwald, 1996; Köppel, 2008; Hopkins, Nie & Hopkins, 2009; Sharma, Tam & Kim, 2009; Hoefnagels, 2014). Cultural competency can be described as "a set of cognitive, affective, and behavioural skills and characteristics that support effective and appropriate interaction in a variety of cultural contexts" (Bennett, 2008, p.97). According to Deardorff (2009), there are three main dimensions when it comes to cultural competency, namely knowledge/comprehension, skills, and attitude/motivation. Attitude includes openness, curiosity and respect, whereas knowledge refers to factors such as cultural self-awareness and deep cultural knowledge. Lastly, skills refer to observing, evaluating, listening, relating and interpreting skills.

An insufficient level of cultural competency among the employees can lead to negative outcomes for the team, whereas the salience of culture can be reduced if the level of cultural competency is high (Köppel, 2008; Hopkins, Nie & Hopkins, 2009). Further, cross-cultural communication is important in order to avoid miscommunication. Particularly when it comes to communication between the supervisors and culturally diverse employees, a good understanding is crucial (Sadri & Tran, 2002).

In summary, it can be declared that cultural competency, including its three dimensions of skills, attitude and knowledge, plays an important role in the understanding of cultural diversity. Cultural diversity can be divided into two areas. On one side, there is a primary dimension of cultural diversity, including changeable, personal characteristics, and on the other side, there are secondary dimensions of diversity, namely personal characteristics which are unchangeable (Powell, 2011). Further, the motivation of an employee is either intrinsic or extrinsic (Otis, Grouzet & Pelletier, 2005). When looking at the advantages, as well as disadvantages of cultural diversity, an inconsistency can be seen.

On one side, there are many positive sides, such as the concept that cultural diversity reduces the number of conflicts and staff turnover, and diversity increases creativity and innovation (Cox & Blake, 1991; Esty, Griffin & Schorr-Hirsh, 1995; Larkey, 1996; Adler, 2002; Köppel, 2008). On the contrary, literature can also be found that questions the positive sides of cultural diversity for an employee. Referring to Martin (2014), barriers and difficulties can arise and the risk of interpersonal conflicts is increased (Białostocka, 2010). This shows that there is no clear consensus on whether cultural diversity results in higher or lower employee motivation. However, according to Odenwald (1996) and Köppel (2008), one reason for such inconsistencies can be found in the level of cultural competency which an employee has. An insufficient level of cultural competence among the workers can generate negative results (Köppel, 2008). Therefore, research in this field requires a greater exploration on how cultural competency changes the relationship between cultural diversity and an employee's motivation. In order to find such data and explanations, a research design that allows the interviewer to gain an insight into motives for certain opinions and behaviours should be explored.

Research approach

This research was conducted as a requirement for the degree in International Hospitality Management at Stenden University of Applied Sciences located in Leeuwarden, the Netherlands. It was carried out by a Bachelor student, following a ten-month internship at Park Hyatt Hamburg, Germany, and adapts a grounded approach. By means of qualitative research, it is possible to investigate the motives and perceptions of certain subjects and get a deeper insight (Verhoeven, 2011). Consequently, 12 semi-structured interviews with employees of Park Hyatt Hamburg were conducted. The interviews were carried out in July 2016 to enable the researcher to have enough time for transcribing and coding the interviews.

Aim

The aim of this research is to explore front office and housekeeping employee experiences of cultural diversity and the impact this has on their motivation.

Research questions

1. How does the employee perceive the cultural diversity in his/her department?
2. What are the employee's experiences in the past with regard to cultural diversity (e.g. education, prior work)?
3. What are the main factors that motivate the employees at the FO/HSK department?
4. What are the main factors that demotivate the employees at the FO/HSK department?

Over the past few years cultural diversity in work places has grown extensively and it is continuing to grow. As a result, the interviewer demonstrates the outcomes of cultural diversity and which factors play an important role when it comes to an employee's motivation. This is done with the help of exploratory research. This research is intended to be the basis for more conclusive research by exploring the issue of cultural diversity (Singh, 2007). Information was gathered with the help of semi-structured interviews, which means that the interview contained a list of topics. This type of interview was chosen since it gives the respondent a lot of freedom to contribute what they perceive as important and at the same time gives the interviewer the flexibility to "go with the flow" of the interview (Boeije, 2010; Verhoeven, 2011).

The main aim of this research was to discover the background of the information gathered. Open interviews are a collection method which is about the way people perceive things, which makes it subjective with their own interpretations (Verhoeven, 2008). This enabled the interviewer to intervene in case something unexpected happened and to measure and reveal the opinion and perception of the target group as well as their behaviour. Further, demographic traits such as gender, nationality, age and ethnicity were taken into consideration (Verhoeven, 2008). The interviews were conducted in German as not all employees speak English sufficiently. Information and not numbers were gathered which underlines the significance of discovering the opinions of participants about this topic (Maso & Smaling, 1998).

Overall, it can be summarised that qualitative research is favourable for this kind of topic as it is an open approach that provides a wide range of information and enables flexibility for different individual situations.

According to Verhoeven (2011), there are several instruments that may be used in order to conduct qualitative research. The purpose of this research paper is to provide a broad and rich exploration about the topic of cultural diversity. Therefore, it can be concluded that observations are not suitable, as the focus of this research is on the opinions and experiences of employees who work in a culturally diverse work environment. Instead, it is better to conduct semi-structured interviews. Prior to the interviews several topics were created on which the interviews were based. However, other questions were also asked, depending on what the interviewer perceived as important. This was done to improve the outcomes of the research.

In total, 12 interviews were held, taking approximately 45 minutes each, including the extra time spent on introductions and explaining the project and terms. The interviews were recorded and then transcribed. Afterwards, the researcher coded these interviews based on the transcription to reveal a rich and broad understanding of the data. Before the interviews were conducted, a pilot interview was held to test if the questions were chosen wisely. Based on those results, it was decided that the guidance questions were appropriate.

The population of this study is the 177 employees that work at Park Hyatt Hamburg. However, since it is virtually impossible to interview each and every employee, a section of the population was sampled (Verhoeven, 2011). Purposive sampling was necessary, as a specific group of interviewees were chosen based on specific attributes and characteristics (Miles & Huberman, 1994; Boije, 2010). The objective of this research was to interview a wide spectrum of culturally diverse employees in regard to nationality, age, gender and religion.

Seven employees from the FO and five employees from the HSK department were interviewed. Six of them were female and six male, as the perceptions of males and females can differ (Brizendine, 2006). The average age of employees at Park Hyatt is approximately 31 years. In order to represent the average, six interviewees between 20 and 30, four employees between 30 and 40 and only two employees between 40 and 50 were interviewed. To get a high variety of culturally diverse employees, six Protestants, four Muslims and two non-denominational employees were interviewed. Additionally, five German employees, four foreign employees and three employees with a German and a second nationality were interviewed as standards and values differ among nationalities and therefore the perceptions are also different (Reisinger & Turner, 2003). Lastly, attention was paid to the cultural experiences with the intention of seeing the connection between cultural competencies and the perception of cultural differences. Consequently, six employees were interviewed who had no contact with other cultures during their education, and another six who had contact with other cultures during their youth. However, after conducting the interviews, it was noticed that all interviewees had contact with other cultures at some point.

Verhoeven (2011) states that qualitative research requires a qualitative analysis. This involves the interpretation of audiotapes, photographs and/or videos. As previously mentioned, the instrument for this research was interviews. For these interviews, different questions were prepared and twelve interviews were organised and scheduled with the help of the human resources manager of Park Hyatt Hamburg. In order to record the interviews, a recording device was brought to each interview, guaranteeing that no important information was lost. Each interview was conducted in a private room at the Park Hyatt Hamburg in order to avoid distractions and to make sure that the interviewees were in a familiar environment. The interviews lasted approximately 45 minutes and open-ended questions were utilised, which provided the opportunity for a unique insight (Becker & Verhoeven, 2000). During the interviews, beverages and chocolate were provided to ensure that the employees felt comfortable.

The research was based upon several semi-interchangeable steps. This is recommended by Jorgensen (1989), Charmaz (2009), and Boeije (2010) to get the best results. First, data was collected from the interviews. The interviews were recorded and transcribed, allowing the researcher an accurate coding process (Charmaz, 2009). Afterwards, open coding took place which is the act of "breaking down, examining, comparing, conceptualizing and categorizing data" (Strauss & Corbin, 2007, p.61). Thus all data was read and divided carefully into segments. These segments were compared and, based on the topic, sorted into labelled groups. In this process the information gained was disassembled into components and fragments and named by giving them a code (Jorgensen, 1989; Charmaz, 2009; Boejie, 2010). Such a code could represent an analytical or theoretical concept, but it could also be descriptive or practical (Lewins & Silver, 2007). The purpose of the coding was to highlight the main information that was gained during the interviews (Charmaz, 2009; Boeije, 2010). After the open coding, the axial coding took place during which the labels and codes were categorised to enable the researcher to create a concept (Strauss & Corbin, 2007). Lastly, the selective coding was conducted. During that step, central themes which emerge from the different categories were looked for. This allowed the creation of a rich exploration and included a theoretical, abstract view (Charmaz, 2009; Boeije, 2010).

Based on Wilson and Joyce (2016), people talk more when they remain anonymous compared to when their names are published. Consequently, the interviews were conducted on an anonymous basis. No names and departments are mentioned on the transcribed interviews in order to make sure that the data cannot be linked to the employees. Instead, numbers from one to twelve were used so as to be able to quote and refer to the different interviews. Before the interviews were conducted, the interviewee was informed by the researcher that the interviews are handled confidentially and anonymously and that the tape is erased after writing the report. Therefore, the interviewees knew that any information given during the interview was not linked to their name. As the interviews were conducted on an anonymous basis and no confidential data was used, the research can be published.

Findings

First, employees' perception with regard to cultural diversity is discussed. Each interviewee mentioned that due to workplace diversity one can learn a lot from one's colleagues, for instance about different traditions, habits, or religions as well as languages. Take, for example, interviewees (12) and (4) who referred to traditions and eating habits:

> *For instance, at the moment there is Ramadan and due to that I learn a lot from working colleagues how it works and that you cannot eat after sunrise and before sunset and about the Sugar Festival.* (12)

> *Even though it might only be the lunch which is made up of bread and olive oil, I always find it interesting to learn about other lifestyles.* (4)

Both interviewees talked about completely different areas, namely religious traditions and eating habits, but they both mentioned what one can learn from culturally diverse work areas. Such differences enrich the workplace, as indicated by several interviewees stating that cultural diversity provides different insights, ways of thinking, ways to solve problems and perspectives and opinions. For instance, beverage preferences were discussed:

> *When a guest complaints about something, we sometimes bring them a bottle of wine and one of my French colleagues told me once that French people only like red wine from their own country and not from, for instance, Chile or South Africa. And therefore we always try to make sure that French people get a French wine.* (12)

In this case it can be seen that employees with other cultural backgrounds might have different cultural knowledge which was, in this case, the knowledge about the preferences of French guests. Such knowledge is also profitable for the company because the employees are more sensitive to other cultures and thus improve guest service. Further, cultural diversity improves the workplace, as it makes it more interesting, bringing variety to the work. Based on a small number of interviewees, it makes the work itself more fun, challenging and exciting. Additionally, better results can be achieved due to the fact that bigger fields of knowledge are covered, based on one interviewee, and a higher level of creativity is obtained, which was remarked by a few interviewees. Interviewee (2) gave an example about a new idea for a children's room:

> *You are much more creative. For instance, we have a lot of Arab guests and once an Arab colleague told me that it is important for the Arab people that their children are entertained since they always have someone at home who takes care of the children. Therefore, we came up with the idea to create a kind of children's room in one of the conference rooms with a Wii and toys and things like that.* (2)

This example illustrates that due to a colleague's help and knowledge, the interviewee was much more creative and was able to come up with a new idea, in this case the creation of a children's room. Lastly, working with colleagues who are culturally different also provides advantages in private life. Quite a few interviewees commented that it is helpful for travelling and it makes it easier to adapt to a different country and culture. Generally, many interviewees commented that they prefer working in a diverse workplace due to the previously mentioned points.

Nonetheless, many disadvantages were also raised. Almost all interviewees indicated that conflicts and problems arise when the differences are too big. This includes differences in character, values, attitude, and mentality. Different examples were stated with regard to this, such as the directness of Germans, as well as the value of being punctual:

> *In Europe things are said in a direct way. In Asia, for instance, this is not done. They like beating around the bush and that can lead to problems because the other person might feel offended and therefore does not like working anymore.* (5)

> *For instance, punctuality. I mean there is a reason why I tell a cleaner to come at a certain time. Because I cannot tell the guests at 3pm that their rooms are not ready yet because one of my cleaners arrived two hours late.* (1)

These are examples of how big differences in culture can lead to conflicts and problems. In this case, the German characteristic of being direct is mentioned, and that punctuality is very important in Germany. Next to big differences, communication problems can also lead to problems if there is no common language, but also the perception of non-verbal language can lead to misunderstandings. Punctuality was mentioned by several interviewees:

> *It is not about the language itself but about what is meant. For example punctuality, when I tell my colleague to meet at 9:15…then it is clear language-wise, but nevertheless it does not always mean that the colleague will be there at 9:15.* (4)

This example shows that even though things might be expressed in a clear way, in this case the time, the understanding of the content can differ. Furthermore, six interviewees mentioned that he/she did not experience any disadvantages with regard to cultural diversity due to the fact that he/she was raised in different cultures and was always in contact with them. Overall, it can be concluded that the majority of interviewees perceive the work with culturally diverse people as motivating, and only a small number revealed that they find it neither motivating nor demotivating. They explained that the work with other cultures should not be generalised and it is more important to have a good team:

> *I would not say that I find it motivating. I do not mind, I want a good team. It does not matter if the people come from other countries. It just has to work. But I cannot say that I find it demotivating.* (7)

This example shows that factors such as personality and working behaviour are more important than the person's cultural background.

Factors influencing culturally diverse workforces

Different factors also came up that explained whether cultural diversity is seen as positive or negative. Firstly, certain conditions have to be met, including a basic understanding of language, otherwise cooperation is not possible. In addition, a high number of interviewees commented that it is important that both sides are willing to adapt and get involved. Interviewee (4) mentioned an example of different attitudes. He/She met an Arab man while travelling who perceived the attack on the World Trade Centre as positive:

> *If someone has such an attitude and does not accept any other opinion, then it is difficult to discuss it and no matter how open you are, if the other one is not open at all, then it does not work.* (4)

This example shows that cooperation between culturally diverse employees only works if both parties are willing to adapt to the other culture.

Certain characteristics are crucial when it comes to cooperation with culturally diverse workforces. It is important to be open of other cultures, and one interviewee indicated that it is essential to show respect and tolerance. Further, some interviewees indicated that the way one grew up also plays a major role in the interaction with other cultures:

> *My parents were really open for other cultures… For instance, we had an exchange student for half a year…that lived with us. He came from Brazil and therefore I learnt as a child already to be open towards other cultures.* (1)

This shows that the way one is raised can be linked to how open one is towards other cultures. As for Park Hyatt, it was remarked by numerous interviewees that most employees grew up in Germany and therefore have a similar culture to the German employees, which limits the differences:

> *Most of the colleagues are foreign but they grew up in Germany or have lived in Germany since they were very young and therefore they often adopt the behaviour and standards of the Germans. As a result the differences are most of the time not very big.* (1)

> *In my opinion it also depends on where the people grew up…I think I would feel more differences with a colleague who is 30 years older than to a Turkish colleague who is my age and was born in Germany and lived here his whole life.* (4)

Experience with other cultures

Most of the employees have had contact with other cultures due to travelling. However, interviewee (8) brought up that one does not even have to travel in order to meet other cultures:

> *To be honest, I think that one can gather cultural experiences every day on the street, in the supermarket, in the gym or while going out. One does not have to travel far. One simply should not close the eyes.* (8)

This underlines the fact that one can experience other cultures while remaining in Germany if he or she is open to it. In addition, a few interviewees lived or grew up abroad, for example, interviewee (9), who lived in America and India for several years, and interviewee (10) who grew up in Kosovo and came to Germany as a refugee. A small number of employees grew up with other cultures and a handful of interviewees lived with foreign people. However, half of the interviewees said that they did not work together with other cultures during their education, while only a few interviewees had contact with other cultures while going to school. Nonetheless, even though most of the employees are culturally open and enjoy working with other cultures, it is still unclear what kind of role cultural diversity plays in overall motivation.

While taking a look at the factors that are the most motivating for employees, it is clear that the majority of the interviewees perceive extrinsic factors as most important, such as the team or the boss:

> *I definitely find the colleagues very important. From the executive staff to the colleagues in the department, everyone is always motivated and helpful. That is great. Then it is nice to come to work and the atmosphere is automatically better.* (9)

This shows that pleasant colleagues as well as supervisors are highly motivating. This factor was followed by praise and recognition that a high number of interviewees also mentioned. Different opinions surfaced with regard to money. On one side, it was declared that money is not the most important factor. On the other side, a few employees stated that money is an important motivator for them. Moreover, some of the employees said that a good atmosphere, including respect for each other, is very important and that there has to be variety in the workplace. Lastly, one employee expressed that guest contact is a motivating factor.

Moving on to the intrinsic factors, only a few factors were mentioned by a small number of employees. These factors included challenges, making progress, learning new things and development opportunities. Employees have different perceptions about what they perceive as demotivating, but most of the factors were linked to bad teamwork:

> *I find it very demotivating to work with people who do not like me or the other way around. Then I am not motivated to come to work and to do my tasks properly. So teamwork is really important to me.* (8)

Getting on well with colleagues plays a crucial role when it comes to motivation. Other employees summed up that ungratefulness is the most demotivating factor at work*:*

> *I find it frustrating when I put a lot of work into something and then no one comes and says thank you or well done. Or when I take over a task from a colleague but he does not even say thank you.* (2)

This demonstrates how ungratefulness can lead to demotivation. In congruence with the motivating factors, it was mentioned by a couple of interviewees that impolite, dissatisfied guests and a negative atmosphere are also demotivating. With regard to the duties, two employees stated that having to do impossible tasks is demotivating. Only one employee mentioned factors such as misunderstandings, stress, no responsibility, lazy and unreliable colleagues, and monotonous work as demotivating.

Overall, it can be seen that all of the employees had experiences with culturally different people and most of the interviewees remarked that the advantage of working with other cultures is that one can learn a lot. On the contrary, the most mentioned disadvantage was that too great a difference can lead to conflicts and problems. The majority of motivating factors were extrinsic, such as praise and the team, while most demotivating factors were working with a bad team and ungratefulness. In order to evaluate these findings, they are critically compared to the established literature from the beginning of this report in the following discussion.

Conclusion

Cultural diversity is linked to an employee's motivation since the majority of employees mentioned that teamwork and atmosphere, which also includes cultural diversity, are the most motivating factors. Further, most employees referred positively to cultural diversity. On one hand, this can be explained by the fact that all of the interviewees have experience with other cultures and therefore are culturally competent. This is also underlined by Odenwald (1996) and Köppel (2008), who state that the main factor generating a different perception of cultural diversity is the level of cultural competencies. On the other hand, it can be seen that most of the foreign employees who work at Park Hyatt Hamburg grew up in Germany and therefore are quite similar to the German employees. Therefore, deep-level dissimilarities are limited. Regarding these, all twelve interviewees said that deep-level dissimilarities such as different values, mentality or attitude can lead to conflicts and are therefore demotivating. This is in line with Harrison, Price and Bell (1998) and Martin (2014), who all state that deep-level dissimilarities are negatively linked to group cohesion and lead to conflicts. Combining these two facts, it can be assumed that the number of negative experiences with regard to cultural diversity is limited because most employees are similar on a deep level, including standards and values.

Finally, a comparison of these findings with the research questions and the themes of the selective coding showed that they are in congruence with previous research. However, during this research, a link was discovered between motivation and cultural diversity as most employees perceive the team as the main motivator that also includes cultural diversity.

Several limitations need to be acknowledged. First, generalisation is limited as this study focuses on the hotel sector. The context of this research focuses on one hotel in Germany and therefore is an emic approach (Berry, 1997). In order to refine and elaborate on this study, it should be expanded to other areas. Furthermore, the conducting of the interviews was more difficult than expected due to the fact that some employees were not willing to be interviewed due to the fact that they felt too uncomfortable to do so. They could not be convinced by the researcher even though the interviews were conducted anonymously.

Additionally, the researcher faced some language problems with regard to some interviewees. For instance, one interviewee who grew up in Kosovo barely spoke German and English and therefore it was hard to conduct the interview with her. Nevertheless, the insight provided by a refugee who came to Germany approximately 20 years ago was very relevant to the outcomes of the research.

Lastly, the only source of data was interviews. This could have led to the fact that the interviewees felt under pressure to answer the question quickly and did not have enough time to think about a question. Triangulation could improve the trustworthiness of this study. Different methods could be used as well as different sources to collect data (Lincoln & Guba, 1985).

Note

[1] This paper is based on the Management Project undertaken by Laura Velten in support of her studies toward a Bachelor of Business Administration (Hotel Management) at Stenden University of Applied Science.

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Workers in the luxury hospitality industry and motivation – the influence of gender, age and departments[1]

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This research was conducted to find out whether demographics such as age, gender and working within different departments have an influence on the motivational factors of workers in the luxury hospitality industry. Questionnaires were filled out by 39 employees from the luxury five-star XYZ Hotel situated in an Italian city. In this questionnaire all the participants had to rank the motivational factors on a Likert scale. This study found, by using the ANOVA statistical test, that there was only a relation between age, the opportunity for advancement and sympathetic personal help. This study also found that appreciation for a job well done was the most important motivational factor, whereas the opportunity for advancement was ranked as least important. Moreover, each age group, gender and department is motivated by different factors. It was notable that previous research showed similarities with the current research. However, there were also various differences noticed. XYZ Hotel can use this research to get a better insight into the motivational factors from its workers, and better motivation strategies can be developed. Moreover, this research can be duplicated within other segments of the hospitality industry.

Keywords: demographics, motivation in the hospitality industry, luxury hotels, employee motivation

Introduction

XYZ Hotel is a luxury five-star hotel with 58 rooms in the city centre. The XYZ Hotel is competitive, aims to be the best and wants to exceed the guests' expectations. Therefore, the employees in this hotel are highly important since they provide this five-star experience. Unfortunately, the hospitality industry is characterised by unfavourable environments like low pay and a labour intensive nature (Welman & Kruger, 2001). Especially within this industry, where the turnover is high and the labour intensive, understanding hotel worker motivation is becoming a more important issue (Chiang, Jang, Canter, & Price, 2008). It is very difficult for an employee who has low work satisfaction to give proper service (Üngüren, Cengiz & Algür, 2009). This is why motivating employees and keeping them satisfied are some of the ways that managers and/or organisations retain employees and provide excellent service (Costen & Salazar, 2011).

The workforce in the XYZ Hotel is diverse. The employees are not only from Italy itself, but from all over the world. In addition, there is a wide range of age groups. Each employee has their own personality and the employees work in different departments that might influence the motivational factors. All employees were asked to fill in a questionnaire asking if there were any similarities among the motivational factors within the same demographic group. These questionnaires were analysed and reviewed against previous research, which led to a good insight into the motivational factors of employees at the XYZ Hotel.

Employee motivation

Honore (2009) asserted that employee motivation is important for organisations to research because it can help provide information to understand employee performance levels as well as turnover rates. In addition, if hotel managers can satisfy their employees by understanding their underlying motivations, it will help them to improve customer satisfaction in the long run (Tsaur & Lin, 2004).

There are two motivational factors that can affect employees, namely intrinsic and extrinsic motivators. As stated by Herzberg, Mausner and Snyderman (1959), the extrinsic factors come from outside the individual, such as money, rewards and working conditions. When these factors are unfavourable, job dissatisfaction will result. But when these factors are favourable, this cannot result in job satisfaction, but only reduces the dissatisfaction. On the other hand, the intrinsic factors are driven by the interest or enjoyment from the task itself, such as being part of a team, achievement and having a role in decision-making. These factors will lead to job satisfaction because it is satisfying the individual's need for self-actualisation (Maroudas, Kyriakidou & Vacharis, 2008). Furnham, Forde and Ferrari (2008) suggested that this theory led to the widespread enthusiasm in defining tasks in such a way as to build more opportunities for personal achievements such as recognition, challenge and individual growth. Honore (2009) agrees with this because empowerment and giving more responsibility will boost the employee's confidence. Besides, many of these intrinsically driven motivational forces provide the employees with a reason to work hard and to stay in the organisation.

The study by Kovach (2002) showed that employees ranked "a feeling of being in on thing", "interesting work" and "appreciation of a job well done" as the top three most motivational factors, while "good wages" were ranked as number five out of the ten factors. The study by Carter (2007) shares almost the same findings as Kovach's research. In Carter's study "being recognised", "personal growth" and "being in on things" were the most important motivational factors. However, Breiter, Tesone, Van Leeuwen and Rue (2002) stated that "good wages", "job security" and "good working conditions" are the most motivating factors for hotel workers.

In a competitive economy, there is a constant emphasis on creating and maintaining a high performance work team (Nguyen, Dang & Nguyen, 2014). It should be understood how to create such a high performance work team in the first place. In discussions on organisational success, managers often say that employees' morale is one of the crucial factors for success (Bakotić, 2013). High job performance is what managers aim for. Motivation definitely has a certain impact on employee performance (Nguyen, Dang & Nguyen, 2014). Ryan and Deci (2000) agree with this and add that motivation is a key element of employee performance and productivity. Honore (2009) agrees as well and elaborates by saying that researching employee motivation can help understand employee performance levels.

One of the biggest challenges for the human resource professional is to retain employees. Employee turnover has grown in complexity (Arekar, Jain, Desphande & Sherin, 2016). Motivation is closely connected to employee turnover. To continue, employees are more likely to stay in the job when job satisfaction outweighs dissatisfaction. As stated by Cho and Lewis (2012), turnover creates serious consequences for all. It will have a negative effect on the morale of the remaining employees and performance often decreases. Individuals with low job satisfaction typically lack motivation to perform at their best and this lack of motivation can lead to increased employee turnover.

The numbers of different age groups within the workforce are increasing. Since motivational factors can differ per age group, it is thus very important to understand what is motivating every specific employee. In this section, literature about age and motivation will be analysed. According to Simons and Enz (2007), both old and young hospitality workers placed "wages" as the most important motivational factor. However, the older workers also placed "job security" and "favourable working conditions" as important motivational factors. On the other hand, the younger workers want to have more opportunities to develop themselves and, importantly, that the work be interesting. This shows that it might be beneficial for managers to select a specific motivational approach per age group. Different age groups have different values that motivate them. Moreover, the study of Gladwell, Dorwart, Stone and Hammond (2010) showed that the older workers valued retirement insurance, while the younger workers ranked parental leave as important. However, there were differences between the rankings of these age groups: professional development was important for all the age groups. Elijah-Mensah (2009) suggests that there is no relationship between age and motivational factors. This study stated that the differences in motivational factors from the other studies appeared because of historical experiences.

Kukanja (2013) states that "money" and "fun" are more important to women than men. Moreover, according to the study of DiPietro, Kline and Nierop (2014), women will be more motivated by "interesting work" and "appreciation for a job well done" than men. Furthermore, Maroudas, Kyriakidou and Vacharis (2008) stated that men place more emphasis than women on the participation in events organised by their respective companies, and on the best employee of the month. Males have a more competitive stance toward their employment relationships. Moreover, as stated by Wiese and Coetzee (2013), males are more motivated by opportunities for advancement than females. On the other hand, there are also studies which do not show any real differences in the motivational profiles generated by male and female hotel workers (Simons & Enz, 2007).

Simons and Enz (2007) state that different motivational factors apply in different departments. The top three motivational factors for food and beverage servers were good wages, developmental opportunities and job security. The workers in the front office department gave similar emphases to wages and opportunities, but placed appreciation in their top three instead of job security. According to the housekeeping workers, job security was ranked as the most motivational factor, followed by wages and working conditions. The workers from the housekeeping department are not motivated by developmental opportunities as noted by this study. Moreover, the room attendants and stewards might view promotion as highly unlikely, which is why they focus on having a well-paying, pleasant and secure job.

It is important to know that employee motivation might affect customer satisfaction. Employees who understand the expectations of their employers and are motivated to perform their job functions well have a positive impact on customers. Employees who are motivated to be effective company representatives take time to ensure customer satisfaction. This can help a company attract and retain a customer base (Daniel, 2017). Ganesh (2016) agrees with this and elaborates that ultimately winning the trust of the customers has to be done by employees. Thus, it is necessary to analyse the extent to which employees are motivated and also to understand the relationship between employee motivation and customer retention.

Research approach

This study aims to find out if demographics such as age, gender and departments are influencing motivational factors. In order to answer this problem statement, several research questions were created. Each research question was specifically focused on one demographic group.

Research aim

What is the influence of the different demographics of the workers in the luxury hospitality industry on motivational factors?

Research questions

1. What is the influence of the age of workers in the luxury hospitality industry on motivational factors?

2. What is the influence of the gender of workers in the luxury hospitality industry on motivational factors?
3. What is the influence of working in a specific department in the luxury hospitality industry on motivational factors?

For this study, the type of research was defined as descriptive, since the influences of different demographics on motivation were researched. In order to conduct this research, quantitative data was collected.

A questionnaire was used since this type of instrument gives numerical responses that cannot be misinterpreted. The questionnaire consisted of two parts. In the first part, questions to gather information about the employee were asked. These questions were focused on the gender, hierarchical level in the organisation, cultural background, age, department and the years of being active in this hotel.

The second part of the questionnaire consisted of questions related to motivators. Participants were asked to rank ten factors in order of what motivates them to work. These ten factors were ranked on a Likert scale.

The questionnaire was completed by employees of the XYZ Hotel. This hotel is quite small and there are only 150 employees. When setting the confidence level at 95% and the confidence interval at 15, the sample size needed to be set at 33. Which means that the aim was to get 33 completed questionnaires back. Moreover, the questionnaire was translated into Italian to give all the employees the opportunity to participate. The sample method of this research was determined randomly. The participants that were working during the week that this questionnaire was handed out all had the opportunity to participate and were part of the sample size.

In March 2017, the questionnaires were handed out in the different departments of the XYZ Hotel. All the employees had one week to fill in the questionnaire. The employees who filled in the questionnaire will stay anonymous, since this subject is quite sensitive.

Findings

Thirty-nine fully completed and useable questionnaires were received. All these questionnaires were handed out and filled in by the employees working during week 10, from 6 to 12 March. Table 1 presents all the background characteristics of the participants. The respondents were 54% male and 46% female, most respondents were of Italian nationality and the most responses came from the youngest age category. Moreover, the operational workers, the workers active between zero and one year and over ten years responded in high volumes. Furthermore, the workers from the kitchen and housekeeping department filled in the most questionnaires.

Forty-one per cent of the total respondents were aged between 18 and 25 years old. This group had the highest participation. Between the three age categories, in the middle there is a difference of one person in responses. 21% of the total respondents were aged between 25 and 30 years old, 18% aged between 30 and 40 years old and 20% were over 40 years of age.

The workers of the hotel were asked to rate the importance of ten factors using a Likert scale, where 1 = not at all important and 5 = extremely important. Table 2 shows with which average rate each factor is rated.

Table 1: Demographic profile of the respondents

Characteristics		*n*	%
Gender	Male	21	54
	Female	18	46
Nationality			
	Italian	17	44
	Romanian	4	10
	Philippine	6	15
	Ecuadorean	1	3
	Sri Lankan	5	13
	Other	6	15
Age category			
	18–25	16	41
	25–30	8	21
	30–40	7	18
	40–50	6	15
	50–60	2	5
	>60	0	0
Department	Housekeeping	11	28
	Food & beverages	6	15
	Kitchen	13	33
	Guest services	5	13
	Other	4	10
Level	Manager	2	5
	Supervisor	14	36
	Operational	23	59
Years active	0–1	14	36
	1–2	3	8
	2–4	7	18
	4–10	5	13
	>10	10	26

It can easily be seen what is the most important for that specific age group. Starting with the youngest group, the group between 18 and 25 years old, we can see that the "appreciation for a job well done" is the most important factor ($M = 5.00$). This factor is followed by "sympathetic personal help" ($M = 4.88$). The factor "feeling of being in on things" ($M = 4.75$) and "good working conditions" ($M = 4.75$) got the same grades and are also very important. "Good wages" ($M = 4.38$) are the least important for this group.

When looking at the age group between 25 and 30 years, it can be seen that good working conditions ($M = 4.88$) is the most important factor. Followed by the opportunity for advancement ($M = 4.75$), and then the loyalty to employees ($M = 4.50$) and interesting work ($M = 4.50$) were the highest rated. Tactful discipline ($M = 3.75$) is the least important for this group.

The age group in the middle, the workers between 30 and 40 years old, shoed that there are two factors which are the most important for this group: loyalty to employees ($M = 4.86$) and the job security ($M = 4.86$). Followed by four other factors that are also very important for this age group and all got the same grade ($M = 4.71$): the appreciation for a job well done, interesting work, tactful discipline and sympathetic personal help. The opportunity for advancement ($M = 3.14$) is the least important factor for this age group.

The group between 40 and 50 years old graded five factors as most important ($M = 5.00$). These factors are good wages, interesting work, job security, sympathetic personal help and loyalty to employees. The opportunity for advancement

Table 2: Job factor ranking by age group

Age	Appreciation for a job well done	Good wages	Good working conditions	Feeling of being in on things	Opportunity for advancement	Interesting work	Job security	Tactful discipline	Sympathetic personal help	Loyalty to employees
18–25	5.00	4.38	4.75	4.75	4.69	4.63	4.63	4.50	4.88	4.56
25–30	4.38	3.88	4.88	4.25	4.75	4.50	4.38	3.75	4.25	4.50
30–40	4.71	4.14	4.29	4.14	3.14	4.71	4.86	4.71	4.71	4.86
40–50	4.83	5.00	4.83	4.50	3.67	5.00	5.00	4.67	5.00	5.00
50–60	4.50	4.50	4.50	3.50	3.50	4.50	4.50	4.00	4.50	4.50
Total	4.77	4.33	4.69	4.44	4.21	4.67	4.67	4.38	4.72	4.67

(M = 3.67) is the least important factor for this age group. The group between 50 and 60 years old had seven factors rated with the highest grade. The lowest rated factors are tactful discipline (M = 4.00), feeling of being in on things (M = 3.50) and the opportunity for advancement (M = 3.50).

When looking at the total average grades of all groups per factor, it can been seen that the appreciation for a job well done (M = 4.77) and sympathetic personal help (M = 4.72) are the most important factors.

The influence of gender on motivation factors

In order to find an answer to this research question, the link between gender and the ranking of motivational factors was researched. Twenty-one participants out of the 39 participants were male and there were 18 female participants.

For the female participants, it can be seen that the most important factor is the appreciation for a job well done (M = 4.94). This factor is followed by good working conditions (M = 4.78) and sympathetic personal help (M = 4.78), all of which are also important to the female respondents. The opportunity for advancement was the least important to the female respondents (M = 4.22). Two factors were the most important for the male participants: the work should be interesting (M = 4.67) and sympathetic personal help (M = 4.67). These factors were closely followed by two other factors. According to the males, it is also important that there are good working conditions (M = 4.62) and that appreciation for a job well done is expressed (M = 4.62). Similarly to the woman, the opportunity for advancement was rated as lowest and thus also the least important to the male respondents (M = 4.19) (Figure 1).

The influence of departments on motivation factors

In the housekeeping department, the two most important factors are the appreciation for a job well done (M = 4.73) and sympathetic personal help (M = 4.73). After these two factors, the factor job security (M = 4.55) is important. The least important factor is the opportunity for advancement (M = 3.73). The participants from the housekeeping department were not extremely motivated by this factor on average.

The food and beverages department is very motivated by the interesting work factor (M = 5.00). Five other factors follow with the same average grade, namely appreciation for a job well done (M = 4.83), good working conditions (M = 4.83), tactful discipline (M = 4.83), sympathetic personal help (M = 4.83) and loyalty to employees (M = 4.83). The factor of having the feeling of being in on things (M = 4.00) received the lowest grade.

Continuing with the kitchen department, job security is the most important motivational factor (M = 4.85). After this factor, there are three other factors which are very important for the employees of the kitchen department, namely good

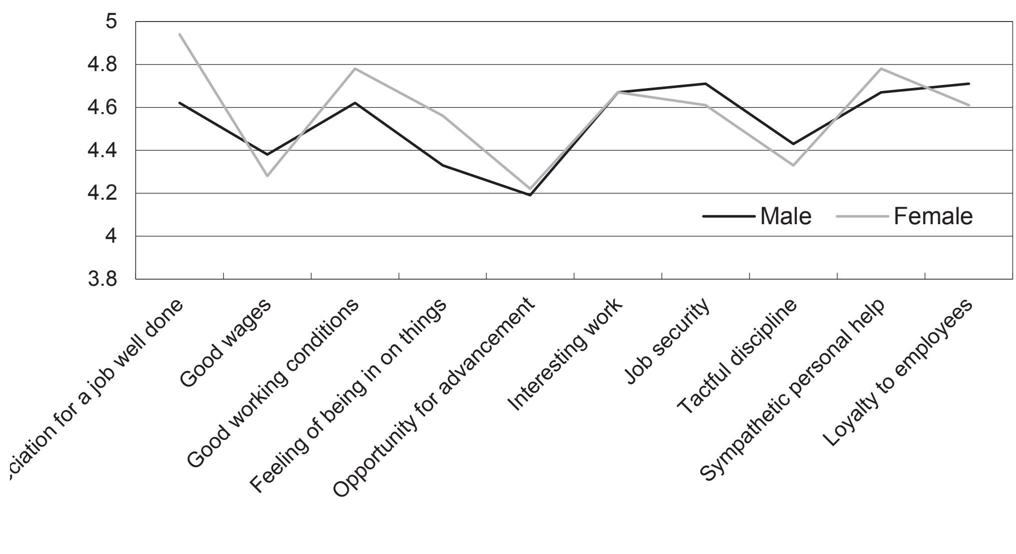

Figure 1: The effects of gender on responses

working conditions ($M = 4.77$), sympathetic personal help ($M = 4.77$) and the loyalty towards employees ($M = 4.77$). The kitchen department is the least motivated by good wages, which factor received the lowest grade ($M = 4.31$).

In the guest services department, all the participants agreed that appreciation for a job well done ($M = 5.00$), good working conditions ($M = 5.00$) and the feeling of being in on things ($M = 5.00$) were the most motivating factors. Moreover, the loyalty to employees ($M = 4.60$) is important and the work should be interesting ($M = 4.60$). In the opinion of the guest services department, the opportunity for advancement ($M = 4.20$) and good wages ($M = 4.20$) are the least important.

Lastly, the other departments, in this case the spa and maintenance department, selected eight factors as the most important. Two factors were the least important, namely the feeling of being in on things ($M = 4.50$) and the opportunity for advancement ($M = 4.50$).

When looking at the total average grades of all departments per factor, it can been seen that the appreciation for the job well done ($M = 4.77$) and sympathetic personal help ($M = 4.72$) are the most important factors.

The objective of this research was to give insight into the motivational factors of workers in the luxury hospitality industry and how different demographics such as age, gender and departments influence this. The findings indicate that there is only a significant relation between age and the opportunity for advancement and between age and sympathetic personal help. According to the statistical tests, there is no relation between gender or department and motivational factors.

However, all the findings of this research can be contrasted with previous literature. In order to discuss the research's findings in relation to previous findings, each research question will be separately reviewed below.

It is stated by Simons and Enz (2007) that both old and young hospitality workers place "wages" as the most important motivational factor. However, according to our research, good wages is the least important motivational factor for young hospitality workers. On the other hand, the older workers of this research agree, good wages is the most important motivation factor (Simons & Enz, 2007). In addition, the older workers of this research rated the job security and good working conditions as important factors. Thus, the older workers of this research agree with the statement of Simons and Enz (2007) that older workers placed "job security" and "favourable working conditions" as an important motivational factor.

Again, Simons and Enz (2007) stated that younger workers want to have more opportunities to develop themselves, and that interesting work is also important. This corresponds with our research. As can been seen in the results, the younger workers between the age of 25 and 30 years rate this as an important factor, whereas, this is the least important motivational factor for the older workers. However, this research did not have any similarities with the study of Gladwell, Dorwart, Stone and Hammond (2010). Gladwell et al. stated that the opportunity for advancement was important for all age groups, while the research reported on here showed that this opportunity was the least important for three out of the five age groups. Our research shows that all the different age groups have different values that motivate them.

For Elijah-Mensah (2009), there is no relationship between age and motivational factors. Differences in motivational factors appear because of historical influences and experiences in lives. As our research shows, there are two motivational factors that show a relationship with age. However, not all motivational factors have this relationship. Moreover, in the findings section it can been seen that all age groups responded very differently to what motivated them the most.

As several researchers show, the most important motivational factors differ per gender, which can also be seen in our research. As concluded by Kukanja (2013), good wages are more important for female workers than for male workers. However, this research showed the opposite: good wages were more important for our research's male participants than its female participants.

Our research agrees with the statement by DiPietro, Kline and Nierop (2014): female participants are more motivated by the appreciation for a job well done than the male participants. However, in contrast with the statement by DiPietro, Kline and Nierop (2014) that interesting work is also more important for females than men, our research found that both genders rated this with the same grade. Next to this, as stated by Wiese and Coetzee (2013), males are motivated by opportunities for advancement than females. On the other hand, our research found that the female participants are more motivated by the opportunity for advancement than the male participants.

Moreover, the study by Simons and Enz (2007) stated that there are also studies which do not show any real differences in the motivational profiles generated by male and female hotel workers. When reviewing our research, it can be said that there are no really big differences between the motivational factors of the males and females. Both lines in the chart run quite similarly. Furthermore, the ANOVA test results did not show any significant relationship between the motivational factors and gender.

It is stated by Simons and Enz (2007) that people working in different departments are motivated by different motivational factors. When looking at our research, the different departments were indeed motivated by different motivational factors. However, after the ANOVA test, there was no significant relationship between the motivational factors and departments. When looking at the most important motivational factors for the food and beverage department of our research, this does not correspond with the study by Simons and Enz (2007), who stated that good wages, developmental opportunities and job security are the most important factors. Our research showed that interesting work was the most important factor. Moreover, according to our research, good wages, opportunity for advancement and job security belonged in the least motivational factor groups in the food and beverage department.

Simons and Enz (2007) stated that the front office department gave similar emphasis to wages and opportunities, but placed appreciation in their top three instead of job security. When reviewing our findings, it can be seen that this partly overlaps. The participants from the guest services department ranked appreciation for a job well done as the most important factor. However, good wages and the opportunity for advancement were rated as least important.

According to the housekeeping workers, job security was ranked as the most motivational factor followed by wages and working conditions. The workers from the housekeeping department are not motivated by developmental opportunities, as noted by Simons and Enz (2007). Again, our study partly agrees with this statement. When reviewing this study, it can be seen that the participants in the housekeeping department are the least motivated by the opportunity for advancement. This was the lowest score in comparison with the other departments. However, the participants from housekeeping were most motivated by the appreciation for a job well done and sympathetic personal help rather than job security, good wages and working conditions. However, there was no previous literature that specifically focused on the workers in the kitchen, maintenance and spa departments. The findings of this research may contribute to new research to include these departments.

Conclusion

The Marriott observation that it "Takes Happy Workers to Make Happy Customers" is a truth that is rarely practised in the way employees are managed. This research provides insights into the job factors that are most important to employees in different age, gender and department groupings. Hotel management needs to understand the differences between staff and their responses to employment factors. The importance of work type and departmental type seemed to be a factor where there were some interesting differences.

The XYZ Hotel is a luxury property and these findings are likely to be shaped by the staffing levels, employment conditions as well as the training and development opportunities on this property. These findings have to be seen as specific to the setting of this property and they cannot be generalised across the hotel sector. Indeed, where some of the findings are in contradiction to prior research, the nature of the luxury property may be a key factor in explaining these variations.

Note

1 This paper is informed by research undertaken by Ambra Hekman for her management project submitted in support of her Bachelor of Business Administration (Hotel Management) at Stenden University of Applied Science.

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What effects do student jobs have on the study performance, competency and career development of hospitality management students[1]

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This research examines the effects student jobs have on the study performance, and the competency and career development of hospitality management students. A 13-item survey was administered to a sample of 82 hospitality management students to see how they think about their student job. Qualitative data was collected by a focus group interview with hospitality entrepreneurs. The sample consisted of 48 MHS students and 34 HHS students. 78,8% of the respondents think a student job is useful for their study. For nine students, the student job affects school results. 63 students think they will find a future job easier because they have had a student job. The average of worked hours per week has a minimum of 3 and a maximum of 40 hours per week. Of all collected data, it can be concluded that having a student job is beneficial for the study performance, competence and career development of hospitality management students. A recommendation for Mise en Place is to put more focus on hiring hospitality management students. They tend to stay longer in the company because they gain knowledge, skills and experiences which are very useful and well-linked to their study and career.

Keywords: student jobs, study performance, competence and career development, hospitality management education

Introduction

The goal of this research is to find out if students who have a student job improve their chances in the labour market. It will be researched whether having a student job has an influence on study results. The research will explore what competencies are needed for a student job and what the added value to the career development of students is. We will discuss whether students who have a student job are more likely to get a (better) job in the future, and what the effects of both a study-related and non-study-related student job are.

Mise en Place is an organisation that focuses on selecting, educating and developing students between 16 and 22 years old. Students have the opportunity to work in the hospitality industry while they are studying. Mise en Place has more than 49 locations, both in and outside the Netherlands. Employees have the option to work in three different categories of work, namely hospitality, events, and kitchen. The hospitality group has the focus on working in restaurants, hotels, congresses, events, food services, catering and the healthcare sector. Relations of Mise en Place (hospitality-related) are Okura Hotel and Krasnapolsky Hotel in Amsterdam, the Fabrique in Utrecht, and Café Thus and the Harmonie in Leeuwarden. Employees working in this group need to follow three courses, namely gastronomy, correct draughting of beer and practice exercises. The focus for the events group is work at festivals, sport events such as FC Twente and concerts such as Zwarte Cross, Lowlands and Climax. Employees working in this group need to follow one course, which is the draughting of beer. The third group focuses on everything that has to do with the kitchen. The kitchen employees have knowledge of the kitchen and specialise in cutting and cooking techniques. Employees working in this group also need to follow three courses, namely kitchen experience, kitchen factory and kitchen-added value. The course kitchen experience is about general information about the kitchen. During the kitchen factory course, people learn cutting techniques and how to follow recipes. During the kitchen-added value course, people need to show what they have learned and know about the kitchen.

In 2016, 2 995 employees were recruited from all Mise en Place offices in the Netherlands. 271 employees resigned that year. The staff increased by 410 new employees, compared to the previous year (2015). Mise en Place employees have an average of six working hours a week. Salaries vary between €7.07 (18 years old) and €11.92 (22 years old) per hour.

This study aims to explore the effects and benefits for the study performance, competency and career development of hospitality management students when they have a student job in the hospitality industry. The lead author undertook the work placement internship at Mise en Place, Leeuwarden, and this allowed a lot of contact with students, which was seen as a great opportunity to do this research.

Student jobs

For employers who offer temporary and/or part-time work, students are very appealing. Students can be flexible when having a student job, because they often have no other obligations except for their studies, so they can work irregular hours. The work that is done by young people involves stringent restrictions, which derive directly from legislation and rules on child labour. For children aged 15 or under, a work ban applies. They may only work under exceptional conditions and under strict conditions. For example, young people aged 13–14 can only do light activities around the house and nearby, such as washing a car and babysitting (maximum two hours a day and up to twelve hours a week). From their 15th year, children may do light non-industrial work (such as delivering a morning newspaper). Young people aged 16 and 17 may work, but certain activities are not allowed. It should also be noted that a student job is something different from a holiday job. A student job will always take place (during the school year, after school time or on the weekend), while a holiday job is only done in the (usually summer) vacation. For holiday jobs, other rules apply for young people, regardless of their age.

An important question that arises is what are the pros and cons of a student job for society in general, but of course especially for the young people (Mizen, Bolton & Pole, 1999). Firstly, a student job offers a young person the opportunity to gain some experience in the labour market (Wolbers, 2003). The experience young people gain is beneficial for their future jobs. The work placement enables students to acclimatise to the workplace and to expectations about how they should behave. In addition, young people obtain more general skills such as responsibility, self-confidence, authority and independence (D'Amico, 1984; Lillydahl, 1990; Warren, LePore & Mare, 2000).

Secondly, a student-job offers young people the chance to make social contacts: they learn to know other people. The degree of contact differs, depending on the type of job (for example, the distinction between delivering newspapers and working in the hospitality industry).

Thirdly, young people earn money with a student job. That is nice for young people themselves (for example, to afford their nightlife and mobile phones), but also for parents who have to pay less for their children. In addition, young people also learn how to spend money, which is useful for their future when they live on their own.

There are also disadvantages in student jobs. The labour market participation of students can affect the employment perspectives of low-skilled people (Steijn & Hofman, 1999; Van der Meer & Wielers, 2001). They want the same kind of jobs as low-skilled people. In this "competition", students are in a better position because they are on average better educated, more flexible, less demanding and cheaper for the employer. As a result there are less employment opportunities for low-skilled people, which creates more social costs. A student job can also affect the amount of time spent on homework by students, which results in negative study results.

David Stern (1997) researched students and student jobs. Stern concludes that students who work more than 15 hours a week have poorer academic performance and are more likely to quit their studies. On the other hand, he also found out that there is a positive relationship between a student job (during a study) of a student and the future job of this student. In short, when a student has worked while studying, in the years afterwards, he or she finds a better job compared to students who did not work alongside their studies (Stern, 1997). Stern defines a better job as a job with a higher salary. This study is a good example of the impact of a student job on the labour market position since it is assumed that there are positive effects when you have worked alongside your studies says.

Study performance

According to the traditional organisational behaviour model, performance is a dependent variable subject to the influence of factors at three levels. Firstly the individual's abilities, motivation, perception and age are influential. Secondly, group influences and culture may or may not place value on educational attainment. Thirdly, at the organisational level, communications, leadership styles and the forms of bureaucratisation all set the context in which the new recruit works. Performance and productivity are the most important signs of organisational health. They have been the focus of attention among both academicians and practitioners in the field of industry and public service.

Study performance is the extent to which a student has reached their short- or long-term educational goals. There are two elements influencing study performance, including cognitive and non-cognitive factors. Cognitive factors (also called learning factors) are the extent to which a person's individual capabilities can influence their learning or academic performance. The factors consist of memory, attention and reasoning. Cognitive factors are measured through tests and examinations (Hannon, 2014).

Non-cognitive factors are a set of attitudes, skills, behaviours and strategies which stimulate professional and academic success, such as academic self-efficacy, motivation, emotional intelligence, expectancy and goal-setting theories, self-control and determination (Gutman & Schoon, 2013). Non-cognitive skills are becoming more popular because they provide a better explanation for professional and academic outcomes.

Competency and career development

Competency is understood to mean that a professional is capable, qualified and able to understand and to do certain things in an effective and appropriate manner. Just having the skills or knowledge is insufficient for someone to be seen as competent. There is an implication that competency needs action and verification (in some public way) of what is reached by that action. Moreover, effective and appropriate action requires critical thinking, judgment and decision-making. Competency also includes that someone's behaviour is consistent with guidelines and standards of peer review, values of the profession, ethical principles, especially those that will protect and otherwise benefit the community.

Reilly, Barclay and Culbertson (1977) and Proctor (1991) summarised the components of competency as how able a person is in a job or role (the performance), what a person can bring to a job or role (the knowledge) and what is reached by a person in a job or role (the outcomes). Epstein and Hundert (2002) defined professional competency as the usual and judicious use of communication, technical skills, knowledge, clinical reasoning, values, emotions and reflection in daily routine for benefits for individuals and society to be served. Competency has been described as effectively integrating the component skills, the knowledge base, the attitude, personal-professional ethics and values and profession-specific factors into professional practices, defined by procedures used, populations served, configuration of problems addressed and service settings.

Gaining more knowledge of employment while studying can help to place the studying in a longer time perspective, which could benefit the motivation (Husman & Lens, 1999) and could develop a realistic view of work (De Vos & Meganck, 2006). Overall, experience from student jobs contributes to the acquisition of useful skills and to the development of more realistic expectations regarding work. Future leaders must understand the awareness of customers needs, commitment to quality, managing stakeholders and concern for community. Implementation, communication skills and critical thinking were also considered as extremely important.

Career development is seen as the result of the interaction between the performance of the individual, the performance of the organisation and the performance of the society (Spijkerman & Admiraal, 2000). Career development is a continuous process of planning and actions for work and life goals. Career development is characterised by growth and continuous acquisition and use of the skills by the employee (Egan, Upton & Lynham, 2006). Managing career development has several positive effects for both the employer and the employee. Managing careers serves the continuity of the organisation (Paffen & Kluytmans, 2008). Through career management employees become more employable and that is beneficial to the organisation, because the organisation will be able to respond to changes in the environment (Bollen, Christiaens, de Vos, Forrier, Sels, & Soens, 2004).

Hospitality management education

Many researchers like Lundberg (1990), Ferreira (1992) and Samenfink (1992) have tried to characterise hospitality management by analysing its nature. Laesecke (1991) states that the role of educational hospitality organisations is to produce graduates who can lead, think and solve problems. Hospitality students should gain more knowledge about professional concepts, liberal studies and general business principles. Pavesic (1993) states that education must be seen as a journey, not a destination. According to Pizam (1995), the ultimate customers within the hospitality education are not students of catering and hotel courses, but the society in general and the hospitality industry. Hospitality management education is a study about the acquisition of skills and knowledge about management, comparable to that of other management programmes and the acquisitions of skills and knowledge about catering and hotel organisations in a comparable way to craft programmes. It means that hospitality management education can be seen as a combination of academic professional skills and knowledge aimed to satisfy the wants and needs of the hospitality industry. In addition, hospitality education should contribute to the students' development of interpersonal skills and communications and teach them how to lead other people (Goodman & Sprague, 1991).

Research approach

Mise en Place provides student jobs for students, and it is useful to examine the effects of study working on their study. The research aims and questions below were explored in this study.

Aim

The aim is to explore the effects of student jobs on the study performance, competency, and career development of hospitality management students.

Research questions

- What is the effect of a student job on study performance?
- What is the effect of a student job on the study results?
- What is the effect of a career-related or non-career-related student job on study results?
- What is the differential effect on study results of working more or less than 15 hours?
- Do students who have a student job find future work more easily?
- What are the differences between having a career-related student job and a non-career-related student job on ease of finding a job?
- What is the differential effect of working more or less than 15 hours on ease of finding a job?

For this management project, both qualitative and quantitative research is used. To collect qualitative data, a focus group was interviewed. The group consisted of hospitality entrepreneurs. Four entrepreneurs of various hospitality organisations were interviewed. Several questions and topics were raised. The themes explored the type of study the students were enrolled in; whether they had a student job?; why they had a student job?; what the pros and cons of having a student job were?; did they get a better job because they had a student job?; what is the criteria when hiring new employees? To gather quantitative data, surveys were used. With the use of surveys, a large group of students can be reached. By use of these data, it can be concluded how students experience a student job and if there are benefits for study performance and competency and career development when having a student job. What are the effects/advantages when graduates look for a permanent job?

Due to the fact that this research is based on students and the hospitality industry, data is collected about several groups of people. Firstly, students are the target audience. Around 80 surveys were handed out to obtain a clear understanding about students with a student job. Subsequently the data was processed in the program SPSS. Secondly, an interview was organised with entrepreneurs who work within the hospitality industry. It is interesting to see why and how they started in the hospitality industry. Which tools and education are needed to become a successful hospitality-related entrepreneur. What skills are needed and how do they think about a student job? By collecting data focusing on these categories of persons, the study aimed to clarify the research question, answer the problem statement and draw a clear conclusion.

Data collection procedure

Firstly, the four entrepreneurs within the hospitality industry were interviewed. The goal was to interview the owners of Pläske, Fellini's, Ewwerts' Bar and Double B, all restaurants. There was no reason for holding an interview with the entrepreneurs of precisely these restaurants. The restaurants were chosen randomly.

The surveys were handed out to students in hospitality programmes at Stenden University and Friesland College. These schools offer courses in hospitality management. When handing out the surveys, it was expected that students complete them immediately and return them on the spot. This ensures maximum response rates and that none are returned incomplete. After collecting data, the surveys were analysed by looking at the score of each question. The goal was to achieve around 80 surveys filled in.

To approach students of Stenden University, the student timetable was used. When handing out the survey, the potential respondent confirmed they were studying hospitality management. To approach MHS students of Friesland College, the HOM (Horeca Ondernemer Manager) department was visited. This enabled access to the potential respondents. The data gathered was then analysed using the SPPS program.

Findings

The sample consisted of 48 (58.5%) MHS students and 34 (41.5%) HHS students, which is a total of 82 respondents.

The majority (52) expects that a student job will be useful for their studies. For 57 students, a student job does not affect their study results. For nine students, a student job affects study results in a negative way. They fail to pass their tests or assignments. The majority (63) assumes they will find a future job more easily because of having had a student job. Forty-eight students indicated that there are disadvantages of having a student job. 18 students thought there were no disadvantages of having a student job.

The average of worked hours per week has a minimum of three hours and a maximum of 40 hours per week ($M = 12.95$; SD = 6.56). The average of total months students have a student job was a minimum of two months and a maximum of 75 months ($M = 20.11$; SD = 16.38). There is a significant difference between number of hours per week and a hospitality-related job ($t = 3.308$; df = 36.598; $p = 0.002$). Students who have a hospitality-related student job work on average 13.94 hours a week. Students who do not have a hospitality-related student job work on average 9.29 hours a week. There is no significant difference between working more or less than 15 hours and study results ($t = 3.042$; $df = 64$; $p = 0.003$). There is no significant difference between working more or less than 15 hours and ease of finding a future job ($t = 0.965$; df = 64; $p = 0.319$). There is no significant relationship between type of study and a career-related student job ($\chi^2 = 3.655$; df = 1; $p = 0.56$). There is no significant relationship between a student job being beneficial for study and finding a job easily in the future ($\chi^2 = 0.276$; df = 1; $p = 0.599$). There is no significant relationship between career-related or non-career-related student job and student job affecting study results ($\chi^2 = 0.916$; df = 1; $p = 0.338$). There is no significant relationship between having career-related or non-career-related student job and ease of finding a job ($\chi^2 = 0.276$; df = 1; $p = 0.599$).

Practitioner views

Four hospitality entrepreneurs from different restaurants took part in a focus group discussion. Topics discussed included the type of education, did they had a student job, needed skills of new employees, and cooperation with schools and trainees. This type of data gives more clarity about working in the hospitality industry from the perspective of managers. A summary of the results will be given.

Arjan ten Dam of Restaurant Pläske took part. His prior education was as a painter which he had done for 20 years. He had not studied hospitality management. During his schooling, he had several student jobs in all kind of hospitality-related organisations. The student jobs were not related to his study. According to Arjan, students can learn a lot from having a student job. When hiring new employees, Arjan focuses on the availability of this person. They need to be flexible and available over weekends. Restaurant Pläske works both with students (studying hospitality management is not a requirement), and employees with a permanent contract. On weekends, more students are working because than they have more free time. An employee must have a professional appearance and knowledge of the hospitality industry when he/she wants to work at Restaurant Pläske.

An interview was conducted with the entrepreneur (Bas Maathuis) of Café Restaurant Ewwert's Bar. After receiving his HAVO diploma, Bas studied International Hospitality Management at Stenden University. Because his family has always been active in the hospitality industry, Bas grew up in the "hospitality world". Bas likes to work in this sector and he likes to see his guests appreciate his organisation. After graduating, Bas started working as a planner for an employment agency and he also had a job in the technology sector. During his studies, Bas also had one or more student jobs. These student jobs always consisted of work in the hospitality industry, which was valuable for his studies. According to Bas, having a student job is very beneficial for gaining experience. When hiring new employees, he looks at experience, attitude, hospitality skills and alertness. At Ewwert's Bar there are many employees with a permanent contract. On weekends and holidays, students (the students not necessarily studying hospitality management) work regularly, Bas explains. An employee must be flexible and have a hospitable attitude when he/she wants to work at Café Restaurant Ewwert's Bar.

An interview was held with the entrepreneur (Willem Nicolai) of Restaurant Fellini's. Willem studied MBO retail management. When finishing this studies, he worked for seven years as a manager of a clothing store. Because his family was always operating in the hospitality industry, Willem decided to continue in this sector too. During his studies, he had a student job as cook in his father's restaurant. The student job was at that time not relevant to his study in retail. Willem thinks having a student job is good for gaining more experience. Financially speaking, it also gives benefits. When hiring new employees, he looks at the references and a curriculum vitae. Also the first impression is very important. Willem says that there are both students (the students working at Fellini's do all kinds of different studies) and employees with a permanent contract employed. He prefers working with people with a permanent contract. Those people are more involved in the business and are more structured. An employee must be happy, willing to work and communicate well when he/she wants to work at Restaurant Fellini's.

The fourth interviewee was the entrepreneur (Jan Oosterhoff) of Restaurant Double B. Jan studied HHS in Amsterdam. Unfortunately, he did not finish this education. Because his family owned several companies in the hospitality industry, he started working in his parents' organisation. After a while, he switched from organisation to organisation. However, they were all companies in the hospitality industry. Later, he started his own (hospitality-related) business. According to Jan, having a student job has many advantages such as experience, more knowledge, and in social terms. He encourages his son and daughter to work during their studies. When hiring new employees, he looks at attitude and experience. The company employs many students (there are a few hospitality management students working in his organisation, but not all are), but also employees with a permanent contract. An employee must have sufficient knowledge and a positive attitude and behaviour when he/she wants to work at Restaurant Double B.

Many of the findings of this study confirm earlier research. According to Stern (1997), there is a positive relationship between students with a student job and their future job. When a student has worked during his/her studies, he/she will likely find a better job in the future with a higher salary than students who did not have a student job. 95.5% of the respondents with a student job think they will find a job in the future more easily because of the student job they now have.

David Stern (1997) states that students who work more than 15 hours have a poorer academic performance and are likely to quit their studies. Nine students stated that their student jobs affected the study results. Those people work an average of 18.78 hours per week. For 57 students, the student job had no negative effects on study results. Those people worked an average of 12.04 hours per week. It can be concluded that students who work more than 15 hours per week have poorer school results than students who work less than 15 hours per week.

From the interviews with the four entrepreneurs it becomes clear that they like working with students because they are flexible and are willing to work during evenings and weekends. The results show that there is a significant difference between number of hours per week and a hospitality-related job. Students who have a hospitality-related student job work on average 13.94 hours a week, and students who do not have a hospitality-related student job work on average 9.29 hours. Secondly, there are also findings that do not correspond with the literature review. With reference to the literature review, a student with a student job works on average 15 hours a week. Of all respondents, 66 students have a student job with a minimum of three hours, a maximum of 40 hours and an average of 12.95 hours a week. Thirdly, McKechnie, Hobbs, Simpson, Anderson, Howieson, and Semple (2010) emphasise that students with a student job develop skills and gain experience, which is beneficial for their future careers. Of the 66 participants, 45 students have a student job for the money. Ten participants have a student job for gaining experience, and three participants have a student job because it is a study-related job and they expect the job to be beneficial for their studies. As can be seen, the main reason for having a student job is money. Gaining experience is also important for students, but not the main reason.

Conclusion

Having a student job is beneficial for the study performance and competency and career development of hospitality management students. Students gain lots of experience from a student job. They are more likely to be hired at a subsequent job, because employers appreciate it when a potential candidate already has experience. 78.8% of the respondents think the student job they have is useful for their hospitality management studies. Students who work more than 15 hours a week have poorer academic results. Students should, therefore, work less than 15 hours a week. Students who work in industry-related jobs are more likely to get jobs in the industry, though there is evidence that the experience of working in any sector has benefits.

On reflection, some of the questions asked needed to be adjusted to make it clearer to respondents what is being asked. Clearly the small number of industry interviewees is a limitation on this research. However, interviewee comments were insightful and added to the general value of the research project.

Despite the limitations, the research recommends that Mise en Place put more focus on hiring hospitality management students. It is an organisation that offers training and development programmes for their employees. Hospitality management students can learn a lot that is valuable for their study and competency and career development. Mise en Place should make more advertisements and explain more clearly what kind of training they provide. The students will be more attracted to the organisation once they know what the organisation offers and will be more motivated to apply for a job. They tend to stay longer within the company because they know they gain knowledge, skills and experiences, which is very useful and well linked to their study. If the company demonstrates more clearly what they can offer a hospitality management student, many students will be recruited in a short time. It as a win-win situation. Mise en Place helps students who are developing themselves and offers added value for their study performance, competency and career development, resulting in a better future job. The hospitality management students are more specialised in the hospitality industry than a non-hospitality management student, have more knowledge about the work they provide/do than a non-hospitality management student, and probably perform their work more carefully than a non-hospitality management student.

Note

[1] This paper is based on the management project undertaken by Annemarie Geerlink in support of her studies toward a Bachelor of Business Administration (Hotel Management) at Stenden University of Applied Sciences.

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Women in leadership[1]

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Women in leadership positions play an important role for the hotel industry as well as for society. The Pompidou Hotel Group wants to increase the number of female employees in leading positions. The purpose of this research was to find out the main reasons that women hold back from applying for senior leadership positions at the Delightful Hotel Germanton. The literature states that factors like the job vacancy, the work-life balance and women in leadership campaigns offered by companies play an important role in the application process of women. In order to gain any data, qualitative research was undertaken and interviews with a sample of five female employees of Delightful Hotel Germanton took place. The results of these interviews had interesting outcomes. Three out of the five participants can imagine climbing up the career ladder and working in a senior leadership position. Moreover, all interviewees are afraid of using power in their job at this moment, but also believe in themselves to manage specific situations with experience. Comparing the outcomes with the literature, a few similarities, but also many differences were found.

Keywords: application, career goals, use of power, women in leadership campaign

Introduction

The Pompidou Hotel Group implemented the campaign "Women in Leadership" as the company's equal opportunities philosophy. The main goal of this campaign is to remove barriers in business in order to improve the company's long-term growth. Furthermore, the goal of this campaign is, similar to the ongoing world discussion, to increase the senior female management positions in Europe. The end of the current strategy aims to increase the number of female employees in senior management positions to 30 per cent. The campaign works on the development of different opportunities for female employees to work in senior management position. Optional examples are flexible working hours, job sharing and part-time jobs. However, research about this topic in the Pompidou Hotel Group has already shown that there are big gender differences in the motivation to apply for a senior leadership position, as well as in the position an employee wants to achieve during their career. However, the Pompidou Hotel Group is making slow progress and at current levels of growth the goal will not be achieved. This report explores some of the issues influencing the move towards more female participation in senior management positions.

Women in management

Sandberg (2014) states that women only apply for a vacancy if they meet 100 per cent of the requirements. On the other hand, men hand in their application when they only meet 50 per cent of the qualifications. Evidence indicates that women are less self-confident than men are. Furthermore, this research shows that to succeed, a good level of confidence matters as much as suitable competence. In a similar way, Sturdy, Brocklehurst, Winstanley, & Littlejohns (2006) describe self-confidence as the basis for someone's life, career and satisfaction. It is the belief in someone's ability to activate motivation in order to meet set expectations. Especially at work, self-confidence is one of the most important requirements for self-advancement in career performances or adopting to a new role. However, in the conclusion of her former research, Buecker (2014) concentrates not on the confidence levels of women, but more on misunderstandings of the vacancies. Women think that the requirements in vacancies are the basis for the job instead of being a guideline. They do not see the application process as one where a good motivation letter and a confident interview overcome missing skills or experiences. The suggestion is to break rules, although young girls have been taught to stick to rules during school. The advantage of applying for a job that seems to be too ambitious is that this will be an interesting and challenging job. An employee who meets all requirements might be overqualified.

Janker (2014) and Wondrak (2015) share the same outcomes in their studies. The formulation of an advertisement for a vacancy matters a lot for women. Formulation in which many masculine words such as assertive or analytic are used attract less women to apply. Women are more likely to apply for a position in which words like communicative or supporting are listed in the vacancy advertisement. In an experiment, Janker (2014) showed that a recruiter hired more men than women who apply for the same position when the recruiter knew the gender of the applicant during the process. In the second round of the experiment, the recruiter did not know the gender and the outcome was almost equal for hired women and men. Barton, Devillard and Hazlewood (2015) found that men are promoted mostly based on their potential, whereas women are promoted based on past accomplishments.

Felfe (2011) explains that women are already more afraid to fail in leadership positions before they even apply for a leadership position. In addition, women have more inhibitions to using their power in a specific position at work although they want to lead as much as men do. Personality and individual motivation are the key aspects that need support in human resource development. In a similar manner, Demmer (2010) found that power and the pursuit of power are common objectives for men. Women still have difficulties with power. On the other hand, power and influence at work are the basis to change and advance things in a company.

According to Baran (2016), almost 65 per cent of the employees in the hospitality industry are women. This is a higher proportion than in other industries. However, only 13 per cent work in a senior leadership position in the hotel industry. In addition, Felfe (2011) found that only four women out of 184 positions in executive teams work in a senior leadership position in the top thirty index companies in Germany.

Often, women reduce their own expectations of what they can achieve and compromise their "career goals to make room for partners and children who may not even exist yet" (Sandberg, 2014, p.10). Moreover, Sandberg (2014) mentions a woman who declined an offer for a higher position because she planned to have kids within the next two years. Internal research by the Pompidou group shows that almost fifty per cent of the women working for Pompidou Hotel Group are happy when they achieve a position as department head. Only thirty per cent think to work as a general manager or a higher position. Nowadays, it is still common that women stop working after given birth (Zeger, 2005). Many return to work as part-time employees in order to combine their domestic roles with employment. Men expect women to stay at home temporarily or completely; or the women want it themselves. This work break and reduction of women's work is typically a career barrier. On the one hand, women think they do not have a chance to get promoted, because they are less flexible. On the other hand, women are happy with what they have achieved and do not want to climb up the career ladder (Barton, Devillard & Hazlewood, 2015). Baran (2016) suggests women need to become better self-promoters in order to be noticed and to make the first step up the ladder. Women were asked about how they promote themselves and nine out of ten women stated that they did not promote themselves in their work organisation.

The gender pay gap is still a common problem in Germany. Typically men earn 21 per cent more money than women (Mischler, 2016). It is assumed the reasons for the gap are that many women work in the service industry, have a part-time job or are in other low paid industries. However, there is still a seven per cent of salary difference that cannot be explained. Gehalt (2016) suggests that women do not discuss the salary differences with their bosses, because they are afraid of losing their jobs. In line with that, Sandberg (2014) observed that women do not negotiate their salary. Women often underestimate themselves and are trained to be nice and pleasing to others by the wider culture and this makes it difficult for them to negotiate, or to risk something in an unknown field. Goldschmidt (2016) points out that one of the main reasons for salary differences is still that fact that women leave their jobs for a period of time to have kids. Whereas men's salaries continue to grow continuously through time, career-breaks taken by women managers due to pregnancy result in lower salaries. Nevertheless, the trend in the gender pay gap is going down. In the last ten years, the difference between the salaries decreased from 23 per cent to 21 per cent in Germany. These two per cent points were only achieved after ten years, but at least it is a trend in the right direction (Mischler, 2016).

Pompidou Hotel Group's "women in leadership" campaign focuses on individual development plans and flexible working conditions. Also, a "Lean In Circle Central Europe" has been developed where members can share their personal stories about the "women in leadership" campaign. Those members are also mentors and provide role models for other employees from the company (Conzelmann, 2015). Eckermann (2016) found that McKinsey Consulting offers a female leadership programme that focuses on mentoring. Women can build a network, see different career opportunities and get support from a female mentor. In line with that, Groll (2015) found that many female employees of the Commerzbank that participated in a mentoring programme benefited from it and also recommended this programme. However, Groll (2015) also states the shadow side of those programmes. While women participate in mentoring programmes for around twelve months, the men already get and take the job opportunities.

In contrast, Slaughter (2013) claims that the world is focused on increasing the number of women in senior leadership positions at this moment, but an important aspect is forgotten: their male colleagues. Most of the men still have the same opinion about their lifestyles and responsibilities as before. There must also be a focus on that. However, some men already stay at home or think about being more flexible. In line with that, the Pompidou group offers the women in leadership campaign not only to women but also to men. This means, they employ men who have a part-time job, work from home or take paternity leave for a period of time. In Scandinavia it is already common that fathers have three months off for paternity leave. The government concentrates on the infrastructure of care as much as on other topics.

Research approach

Qualitative research method was chosen for this study because it gave a more detailed insight into women's way of thinking about the research topic and their former experiences. Qualitative methods are more "open and flexible" (Verhoeven, 2011, p. 31). Research at the Delightful Hotel involved semi-structured interviews that were informed by a series of themes identified in the literature on women's manager careers. However, these served only as a guide as few spontaneous questions arose in the interview. This type of interview is also called an "individual depth interview", because of an interaction between the interviewer and the participant (Denzin & Lincoln, 2011).

The following problem statement was developed:

In what way do "*job vacancies*", "*work-life balance*" and the "*women in leadership*" campaigns offered by the Pompidou Hotel Group stimulate women working at the Delightful Hotel Germanton to apply for a senior leadership position?

In order to answer the defined problem statement, four research questions were developed:

- In what way does the wording of a vacancy influence female employees of Delightful Hotel Germanton when searching for a new job?

- Do female employees of Delightful Hotel Germanton feel like they need to compromise their work-life balance?
- How does the women in leadership campaign of Pompidou Hotel Group support women in their application for a senior leadership position?
- What barriers do female employees of Delightful Hotel Germanton encounter in senior leadership positions?

This research project about women in leadership focused especially on women of the Pompidou Hotel Group. The participants chosen for the research consisted of all female employees of Delightful Hotel in Germanton not yet in a senior leadership position. There were 74 women, including employees in leading positions as well as trainees. Based on the population, the chosen sample was seven female employees at the Germanton hotel. The sample included women working in different positions as well as in different departments. For a number of logistical reasons, five interviews were conducted with women at the hotel.

An individual meeting with each participant was scheduled during working hours. The interview took place in one of the restaurants or the canteen at the hotel to create a comfortable atmosphere for the participants. A time period of approximately twenty minutes was scheduled with each interviewee.

After each interview, the taped conversation was transcribed and the text was analysed with the help of a coding system. In order to give a clear overview of first outcomes, a table was set up to demonstrate the open coding, axial coding and selective coding. The open coding table gives a clear overview of the general information given in the interview. This includes examples of single words the participants used, the idea behind it, as well as an open code such as an emotion. Afterwards, the axial coding found connections between those open codes. The selective coding defined a main variable about the outcomes (Verhoeven, 2011). Finally, the gathered data was compared, analysed and discussed with the data from the literature review.

Findings

Five detailed interviews took place in order to gather data for the formulated problem statement and research questions. As shown in Table 1, all interviewees were female and between the age of 24 and 32. Some differences can be found between the current position of the interviewees within the Pompidou Hotel Group and their private status.

Career goals

All interviewees have already thought about the future career goal they want to achieve. Three of the participants definitely want to have a leading position within the next ten years. As Person B states, "*I definitely want to climb up the career ladder in the next ten years. At least being a cluster revenue manager or nearly a senior cluster revenue manager*". Interviewee A stated that she hoped "*to have a leading position, hopefully in human resources. I am not sure if it should be in a hotel or somewhere else, but at least a leading position in HR*". One of the interviewed women was insecure at that time and explained her plan as follows: "*it depends on my future career, of course. But actually, I am thinking about leaving the hospitality industry and to find my career more in the tourism industry such as working for a travel agency or something like that*" (Person C). One interviewed woman already works in a leading position: "*so the next step would be to work for a hotel with more rooms and employees. Then I would have more employees to lead and guide which can be challenging*" (Person E).

Vacancies

The application process starts with searching for vacancies. The requirements of the post and the type of company itself are the main features that these interviewees look at when they want to apply for a new job. Person A declared that she wants to "*meet at least most of the requirements. It depends on the feeling I have. I always check if I meet at least, I think, 80 per cent of the requirements before I apply. And I also check what kind of company it is, what kind of benefits you get and also what kind of tasks are mentioned*". Person D underestimates herself a little and would be more critical when applying for a new position. She said: "*first of all I check, if I meet all the requirements and if I do not meet all the requirements, I think about if it is the real thing for me and I think I underestimate myself a lot*". However, Person E shares that "*if I meet all the requirements, then it might be the same job as I am doing at the moment, and that is not what I want. When I search for a new job, I also want slight differences to extend my working knowledge and experiences*".

Furthermore, all of the interviewed women prefer female and emotional words in the text of a vacancy. Words that are in line with their character and personality are more interesting for them. Person C said: "*Due to the fact that I am a communicative person, I prefer words like polite and*

Table 1: Interviewee profiles

	Person A	Person B	Person C	Person D	Person E
Age	28	25	24	30	32
Current position	HR executive	Revenue support coordination	Office trainee	Assistant reservation manager	Front office manager
The Delightful Hotel	February 2014 and again April 2016	January 2015	November 2015	September 2013	March 2012
Private status	Relationship	Single	Single	Engaged	Married
Children	0	0	0	0	0

friendly. I would look for a position that suits my personal characteristics. Since I am not an analytical person, I would not apply for vacancies that require that". In addition, Person A made a similar point, "*I like more emotional wordings, because they are the ones that are more interesting, that are more interesting to apply for*". Person E confirmed this approach, saying that "*when you read them and just think, yes that's me*".

Association and fear of power

Power in the job has two different effects for women. On the one hand, all of the interviewed women appreciate having power in the job in order to make decisions by themselves and to have more freedom. "*Well, I like making decisions by myself. Not asking everybody if I can make a decision and also to have a certain authority towards other employees that they think you are on a higher level*" (Person A). In addition, Person B associates "*to make changes, to work self independently, be allowed to make own decisions*" with having power.

On the other hand, three of the women were afraid of using the power they have or might have over other employees in specific situations, but they were all optimistic about handling it. Person A stated: "*I didn't have a real situation where I had to do that in the moment. But I think in the beginning it might be hard, but when you are used to it, it could do it*". Person B has a similar opinion, but also more doubts as this has something to do with, for example, other people: "*I think I am a bit afraid…I think you have to do things two or three times in difficult situations in order to get used to it. But I think you shouldn't feel too good about it, because you are doing something that is not good and has an impact on people*". Person D already works in an assistant manager position in which she has power and also has to use this from time to time, therefore her fear of power is slightly different in comparison to the other three women's opinions. Person D stated: "*Yes, sometimes it is hard, because you want to be nice and I want the people not even to like me, but to see me as a role model. Maybe sometimes it is hard for me to stand behind my words or to clarify what I really want from the employee. I want to be nice, I want to tell them in a nice way and sometimes I wish I would be more like a man. Like, this is my opinion and that's it*". Person E also has to use power in the job and explains that "*sometimes it is difficult to use power, because you cannot be everyone's darling in that situation*".

Work-life balance

The women were asked if they currently need to comprise their work-life balance. The collected answers varied. Person A and Person C have to compromise a lot in their work-life balance. Person A explained: "*I had to move to another place for my job. During the week I have to drive to Frankfurt and on the weekend I have to drive to another place that is 200km away where my boyfriend lives*". Another interviewee said: "*sometimes I wish I would have more free time. As I said, I am a trainee right now, so I am earning not that much money. That's why I have another side job and I am really working a lot and I think there could be some more free time sometimes and time for myself*" (Person C). But Person D is happy with her current balance and said: "*No, everything is fine. I live together with my boyfriend, but we or I don't need to compromise*". Person B wishes to have more free time as she said: "*I definitely would like to go on holiday more, that's where I need to compromise. I like to see my family and friends more often. I don't want to get up that early in the morning, things like that. So, I don't really need to compromise*".

In the interviews, one of the questions was about salary differences. What would happen if the women earn a lot more money than their husbands? The outcomes of all women were similar. At this point, the women think that they would go to work and their men would work in a part-time job or stay at home if the couple has children. As Person D shared: "*It might be definitely an option. He doesn't stick to the old roles and would be also fine with that*", and Person A stated: "*Yes, I think that would be an option. We are on the same level, it might be different first, but if I earned more he would stay at home*".

"Women in leadership" campaign and mentorship

The opinions about the "women in leadership" campaign of the Pompidou Hotel Group differed among the interviewees. Three of the women appreciate the opportunity and can imagine participating in it during their career at Delightful Hotel Germanton. As Person A said: "*I think especially in the future it will help to have a better career for myself, because they try to make it possible to have a family and to have a high position*". Person D agreed: "*That's a very good idea of Pompidou. I think in a lot of positions there are too many men working and you also get the feeling that the men are preferred for higher jobs, sometimes. So, I think that's a good idea and maybe I will be part of it soon or in the future*". Person E was also positive: "*It is a great idea of Pompidou to support their employees*".

However, Person B and Person C were more critical and not so interested in it. As Person B stated: "*I know from other female colleagues that participated in this programme. I never really got personally in touch with it. Of course, I have seen the presentation about it in the beginning, but it is not that I feel I get extra training or mentorship or something like that in order to be promoted when I am older and have more experience in my job*", and Person C shared this: "*Not for me personally, because I didn't hear that much about it. I saw once a poster and someone introduced it to me when I entered the company, but then I actually never heard about it again. However, I can imagine that women in higher positions are more committed to it as they hear more about it. I think if it were more presented it might motivate me*".

Paternity leave for men is an opportunity that is getting more and more common nowadays. All of the interviewed women like the idea that their partners or their future partners stay at home for a period of time when they have children. Person C and Person D like the idea, but both of them shared: "*You have to make the decision in the situation itself*" (Person C), and "*I never thought about that so far, so I think that it is a decision which you are in the situation then you think about it. At this point, I think I will be definitely at home for a period of time, but also my partner will have this, I guess*" (Person D). Whereas Persons A, C and E have more concrete plans, as Person A explained: "*Maybe for one or two months, but I think he will stay in his job during that time. I think he might take those one or two months to support me and spend time with the baby to see it growing up*". Person B observed: "*I definitely would encourage this, because I think not only the women should take care of potential children, but also the men. I mean* *that are the children of you both and I think that can help for the relationship for the children and the father. Furthermore, I think that the father shows them something positive when he raises the children*" (Person B). Moreover, Person E explained: "*This time is very important for the relationship to the children as well as between the parents*".

Next to the campaign itself, the interviewed women appreciated the idea of a mentor who helps women to apply for higher positions, is able to answer the questions women might have, but also to reduce the doubts women can have. However, the understanding of this idea varies among the woman. "*Yes, I think it would be helpful. Especially one, that is also female and who has experience with having a career and a family. She might have had the same doubts and questions that I have now. So, she can imagine how I feel and what my questions are*" (Person A). While Person B did not care about the gender of the mentor as she said: "*First of all, I don't think that it matters that the mentor is female or male. I wouldn't mind, but I definitely would like to have a mentor just to grow in my job and to learn more. And I think it would motivate me to apply for higher positions as I also would have more knowledge and expertise*" (Person B). Person D said: "*For me it would be helpful. It is an opportunity to get extra support*". However, Person C has two opinions. On the one hand she thinks that a mentor "*could be a role model, but I have no idea how it could work that someone is taking you by his or her hand to motivate you. I think it has to come from yourself. Either you want it or you don't want it*" (Person C), and on the other hand, she asks: "*but don't you think that this is the task of your supervisor, because if your supervisor sees that you are ready for the next step, he or she should tell you to go the next step*" (Person C). Person E was also positive: "*You always have many questions in a new stage of your life, so it would be great to have a direct contact person who can help you through the first sorrows*".

Conclusion

The main purpose of the management research project was to find out in what way "job vacancies", "work-life balance" and "women in leadership campaigns" stimulate female employees at the Delightful Hotel Germanton regarding the application for senior leadership positions. Therefore, interviews with women working at the Delightful Hotel took place. The outcomes show that the interviewed women are critical about choosing suitable vacancies, as well as that they underestimate themselves sometimes. However, three out of five interviewed women can imagine working in a senior leadership position. On the other hand, the gender pay gap is still a big issue in Germany, which makes it hard for women to switch roles with their husbands. Moreover, half of the interviewed women feel more motivated to apply for a higher position due to the women in leadership campaign of the Pompidou Hotel Group. The other half of the interviewed women need more information about the campaign and might think about it when they are in a suitable situation.

Overall, it can be said that the abovementioned sub-topics have an impact on women's decisions about an application for a senior leadership position. However, it still depends on the current position of the woman and her personal career goals.

After conducting the research, some limitations can be mentioned. Firstly, a number of questions were pre-formulated and asked during the interview. The idea of conducting a semi-structured interview was to come up with more questions during the interview itself. However, it seemed to be more difficult than expected to extend the interview. Therefore, the answers given were mostly based on the formulated questions and had less variety of extra questions. In addition, the interviewed women were asked to participate in the interview by the author. An idea would have been to make the performance of these interviews more public. A possible result could have been to get more participants and also women that are really interested in the chosen topic and are willing to share opinions about possible plans. Moreover, the interviewed women were all childless. It would have been nice to have one interview from a woman who has at least one child already.

Note

[1] This paper is informed by research undertaken by Helga Tweebeck for her management project submitted in support of her Bachelor of Business Administration (Hotel Management) at Stenden University of Applied Science.

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