

**WORK VALUES ACROSS GENERATIONS – A STUDY OF THE GREEK
HOTEL WORKFORCE**

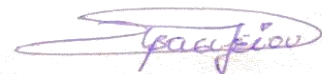
Submitted by

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Abstract

“There is a problem in the workplace...It is a problem of values, ambitions, views, mind-sets, demographics, and generations in conflict. The workplace you and we inhabit today is awash with the conflicting voices and views of the most age- and value-diverse workforce this country has known since our great-great-grandparents abandoned field and farm for factory and office” (Zemke, Raines & Filipczak, 2000, p. 9).

The opening quotation encapsulates the popular belief among management practitioners that substantive and meaningful inter-generational differences exist in work values among the members of current workforce. Despite this practitioner interest and debate, systematic empirical research either to confirm or refute popular claims has, until recently, been lagging. Moreover, the few academic studies on this topic have largely focused on the US context and research from other countries, particularly non-English speaking, is scant. The aim of this study is to fill this vacuum by investigating the nature of work values across the prevalent generations of workers within the relatively unexplored cultural context of Greek hotel organisations.

Building upon Schwartz’s (1994) theory of basic values and Vincent’s (2005) culture-specific approach of generational identity formation, this study proposes a values-based framework for studying generational differences in the workplace. The framework includes four types of work values namely extrinsic, intrinsic, prestige and social and three age-based generational groups; the Divided generation (1946-1966), the Metapolitefsi generation (1967-1981) and the Europeanised generation (1982-1996). The framework assumes that age-based generational identity is a culture specific phenomenon comprised of a distinctive set of values. The expectations and motivations towards work are shaped by this set of values, which emerged as a product of a living through experience from the successive entry into adulthood and endure as the members of each generation travelling through time together. In addition,

generational boundaries are determined by revolutionary events that are contingent on the specific cultural context in which they became meaningful.

The study assessed the concept of work values with a novel scale, designed to succinctly measure the four underlying work value types that were consistently observed in previous research. The proposed work values model was tested using a multiple triangulation approach with two samples and two methods of analysis across two studies. In study 1, the work values scores were collected by 303 workers in 7 year-round hotel establishments operated in the region of Macedonia and analysed with exploratory factor analysis. In study 2, the work values scores were collected by 304 workers in 7 seasonal hotel establishments from the same region and analysed with confirmatory factor analysis. The results of study 2 confirmed the outcome of study 1. More importantly, the analysis revealed that compared to theory driven alternatives, a second-order model, comprised of a general work values factor with four latent factors – intrinsic, material, power and affective work values, best fitted the data. This model helps to show how various types of work values fit together into a cohesive whole, allowing HR researchers and practitioners to identify broader patterns and trends in work values to improve HR interventions.

Furthermore, multivariate analysis of variance among the entire sample (607 hotel workers) revealed significant generational differences in three types of work values (intrinsic, prestige and social), even when the effect of gender (male vs female) and operational pattern (seasonal vs year round) was taken into account. Some of the most complex challenges facing human resource professionals in contemporary organisations such as conflict, transferring of knowledge as well as retention of talents are often associated with these differences. Knowledge about the work values of each generation cohabiting current workplace can help organisations in creating practices that foster inter-generational synergies and comfort in the workplace. This in turn will allow them to narrow the social distance represented by the “generation gap”, an impediment to the effectiveness of even the most sophisticated human resource practices.

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CHAPTER 1

Introduction

1.1 Background context

The term 'Generation' is a truly 'crossroads' issue that influences the nature of the contemporary society because it underlies (a) the successive parent-child bond, (b) the sense of belonging and awareness of personal identity and (c) the location of a particular age-based cohort in a specific historical and cultural context. It is also a key concern for theory and practice in the organisational context. Indeed, current discussion in organisational studies (i.e., Joshi, Dencker, Franz & Martocchio, 2010; Lyons & Kuron, 2014; Murphy, 2012) emphasise that multigenerational symbiosis holds promise for enhancing values, building the knowledge pipeline, fostering skills and capturing experiences in organisations. Therefore, some of the most complex organisational challenges such as avoiding conflict, transferring of knowledge as well as attracting and retaining young talents (Joshi, Dencker, Franz & Martocchio, 2010; Murphy 2012, Zopiatis, Krambia-Kapardis, & Varnavas, 2013) are often associated with multigenerational symbiosis in the workplace. These challenges are making it incumbent upon academic and practitioners to directly address the issue of multigenerational symbiosis and to consider its implications for organisational theory and practise.

1.1.1 Multigenerational symbiosis in hospitality

Working experience within the hospitality sector has shown that multi-generational symbiosis is amongst the most persistent problems faced by human resource professionals in hotel organisations. Evidence from the UK hotel sector support this view (see King, Funk & Williams, 2011) with recruiting, engaging and retaining Millennials¹, the new generation of workers, born after 1980, topping the list of human resource challenges. In addition, Lu and Gursoy's (2013) studied 29 mid- or upscale hotels owned or managed by a North American branded hotel management company, revealed the moderating effect of generational differences on the impact of emotional exhaustion on its two attitudinal outcomes, job satisfaction and turnover intention. US hotel workers, members of the Millennial generation were found to have significant lower job satisfaction and higher turnover intention compared with older employees under emotional exhaustion. In a similar vein, Australian hospitality workers, members of the Millennial generation were found to have significant lower engagement, job satisfaction and organisational commitment compared with older employees whereas their intention to quit was significantly higher (Solnet, Kralj & Kandampully's, 2012).

As a response, human resource professionals in hotel organisations have crafted job offerings and human resource policies to appease the quirks and peculiarities of this cohort of Millennial workers. For example, hotel organisations within *Fortune's Best 100 companies to work for* (100 Best, 2013) such as the Kimpton boutique hotel chain, when their hotel workers put in extra hours, the company sends flowers and gift baskets to their loved ones. It also hosts fireside chats with top executives and has rewarded great work with spa days, extra paid time off, and flat-screen TVs. In addition, Marriot International the hotel giant works hard to create opportunities to move its employees

¹ The Millennial generation was named by Strauss and Howe (1991) and this term has recently gained traction among management scholarship on the topic (i.e Joshi, Denker, Franz & Martocchio, 2010; Murphy, 2012; Tissen, Lekanne Deprez, Burgers, & van Montfort, 2010)

upward; more than 3,000 managers started in hourly jobs. Furthermore, every location of the Four Season luxury hotelier has a committee of employees from all departments that meets monthly with the general manager to discuss workplace concerns. Nevertheless, employees within the Four Season can put in for a transfer to another hotel: Bora Bora? Maldives? Budapest? Macau? There are 85 possibilities in 35 countries. Thus, as a large cohort of older employees moves into retirement in many hotel organisations, the challenges inherent in successfully attracting and retaining young talents (successors) as well as in transferring firm-specific knowledge and skills from retiring employees to new job incumbents have brought into focus the critical importance of understanding the values that Millennials bring to work.

1.1.2 Work values and multigenerational symbiosis in hospitality

Managing a multi-generational workforce is concerned with understanding how, when, and why people with different generational identities enjoy, thrive in, and become particularly productive in specific work environments. It is about maximizing the degree of fit between individuals and their organisation. Work values represent a key element in determining the degree of fit between a person and his or her organization, occupation and work environment (Rounds & Jin, 2012). As such, vocational theories such as Super's Life-Span, Life-Space theory (Super, Savickas, & Super, 1996), the Theory of Work Adjustment (Dawis & Lofquist, 1984) and the Values-Based, Holistic theory (Brown D. , 1996) contend that the satisfaction of individuals' work values is core to individuals' adaptation and thriving in a specific work environment. Therefore, comparing the relative importance that people assign to various individual (e.g., pay, advancement) and organizational attributes of work (e.g., colleagues, innovation) with the degree to which those attributes are provided in the work environment allows scholars and practitioners to predict one's degree of satisfaction in that work environment (Drummond & Stoddard, 1991; Kristof, 1996; Locke, 1976; Ronen, 1994; Rounds, 1990).

Substantial research in hospitality has documented how work values can help to understand the meaning that people assign to their work. For example, Pizam and colleagues (Neuman, Pizam, & Reichel, 1980; Pizam, Reichel, & Neumann, 1980) in their seminal work within the US found that work values are crucial determinants of work motivation. In Australia, Ross (1992) supported the notion that work values affect the choices and reliance of hospitality job-attainment criteria such as motivation, positive attitudes and appearance. Whilst in an Asian context, Wong & Liu's (2009) Chinese study revealed that work values are significant predictors of hospitality career-choice intentions. Liang, (2012) also reported that work values, among hotel front-line service employees in Taiwan, have a significant positive impact on organisational citizenship behaviour such as loyalty and conscientiousness. Nevertheless, White's, (2006) multinational (54 nationalities) research reported that work values are strongly correlated with cultural orientations.

Within this context, contemporary scholars and commentators advocate that values-based management is an effective approach for coping with the challenges inherent by the multigenerational symbiosis in today's hospitality workforce. Cugin (2012) emphasise that understanding the values that the new generation brings to work and adopting to more age-oriented decision making is an essential practice for organisations who want to remain competitive in attracting qualified applicants. Cairncross & Buultjens (2010) also stress that the full utilisation of young entrants' skills and talents in hotel organisations requires a thorough consideration of their work values. Furthermore, Pendergast (2010) and Glover (2010) argue that insights related to the value systems of the incoming generation will enable human resource professionals in hotel organisations to better connect with the fastest growing segment in current workforce. Nevertheless, Twenge, Campbell, Hoffman, & Lance (2010, p.2) argue that "to most effectively attract and manage this new cohort of employees, organizations need a clear understanding of the work values of the new generation and how they may differ from the values of previous generations", a view recently advocated by hospitality scholars (i.e., Gursoy, Chi & Karadag, 2013; Lu & Gursoy, 2013). Thus, knowledge of the underlying

structure of each generational cohort and deeper understanding of their differences and similarities in values is of vital importance to hotel organisations seeking to satisfy the expectations and motivations of current multigenerational workforce.

1.1.3 The case of Greek hotel organisations

The issue of multigenerational symbiosis is particularly imperative to human resource professionals within the Greek hotel sector. A major shift in the balance of generational composition is currently occurring with a large cohort of older employees exiting their leadership roles in hotel organisations and a comparable number of young workers dramatically entering as replacements. According to the Hellenic Statistical Authority (ELSTAT, 2012), in 2012, 23 per cent of the workforce in Greek hotels and restaurants was aged between 15 and 29 years of age; compared with the average in the entire Greek workforce of 14 percent.

Although there is no specific evidence of how this cohort of young Greek hospitality workers regards the employment relationship, a growing body of research from around the world shows that this new generation approach their working lives in a way that is contrary to the expectations placed on them by their Boomer and Generation X bosses. For example, depictions of young workers entering current hospitality workforce in Cyprus, paint them as self-centred, entitled, narcissistic, materialistic and demanding, embodying a 'what's in it for me?' attitude in the workplace (Zopiatis Krambia-Kapardis & Varnavas, 2012). In addition, evidence from the UK hotel sector describe them as having an expectation of moving quickly up the ladder irrespective of experience, being short term oriented and connecting or communicating in ways that are different from previous generations (King, Funk & Williams, 2011). Furthermore, as a reflection of the dynamic and temporary nature of the modern economy, US hotel workers, members of the Millennial generation, have been portrayed as seeking developmental opportunities and advancement externally by changing employers frequently (Gursoy, Maier & Chi, 2008). Acknowledging these

characteristics could not lessen human resource professionals' anxiety about how to motivate this cohort of workers. As noted by King, Funk & Williams (2011) senior hotel managers are struggling with the concept of Millennial generation, understanding that mindset. Thus, for the Greek hotel organisations, with their ever-increasing reliance on younger employees to cover the labour-intensive positions, the challenge of recruiting, engaging and ultimately retaining the incoming generation of workforce is formidable.

Tourism represents one of the most important economic activities in Greece. Indeed, over the last 20 years, the business activities of tourism have served as a catalyst for income and employment in the Greek society. According to the Association of Greek Tourism Enterprises (SETE), nearly one out of five people in the Greek workforce are occupied in the various aspects of tourism's production and consumption. In addition, based on the most recent edition of *Greek Tourism: Facts & Figures*, tourism's contribution to the country's Gross Domestic Product (GDP), over the past 20 years was consistently greater than 15 per cent and in 2012 reached 16.4 percent (SETE, 2013). More importantly, while Greece is still in the middle of an economic crisis, tourism has generated, in 2012, 34 billion Euros total demand and covered more than half (51.2%) of the trade balance deficit (SETE, 2013).

The Greek hotel sector is an integral component of Greek tourism, which has grown immensely the last 20 years. While in 1990, the sector was comprised of 6,423 establishments with a capacity of 423,660 beds, Greece boasts today one of the world's largest and most mature hotel sectors with 9,670 establishments with a capacity of 771,271 beds (SETE, 2013), yet it is among the least explored within current Greek tourism scholarly activity. Extant literature is currently focusing on issues related to the complexity of tourism policies (Farsari, Butler, & Szivas, 2011), the forecasts of tourist arrivals (Gounopoulos, Petmezas, & Santamaria, 2012), the tourism enterprises' location decisions (Polyzos & Minetos, 2011), the way visitors used their time (Vassiliadis, Priporas, & Andronikidis, 2013) and their satisfaction from cultural heritage destinations (Boukas, 2013). Therefore, the exploration of the hotel

sector workforce remains, at an “embryonic” stage. However, in the midst of retrenchment fiscal policy and an ambivalent economic situation, with heavy pay cuts and mass layoffs, the growing importance of the Greek hotel sector, in terms of its contribution to the country’s economic and social development, makes it essential to be able to deal with the challenges inherent to the generational shift in its workforce – an issue that is central to the performance of the sector and the delivery of valued, quality services.

In the light of the above, it is here argued that understanding what current or potential hotel employees want and expect from their work has great potentials to (a) better cater for their underlying motivations, (b) improve their organisational loyalty and conscientiousness, (c) increase their career satisfaction and (d) address their cultural orientations. Therefore, underpinning this study is the premise that work values assessment may help human resource professionals in hospitality organisations to design and implement effective recruitment and retention practices that more successfully address the challenges imposed by the generational shift in today’s workforce.

1.2 Theoretical framework

The theoretical framework of the study links the concept of “values” to the concept of “generations” as both apply to the life domain of work. Employing Schwartz’s (1992) universal theory of values, in the life domain of work, as presented by Ros, Schwartz & Surkiss (1999), in combination to Vincent’s (2005) culture specific approach of generational identity formation to the academic perspective of tourism and hospitality, has not, to the best of author’s knowledge, previously been attempted and it represents the most original part of the thesis.

Schwartz’s (1992) theory posits that values emerge during the period that people come of age, as a product of biological, psychological and social forces. It is a deeply rooted, abstract psychological construct, which enable us to organise our motivations by codifying them into a hierarchically ordered cognitive framework. Their transsituational nature allows them to be applied to

various aspects of life activity which within the broader behavioural field of learning are called “life domains” (i.e., Jin & Rounds, 2012; Lyons, Higgins, & Duxbury, 2010; Sagie & Elizur, 1996). A distinction, therefore, exists in the literature between values related to the general life domain and values concerning specific life domains such as politics, religion, sports, educational and work. This study focuses on the latter and following a contemporary stream of applied psychologists (i.e., Elizur & Sagie, 1999; Ros, Schwarz, Surkiss, 1999) and behavioural scholars (i.e., Lyons, Higgins & Duxbury, 2010), considers work values as manifestations of values in the life domain of work.

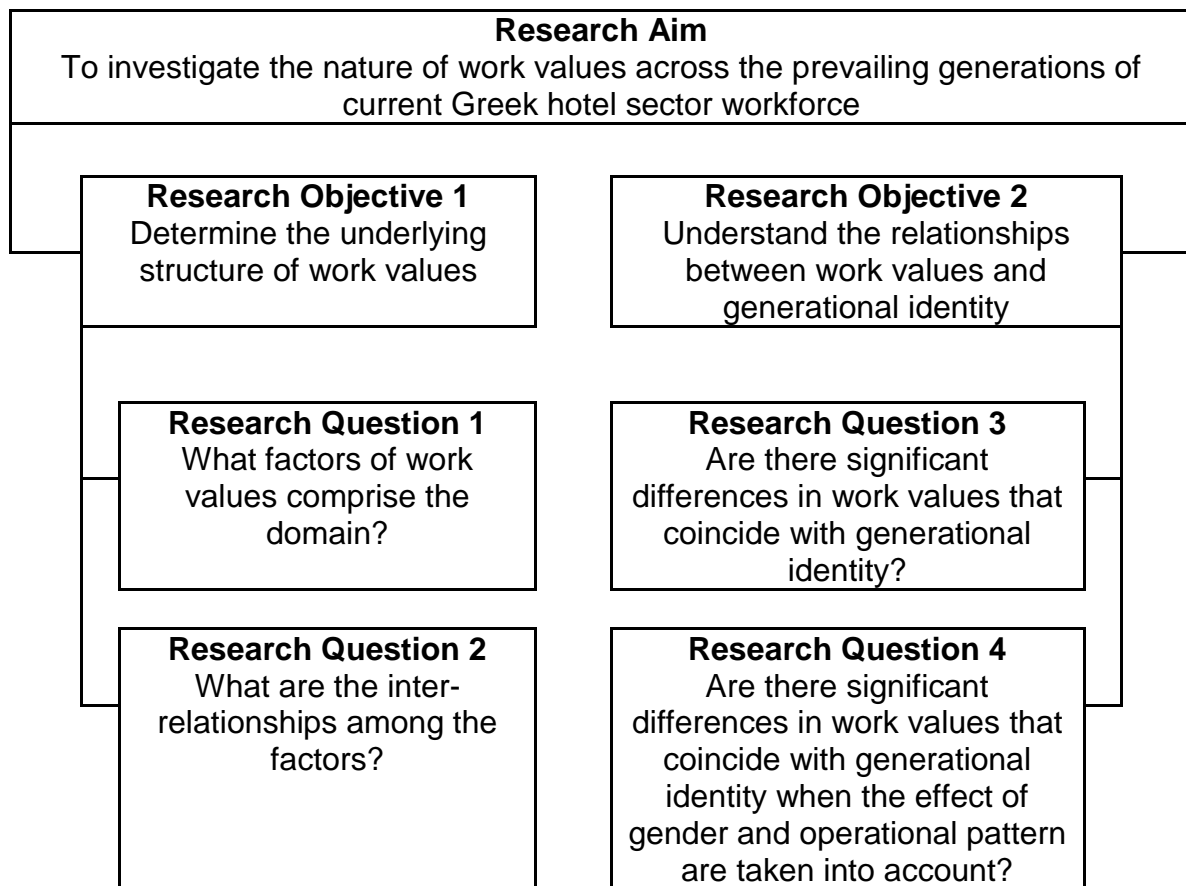
In sociological terms, a generation has been defined, as a group of individuals who are born within the same historical and socio-cultural context, who experience similar formative experiences and develop unifying commonalities as a result (i.e., Mannheim, 1952/1928; Ryder, 1965). This approach dictates that these shared formative influences imbue the members of a generation with a unique identity, which is actualized by some historical shift or conflict and is embodied in a shared set of values (Mannheim, 1952). Generational identity, as values, is shaped when members of the cohort enter into adulthood (between ages 17 and 25) and the formative events of early life become solidified as collective memories, influencing adult attitudes and behaviours (Schuman & Scott, 1989). Vincent (2005) argues that those collective memories will result in a common set of values among members of the generation that become the basis for the formation of a generational culture. For Vincent (2005) the formative influences that shape generational identity are “local and specific and emergent from personal biography and family and community situation,”(p.584) suggesting that generational identity is a product of one’s specific cultural context. Thus, this study argues that the social distance represented by the “generational gap” can be investigated and established empirically, in the life domain of work, as a cultural construction phenomenon, a set of values, which are shaped in the generation’s formative years and endure and develop as it ages. It is therefore, expected that the conditions prevalent during the formative years of one generation to be manifested in a generational identity, a set of values, in the life domain of work, that differs from those of other generations.

1.3 Research aim, objectives & questions

There is a popular belief among management practitioners that substantive and meaningful inter-generational differences exist in work values among the members of current workforce. The practitioner literatures have made claims about how these differences influence all aspects of human resource management; among the most cited are recruitment, rewards, commitment, satisfaction, motivation, training and development and leadership style (see Costanza et al, 2012; Parry & Urwin, 2011). The Society of Human Resource Management has also reported that generational differences in work values have the potentials to cause serious conflict (SHRM, 2004), an impediment to the effectiveness of all human resource management practices. A mini-consultancy industry has consequently emerged offering seminars and interventions on effectively coping with the phenomenon.

However, much of the existing literature in work values across generations is based on observations rather than empirically derived outcomes (Cogin, 2012; Twenge, Campbell, Hoffman, & Lance, 2010). As a result, an abundant number of stereotypes have recently surfaced, making it increasingly difficult to establish the facts (Ng, Lyons & Schweitzer, 2012). Current discussions (i.e., Cogin, 2012; Costanza et al, 2012; Parry & Urwin, 2011; Twenge, Campbell, Hoffman, & Lance, 2010) note that despite this practitioner interest and debate, systematic empirical research either to confirm or refute popular claims has, until recently, been lagging. Beyond the paucity of empirical findings, the few academic studies on this topic have largely focused on the US context and research from other countries, particularly non-English speaking, is scant. The aim of this study is to fill this vacuum by investigating the nature of work values across the three prevalent generations of workers within the relatively unexplored cultural context of Greek hotel organisations (Figure 1.1). The following discussion provides an overview of the relevant research objectives and questions that were developed to accomplish this task.

Figure 1.1 Research aim, objectives and questions



Source: Author

The first objective of this study is to determine the underlying structure of work values in the Greek hotel sector. In particular, the factors of work values that exist are examined (research question 1, Figure 1.1) and the relationship among the factors is further explored (research question 2, Figure 1.1). This aims to extend earlier studies within hospitality research through a greater emphasis on the conceptualisation and assessment of work values.

Over the years, a great deal of scholarly activity has been devoted to the study of values, which is rich in its diversity of concepts and perspectives (Roe and Ester, 1999; Lyons, Higgins, & Duxbury, 2010). Much of the focus, particularly in the 1960's through 1990's, has been on the investigation of values in relation to the life domain of work. For most observers, the attention of scholars has been attracted by the "key role that work plays in social life, not only as the

primary source of income, but also as a base for social participation, social status, consumption, health, family life, and so on” (Roe & Ester, 1999; p.2).

Unfortunately, the critical loss during the 1990’s of large research programs on work values from around the world such as Richard Pryor’s in Australia, Rene Dawis & Lloyd Lofquist’s in the USA and Donald Super’s multinational study has caused a decline in 21st century empirical research regarding the structure of the construct (Leuty & Hansen, 2011; Rounds & Armstrong, 2005). There are signs of change, as exemplified by the recent works of Chen & Tesone (2009), Chu (2008), White (2006) and Wong & Liu (2009), within hospitality research. However, it has to be noted that these studies were based on Super’s Work Values Inventory (SWVI; Super, 1970). This measure was designed several decades ago, to assess the values, which are intrinsically and extrinsically related to work and its adequacy to cover the breadth and inter-relatedness of the contemporary work environment has been questioned even from late 1980’s (i.e., Macnab & Fitzsimmons, 1989) (see section 4.6.1).

Within this context, this study develops and implements an updated version of the Lyons’s (2003) Work Values Scale and moves away from the rather intrinsic/extrinsic isolated view expressed by the Super’s (1970) Work values Inventory. By contrast, this approach, succinctly measures the four underlying work values factors namely intrinsic, extrinsic, social and prestige, which have been consistently observed within the wider work values research. Nevertheless, the study proposes and tests a higher-order model that accounts for the interrelationships among the four factors of work values rather than treating them as unrelated constructs. This model helps to show how various factors of work values fit together into a cohesive whole, allowing researchers and practitioners to identify broader patterns and trends in work values, which in turn, could be used to improve organisational policies and practices in the tourism and hospitality sector.

Adding to the increasing body of international research on work values across generations, the second objective of this study is to examine the relationship between work values and generations, within the Greek hotel sector (research

objective 2, see Figure 1.1). This aims to extend the discussion by earlier studies through a greater emphasis on the conceptualisation of generations as a culture-specific construct.

There has been a tendency within extant literature of work values across generations to implement the American generational timeline, as a globally appropriate conceptualisation (Parry & Urwin, 2011). However, the historical and cultural events that shaped the current generational landscape in Greece differ markedly from those that occurred concurrently in North America. While post-war American children were raised in a positive, optimistic, family centric opportunistic and progressive environment (Strauss & Howe, 1991), Greece was embroiled in a divisive civil war in the early post-war era (1946-1949). During this period, Greece suffered approximately 60,000 casualties, 20,000 children were relocated to communist countries in Eastern Europe and 700,000 people were driven from their homes. By 1951, one third of the population was dependent on public subsidies (Margaritis, 2001). This bitter conflict divided the country (Danforth, & Van Boeschoten, 2011;). The reconciliation was a lengthy and torturous process marked by faltering democracy in 1950s (Siani-Davies & Katsikas, 2009), a seven year dictatorship (1967-1974), the restoration of democracy in 1974 and the accession in European Economic Community (EEC) in 1981. Thus, adopting the US generational timeline as appropriate in this study is rather questionable.

Within this context, the study develops and implements a culture specific conceptualisation of generational timeline with three prevailing age-based cohorts; the Divided Generation (1946-1966), the Metapolitefsi Generation (1967-1981) and the Europeanised Generation (1982-1996), and moves away from the rather limited view, largely based on US accounts, expressed by extant research. By contrast, this approach demarcates the generational timeline of Greek workforce based on a four-fold legacy of events that have radically altered the historical circumstances in which members of today's Greek hotel sector workforce came of age. The divisive civil war (1946-1949) that followed the liberation from German occupation and the 1967 colonel's coup which has

lead to a seven year dictatorship. Also, the 1981 accession in the E.E.C which caused a paradigm shift towards westernized standards and the election of Simitis socialistic government in September 1996 which prioritised the meeting of the convergence criteria for accessing the Euro-zone in 2001, integrating Greece further into the European Union structures.

Nevertheless, the study explores the effect of gender (female vs. male) and operational pattern (seasonal vs. year-round) on the relationship between work values and generational identity (research question 4, see Figure 1.1). Previous studies of work values have found significant gender differences (Beutell & Brener, 1986; Elizur, 1994; Manhardt, 1972; Mason, 1994). This phenomenon was also evident within the hospitality literature. Wong & Chung (2003) documented that significant gender differences in work values, and particularly in “congenial job content” factor” existed in hotel Chinese restaurant managers in Hong Kong. Nevertheless, Lyons, Duxbury and Higgins (2005) reported that significant interactions between gender and generations were evident in Canadian knowledge workers work values scores. Therefore, they recommended that gender, as a key demographic attribute, might be considered in studies examining the effect of generational identity in work outcomes. Parry and Urwin’s (2011) recent review of work values across generations takes the issue one step further suggesting that future studies may place greater attention to other ‘dimensions of difference’ within the workplace (e.g. gender, ethnicity and national culture).

One such dimension within tourism and hospitality workplace is the operational pattern, in terms of year-round and seasonal hotels. While there are no evidence of studies exploring the effect of the operational pattern on employees work values, seasonality as a measure of cyclical variations in the demand and revenue of the hotel sector, has been found to affect all aspects of functioning (Janta, Ladkin, Brown, & Lugosi, 2011; Jolliffe & Farnsworth, 2003; Krakover, 2000; Lundberg, Gudmundson, & Andersson, 2009; Matzler & Renzl, 2007; Nadal, Font, & Rosselló, 2004). This cyclical variation is a common characteristic of the Greek hotel sector because approximately half of foreign

tourists visit Greece between July and September; and 70 per cent of Greeks prefer to have their vacation between May and September (Chalkiti & Sigala, 2010). Thus, employment within seasonal or year-round hotels could be a potential mitigating factor in the exploration of hotel employees work values, particularly within the Greek context.

1.4 Structure of the thesis

Six chapters, including this introduction and the conclusive chapter, comprise this thesis. Chapter two, values & work, represents the first part of the literature review and is divided into three sections. The first section examines the theoretical developments in value research, both in the wider more inclusive domain of life in general and the narrower more specific area of work. An overview of conceptualisations, as put forth by prominent value theorists is provided and Schwartz's (1992) universal theory of values is further discussed. Then, based on studies from a multidisciplinary field of learning (i.e., applied psychology, organisational behaviour) the relationship between general life values and values related to specific life domains, with greater emphasis on the life domain of work is highlighted. The following section shifts the focus to the empirical evidence of work values research, as documented within tourism and hospitality literature. In particular, greater attention was given to the structure of work values. The third and final section of this chapter reflects the contribution of this study to the theoretical developments of value research, while exploring a conceptual framework for studying the construct of work values.

Chapter three, generations and work, represents the second part of the literature review and is also divided into three sections. The first section explores the theoretical developments of generational research as they have emerged in both the psychological and sociological field of learning. An overview of generational identity is provided as it takes place in both the private sphere of the individual life course (psychological approach) and the public spheres of social structure (sociological approach). A subsequent cultural mode of interpreting the phenomenon is highlighted and the definition of a generation

is developed, within the context of this study. The following section discusses the generational timeline of current workforce as proposed by extant research on work values across generations raising questions about its relevancy to the Greek workforce. A culture-specific generational timeline is then developed for the Greek workforce moving away from the dominant, across studies, US based generational boundaries. The third and final section provides a critical evaluation of extant literature concerning the topic of work values across generations, and unveils the critical conceptual, definitional, methodological, and statistical issues faced by this nascent stream of research.

Chapter four, research methodology, describes the procedures, techniques and methods adopted to address to relevant objectives and questions, specified in the introductory chapter. The first section provides an overview of the Greek hotel sector workforce as a means of enhancing our understanding regarding the context of this study. The following section determines the operational definitions of each of the main concepts and relates each of the four research questions specified in the introductory chapter to a relevant hypothesis. This approach allows to more readily address the research objectives of the study. The strategy of triangulation as a process of conceptualising, collecting, analysing and evaluating data to test the formulated hypotheses is then discussed. An overview of the sampling frame of the study follows and the development of the research instrument is further described. The final section of this chapter highlights the procedures used for analysing the collected data in relation to each of the four research hypotheses.

Chapter five, describes the results of the analyses performed to determine the nature of work values across the prevailing generations of today's Greek hotel sector workforce (research aim). Addressing to the first research objective regarding the structure of the work values domain, the first section of this chapter highlights the results of the two-step factor analytic procedure. The derived factor structure is further compared to theory driven alternatives and relevant findings are discussed. The following section, addressing to the second research objective tests whether generational differences in work values do

exist among Greek hotel workers. Emphasis is placed on the effect of gender and seasonality on observed differences and relevant findings are further discussed.

Finally, chapter six illustrates the conclusions drawn from the findings of this research and highlights their contribution to the broader understanding of work values both within the field of tourism and hospitality as well as across the wider organisational context. The limitations of the methodology adopted in conducting this study are then discussed and the possible avenues for future research are further outlined.

CHAPTER 2

Values in the workplace: a literature review

While the origins of value research could be traced back to Aristotle's philosophical quest of the paramount value of "eudemonia" (eudaimonia), the interest within the hospitality management field surfaced in early 1980's. Neumann, Pizam & Reichel (1980) were the first to stress the role of values as crucial determinants of work motivation among hospitality students. In their seminal work, they concluded that values have great potentials as "a screening mechanism for new applicants or as a means of improving the motivation of existing employees" (p. 430), in hospitality organisations. Since then, contemporary scholars continue to advocate the centrality of values in tourism and hospitality. For example, Mok, Pine & Pizam (1998) noted that values lay the foundation for the understanding of the attitudes and motivations of hotel managers in Hong Kong. In a similar vein, Chu (2008) argued that values are crucial determinants of Taiwanese hospitality management students because they direct their beliefs, thoughts and actions.

However, as noted in the introductory chapter, a distinction exists in the literature between general life values and work values. Despite the growing importance of the topic, to date the relationship between general life values and work values has not been explored in the context of hospitality research. The purpose of this chapter is to examine the theoretical developments in value research, both in the wider more inclusive life in the general domain and the narrower more specific area of work. In particular, greater emphasis is placed to

the exploration of a multidisciplinary field of learning, moving away from the rather isolated view expressed by extant literature within hospitality management. This aims to demonstrate how ideas from other disciplines may assist our understanding regarding the work values structure of current and future workers within the hospitality sector, in general, and in Greek hotel organisations, in particular (research objective 1).

The chapter therefore, begins with an overview of general life values' content as put forth by some of the most prominent theorists on the subject matter. The main concepts embedded in most influential definitions are explained and special attention is paid to distinguish values from commonly conflated constructs such as attitudes, traits and interests. Then, a coherent system of values, recognised across cultures, is presented as articulated by social psychologist Shalom Schwartz.

The subsequent section illustrates the relationship between general life values and values related to specific life domains, with greater emphasis on the life domain of work, as proposed by studies within applied psychology and organisational behaviour. Then, a critical evaluation of the state of work values research within tourism and hospitality is conducted to identify whether the derived factor structures were developed from a sound theoretical basis and valid empirical evidence. The final section integrates the knowledge gained from the above in order to define both general life values and work values, within the context of this study. This discussion serves as the basis for the development of a definitional framework of work values relevant to this study.

2.1 The content of general life values

The discussion of the content of general life values is confounded by the plethora of definitions that have been ascribed to the concept, particularly within the broader management field. This phenomenon is evident in table 2.1, which provides a listing of definitions published in highly ranked management journals, over the past 50 years.

Table 2.1 Value definitions in management literature (1965-2013)

Year	Journal	Definition
1965	Harvard Business Review	<i>A value can be viewed as a conception, explicit or implicit, of what an individual or a group regards as desirable, and in terms of which he or they select, from among alternative available modes, the means and ends of action (Guth & Tagiuri, p. 124-125)</i>
1971	Academy of Management	<i>Value is a hierarchy of competing, fundamental life directions which act as criteria for psychological behaviour (Senger, p.416)</i>
1975	Academy of Management	<i>Values may be thought of as global beliefs about desirable end-states underlying attitudinal and behavioural processes (Connor & Becker, p.551)</i>
1976	Journal of Management	<i>A value refers to a single prescriptive or proscriptive belief which transcends objects and situations to which attitudes are tied (Brown, p.16)</i>
1982	Academy of Marketing Science	<i>One of the major functions of values is their use as criteria or standards of behaviour (Petrof, Sayegh & Vlachopoulos, p.501)</i>
1998	Journal of Management	<i>Values specify an individual's personal beliefs about how he or she «should» or «ought» to behave (Meglino & Ravlin, p.354)</i>
2000	Intern. Journal of Cont. Hospitality Management	<i>Values act as criteria for choosing goals or guiding actions (Chen, Chu & Wu, p.360)</i>
2003	Journal of Intern. Business Studies	<i>Desirable goals that vary in importance and serve to guide people's lives (Lenartowicz & Johnson, p.267-268).</i>

Table continues

Year	Journal	Definition
2004	Journal of Business Ethics	<i>Values are “relatively stable beliefs that certain modes of behaviour or end-states are desirable” (Grojean, Resick, Dickson & Smith, p.225</i>
2005	Hyman Relations	<i>Values are “conceptions of the desirable that guide the way persons select actions, evaluate people and events, and explain their actions and evaluations” (Gandal, Roccas, Sagiv & Wrzesniewski, p.1229).</i>
2008	Journal of Manag. Inquiry	<i>A value is “an individual’s belief of how he or she should or ought to behave”(Hill & Carley, p.373)</i>
2008	<i>Journal of Organisational Behaviour</i>	<i>Values are “personal, trans-situational, sets of priorities that differ across individuals and act as guiding principles in people’s lives” (Berson, Oreg & Dvir, p.616)</i>
2010	Journal of Business Ethics	<i>Value are defined as deeply cherished beliefs about desirable conduct which transcend specific situations and guide selection or evaluation of behaviours (Duarte, p.355)</i>
2012	Journal of Leader. & Organiz. Studies	<i>Values are “desirable end states, goals, or behavioural modes (instrumental values) that strongly influence the types and intensity of behaviours” (Groves & LaRocca, p.216)</i>
2013	Intern. Journal of Hospitality Management	<i>Values define what people believe to be fundamentally right or wrong (Gursoy, Chi & Karadag, p. 41)</i>

Source: Author

To some scholars, values are conceptions of the desirable (Guth & Tagiuri, 1965; Gandal, Roccas, Sagiv & Wrzesniewski, 2005) and to others global, prescriptive and/or cherished beliefs about behaviour (Brown, 1976; Connor & Becker, 1975; Duarte, 2010; Grojean, Resick, Dickson & Smith, 2004; Meglino & Ravlin, 1998; Hill & Carley, 2008). Still a body of management literature conceives values as criteria for behaviour (Chen, Chu & Wu, 2000; Petrof, Sayegh & Vlahopoulos, 1982; Senger, 1971) whereas a further stream of research treats the construct as goals that guide behaviour (Groves & LaRocca, 2012; Lenartowicz & Johnson, 2003). It is apparent therefore, that although there is a common view among scholars about the role of values – that is influencing individuals' and groups' behaviour – there is great variability about the nature of the concept.

Hitlin & Piliavin (2004) emphasise that the wide spread use of the construct, in almost all social sciences, has probably played an important role in the conceptual variability of values. Indeed, the development of value theory has been variously influenced by the many different conceptions articulated within disciplines such as sociology (i.e., Williams, 1968, 1979), anthropology (i.e., Kluckhohn, 1951), social psychology (Rokeach, 1968, 1973; Schwartz, 1992; 1994; Schwartz & Bilsky, 1987, 1990) and/or applied psychology (Elizur & Sagie, 1999; Levy, 1990; Sagie & Elizur, 1996). The main features embedded in most cited conceptions will be subsequently explored as a means of explicating the substantive content of values in the general life domain

2.1.1 Values as conceptions of the desirable

On the basis both of observation and of systematic studies of top management in business organizations, Guth & Tagiuri (1965) were the first to present how the personal values of executives (American) affected the course of corporate strategy. In their seminal work, values were described as conceptions of the desirable, a view shared by a stream of contemporary management scholars such as Gandal, Roccas, Sagiv & Wrzesniewski, (2005) and Groves LaRocca (2012) (see table 2.1).

However, the social anthropologist, Clyde Kluckhohn, had originally articulated this approach. Almost 15 years earlier than Guth & Tagiuri (1965), Kluckhohn (1951) described values as “a conception, explicit or implicit, distinctive of an individual or characteristic of a group, of the desirable that influences the selection from available modes, means, and ends of actions” (p.395). Spates (1983) noted that Kluckhohn’s conception was the “primary orienting definition” of values in social sciences and thus, the influence placed on Guth & Tagiuri’s work, is not a surprise. Kluckhohn’s systematic definition of values, has also offered, as further stressed by Rohan (2000), the first comprehensive analysis against the often vague and diffuse, literature on the subject in the various fields of learning. Nevertheless, Kluckhohn’s emphasis on the parallel relationship of values to preference and action, and the fact that he conceived values as being held by both individuals and groups, continues to magnetise the interest of scholars devoted to the study of values

2.1.2 Values as criteria for conduct

A body of the literature, as shown in table 2.1, has further conceptualised values as criteria of conduct, which provide a plurality of interacting life directions that help individual to make judgements and evaluations and choose among alternative options goals or guiding actions. Contrary to the anthropological approach described above, this conceptualisation is more sociologically oriented. Indeed, the notion of values as criteria for selection in action, was the core element in sociologist, R.M Williams’s (1968) approach to describe the construct.

In late 1960’s, at the same period that the study of values became a concern for management scholars, numerous conceptions of values emerged in the social sciences. Despite Kluckhohn’s effort to provide a more unified view of the concept and a degree of integration in how best to define values, the term has been linked with many related and unrelated modalities of selective orientation. Williams (1968) emphasised that the term was variously referred, among many

others, to “interests, pleasures, likes, preferences, duties, moral obligations, desires, wants, needs, aversions, and attractions” (p. 283).

In order to diffuse the vagueness surrounding the term, Williams (1968) proposed that values should be considered as a heuristic mechanism of decision-making, composed by affective, cognitive and directional aspects. When this system operates in a fully and explicit manner, values reflect the criteria for judgement, preference and choice whereas in an implicit and unreflective way, values become grounds for the decisions in behaviour. Williams’s conceptualisation provided a more systematic view regarding the function and dimensionality of the construct and influenced the work of future theorists such as Schwartz (1992) (see section 2.1.4).

2.1.3 Values as enduring beliefs

Scholars from the broader management field, as shown in table 2.1 have also ascribed a belief-bound content to values. Contrary to the anthropological and sociological conceptualisations of values, discussed above, this approach reflects a psychological orientation merely corroborating to Rokeach’s work regarding the nature of values.

Elaborating on Kluckhohn’s earlier work, Rokeach (1968, p.160), defined values as “abstract ideals, not tied to any specific object or situation, representing a person’s belief about modes of conduct and ideal terminal mode”. Within this context, values could function as global beliefs that “transcendentally guide actions and judgments across specific objects and situations” (Rokeach 1968, p.160). Later, he reiterated his view arguing that a value is “an enduring belief that a specific mode of conduct or end-state of existence is personally or socially preferable to an opposite or converse mode of conduct or end-state of existence” (1973, p.5).

Differentiating from Kluckhohn’s conception-bound approach, the belief-bound meaning that Rokeach assigned to the construct provided an alternative context for defining values. This difference is by no means purely a matter of semantics

and merits explanation. In particular, Kluckhohn (1951) utilised the proposition “conceptions of the desirable” implying that values are empirically derived, logically distinguishable, normative and existential abstractions. In addition he clearly separated values from beliefs by arguing that a «belief refers primarily to the categories ‘true’ and ‘false’; correct and incorrect. Value refers primarily to ‘good’ and ‘bad’; ‘right and ‘wrong’» (p. 432). Thus, in Kluckhohn’s view, values involve both affective and cognitive aspects whereas beliefs are considered to have solely cognitive features.

By contrast, Rokeach’s psychological perspective of beliefs involves a broader context with three types: descriptive, prescriptive and evaluative. Descriptive beliefs are judged as true or false, correct or incorrect (e.g., I believe that the sun rises in the east) whereas evaluative beliefs are capable of being good or bad (e.g., I believe this ice cream is good). The third type, prescriptive beliefs include a sense of desirable or undesirable means or ends of action (e.g., I believe it is desirable that children should obey their parents). Values, in Rokeach’s (1973) conceptualisation reflect the essence of “prescriptive beliefs,” a view merely corroborating to Kluckhohn’s “conception of the desirable”.

The work of Rokeach, as noted by Hitlin (2003), could be credited for bringing the concept of values in to modern focus in social sciences. In particular, Meglino & Ravlin’s (1998) seminal work on organisational values was based on Rokeach’s belief-bound conceptualisation (see table 2.1). From an organisational perspective, extending Rokeach’s view, they argued that values as modes of behaviour do not necessarily imply the manner which individual behave, but rather, they indicate internalised cognitions of socially desirable ways to satisfy individuals’ needs. Therefore, their alternative belief-bound perspective of describing values placed greater emphasis on a distinctive characteristic of values namely “oughtness”. Meglino & Ravlin’s (1998) conception, as shown in table 2.1, has been adopted by many contemporary management (i.e., Hill & Carley, 2008) and hospitality scholars (Gursoy, Chi & Karadag, 2013).

2.1.4 Values as transsituational goals

As shown in table 2.1, values have also been described as transsituational goals, a view originally held by Schwartz (1992). Based on a succinct depiction of previously analysed efforts by Kluckhohn (1951), Williams (1968) and Rokeach (1968, 1973), he defined values as “desirable transsituational goals, varying in importance, that serve as guiding principles in the life of a person or other social entity”(Schwartz, 1994; p.21). Implicit in this definition are that “(1) they serve the interests of some social entity, (2) they can motivate action-giving it direction and emotional intensity, (3) they function as standards for judging and justifying action, and (4) they are acquired both through socialization to dominant group values and through the unique learning experiences of individuals” (p.21).

While Kluckhohn (1951) has been named as providing the “first orienting definition” of values in social sciences, and Rokeach’s work (1968, 1973) as bringing the concept in to modern focus, current discussions in value research (i.e., Lyons, Higgins & Duxbury, 2010; Jin & Rounds, 2012; Rounds & Armstrong, 2005; Rounds & Jin, 2013) emphasise that Schwartz’s (1992) model is the most-up-to date and comprehensive attempt to define and conceptualise the domain of values.

2.1.5 Values as principles of well being

The point of departure in the previously discussed definitions is that values were thought of in relative terms to individual’s actions or conduct, although these two forms of behaviour were not treated together. While this approach at conceptual level yields meaning, at an operational level it is rather complex and unclear. For example, an attempt to operationalise individual relatedness to actions, as proposed by Kluckhohn (1951), could result in numerous and varied assessments. In addition, when considering values as “enduring beliefs,” a view held by Rokeach (1973), their longitudinal study becomes rather meaningless. Nevertheless, the essence of values as goals, assigned by Schwartz (1992),

implies the attainment of specific purposes although Schwartz (1992) provides a general purpose, that of “guiding principles in the life of a person.”

From an operational perspective, a stream of applied psychologists argue that an item belongs to the universe of value items if, and only if, its domain asks estimation of the degree of importance of a goal according to a certain criterion (Elizur & Sagie, 1999; Levy, 1990; Sagie & Elizur, 1996). One such criterion, as explained in Sagie & Elizur (1996) multifaceted proposition of values, is people’s well being (see figure 2.2). Within this context, an efficient way of dealing with the variability in describing the substantive meaning of values, at the conceptual level, is to prefer operational definitions, which estimate the level of relative importance of a goal in a sense of well-being.

2.2 Distinguishing values from other constructs

The study of values grapples with another vague issue surrounding the nature of the construct, which involves the distinction of the term with commonly conflated constructs. Meglino & Ravlin (1998) emphasise that “among other things, values have been considered as needs, personality types, motivations, goals, utilities, attitudes, interests, and nonexistent mental entities” (p.351). Given the characteristic ambiguity in the literature of constructs related to the nature of values, comprehensive reviews of values in various disciplines such as business (Agle & Caldwell, 1999), sociology (Hitlin & Piliavin, 2004) and psychology (Rohan, 2000) advocate that there are five elements, which are recurrently mentioned in conceptual definitions of values: (a) beliefs or preferences (b) pertaining to desirable end states or modes of conduct., (c) transcend specific situations, (d) guide selection or evaluation of behaviour, people, and events, and (e) are ordered by importance relative to other values to form a system of value priorities. The previous discussion has clearly identified those common elements. Considering therefore the nature of values in this commonly accepted perspective is an ideal framework for distinguishing them from constructs such as attitudes, traits and interests.

2.2.1 Values and attitudes

The psychological construct most closely related and often conflated with values is that of attitudes. Sociology and social psychology textbooks (i.e., Hollander, 1968; Theodorson & Theodorson, 1970) refer to attitudes as individuals' beliefs related to certain objects and situations. Values, by contrast, have a more general focus, which as explained earlier, transcends specific situations. This transcendental nature of values allows them to occupy a higher place than attitudes in individual's analogical hierarchy of beliefs. In addition, values are more enduring than attitudes because they are composed by a "relatively permanent perceptual framework which shapes and influences the general nature of an individual's behaviour" (England, 1967: p.54). Roe & Ester (1999) add a further point for distinction by noting that values are always expressing a positive belief (i.e., in favour of an object or situation) whereas attitudes can also be negative oriented towards an object or a situation (i.e., against the European policy of Germany). The above could possibly explain the reason that many interventions avoid changing individuals' values and instead focus on altering their attitudes.

2.2.2 Values and interests

Interests, in terms of the level of focus, are less specific than attitudes but more specific than values (Roe & Ester, 1999). Vocational behaviourists (i.e., Dawis, 1991; Super, 1995) have mostly explored the connection between values and interests, particularly in the life domain of work, as part of individuals' career-related decisions. Super (1995) defined interests as "the activities within which people expect to attain their values and thus satisfy their needs" (p. 54). As such, interests represent some of the many aspects of values. For example, an individual holding the value of benevolence may be interested in pursuing a career to social welfare. However, Roe & Ester (1999) noted that drawing a demarcation line, particularly on the individual level, is rarely this simple whereas at the societal level, interests, contrary to values, could not be shared within larger communities.

From an operational standpoint, Round & Armstrong (2005), offer a more simplistic perspective for distinguishing values and interests by considering their assessment measurement. Value measures ask individuals to rate the importance of items, whereas interest measures ask individuals to rate their liking of items. Thus, in simple terms it could be argued that values relate to the importance/unimportance of an item, object and or social entity whereas interests are related to the liking/disliking of these entities.

2.2.3 Values and traits

A frequently conflated behaviour with value-driven behaviour is also that of traits. Traits represent “dimensions of individual differences in tendencies to show consistent patterns of thoughts, feelings and actions” (McCrae & Costa, 1990, p. 23). The element of endurance implied in the definition of traits is mostly accountable for the confusion with values. However, traits are enduring dispositions of personality (De Raad & Van Oudenhoven, 2008) whereas values, as noted earlier, are enduring beliefs. Traits, similarly to attitudes, can be expressed in either negative or positive manner (Hitlin & Piliavin, 2004) whereas values, as explained earlier, exhibit a primarily positive content. In operational terms, traits are usually assessed in terms of the frequency and intensity of their occurrence (Roccas, Sagiv, Schwartz & Knafo, 2002) whereas values, are measured by the relative importance as guiding principles. In general, it could be argued that traits denote conceptions that dispose a person to behaviour, reflecting what individuals are like whereas values guide a person to behaviour, exhibiting what individuals find significant.

2.3 Schwartz’s (1992) universal theory of values

Consistent with the content of general life values, described in previous conceptions, is the presence of a heuristic mechanism capable of collecting, organising and weighting relevant information to direct people’s behaviour. This mechanism is commonly referred as people’s value system. A value system, whether considered in a sociological or a psychological perspective, is

responsible for organising the perpetual engagement of individuals, in evaluating the role that social entities play in their lives.

For instance, sociologists argue that, individuals “*are not detached or indifferent to the world; they do not stop with a merely factual view of their experience. Explicitly or implicitly they are continually regarding things as good or bad, pleasant or unpleasant, beautiful or ugly, appropriate or inappropriate, true or false, virtues or vices*” (Williams, 1979: p. 16). From this perspective, value systems have the ability to “delimit the parameters for behaviours considered acceptable (or just) and serve to structure our experiences (Hitlin & Piliavin, 2004: p.363). In a similar vein, psychologists argue that value systems act as “schemata of comprehensibility” (Allport, 1961: p. 544), capable of organising “summaries of experience” in order to offer “continuity and meaning under changing environmental circumstances” (Feather, 1980: p.249). Thus, irrespective of the perspective, sociological or psychological, a value system could be considered as a “meaning-producing super-ordinate cognitive structure” (Rohan, 2000, p.257) underlying the role that a social entity such as a person, group, or event plays in individuals’ or groups’ sense of well-being.

Unfortunately, research on values, as discussed earlier, has largely developed in separate research traditions and an integrative theoretical framework, from which to understand the role of value systems as “meaning-producing super-ordinate cognitive structures”, has been missing. Schwartz (1992) sought to identify a coherent system of values that is recognised in all societies. In a revision of the original theory (Schwartz & Bilsky, 1987, 1990) he theorised that values are organised by a coherent system that codifies our motivations into a hierarchically ordered framework underlying our attitudes, behaviours and ultimately our decision making. This coherent structure derives from the social, biological and psychological conflict or congruity among the ten motivationally distinct types of values that people most commonly utilise to face everyday opportunities and challenges. The basic assumption is that there are ten motivationally distinct values, in the form of cognitive representations (see table 2.2).

Table 2.2 The 10 motivational types of basic values

Types	Description of items
Power	Social status and prestige, control or dominance over people and resources (social power, authority, wealth)
Achievement	Personal success through demonstrating competence according to social standards (successful, capable, ambitious, influential)
Hedonism	Pleasure and sensuous gratification for oneself (pleasure, enjoying life)
Stimulation	Excitement, novelty, and challenge in life (daring, varied life, exciting life)
Self-direction	Independent thought and action-choosing, creating, exploring (creativity, freedom, independent)
Universalism	Understanding, appreciation, tolerance and protection of the welfare of all people and of nature (broadminded, wisdom, social justice, equality, a world at peace, unity with nature)
Benevolence	Preservation and enhancement of the welfare of people with whom one is in frequent personal contact (helpful, honest, forgiving, loyal, responsible)
Tradition	Respect, commitment and acceptance of the customs and ideas that traditional culture or religion provide the self (humble, accepting my portion in life, devout, moderate)
Conformity	Restraint of actions, inclinations, and impulses likely to upset or harm others and violate social expectations or norms (politeness, obedient, self-discipline)
Security	Safety, harmony and stability of society, of relationships, and of self (family security, national security, social order, clean, reciprocation of favours)

Source: Bardi and Schwartz (2003, p. 1208)

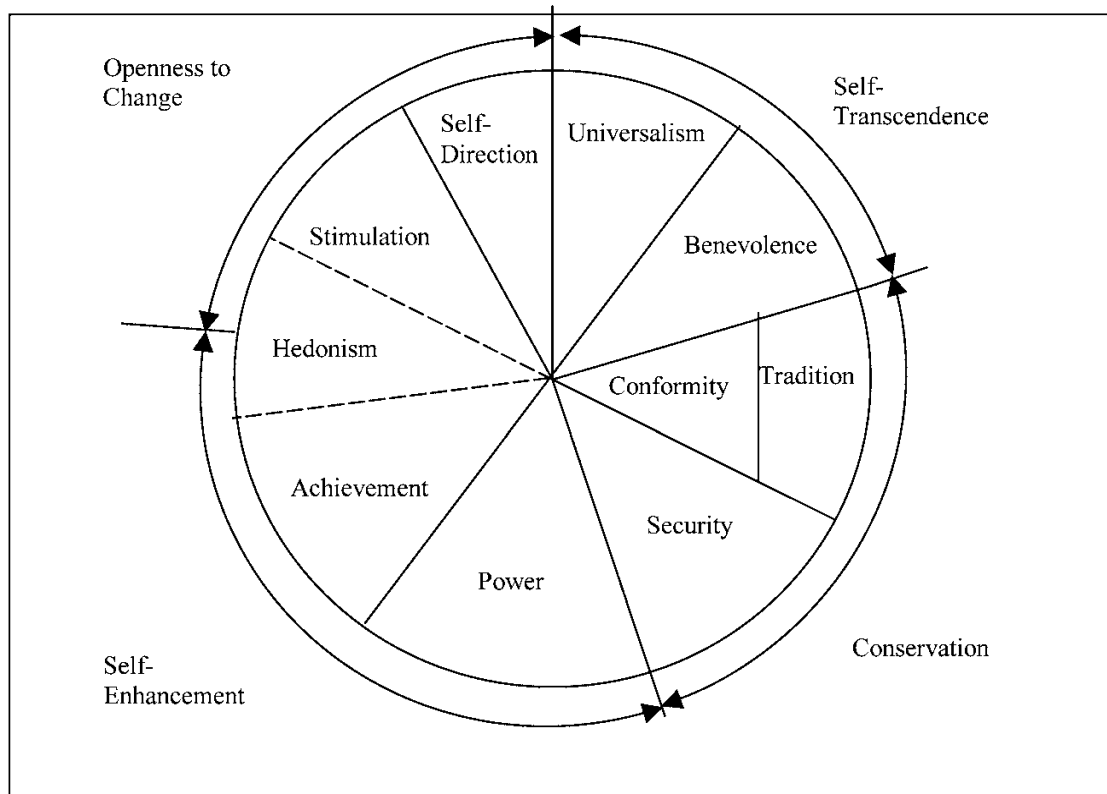
Their function is to serve as responses to the three universal requirements of human existence: the satisfaction of biologically based organism needs, the imperativeness of social interaction and the requirement for group survival and welfare. The critical content perspective that demarcates each value is the motivational goal that each one embodies towards the attainment of these requirements.

Table 2.2 presents the ten motivational distinctive types of values that describe individuals and groups cognitive responses to the three universal requirements of existence. The table defines each type in terms of its central motivational goal whereas in parenthesis lists the specific values that primary represents it. In particular, Schwartz (1992) assumed that the relative importance placed by individual or groups on one of these motivational types of values, while trying to cope with the three universal requirements of human existence, has psychological, sociological and practical consequences on the importance placed to the other values. Therefore, the pursuit of one of those values may be in conflict or in synchronisation, with the pursuit of the rest.

Within this context, the structural pattern of the Schwartz's (1992) system, known as circumplex, predicated that these motivational types of values are associated in an antagonistic and sympathetic manner with each other representing a continuum of related motivations (see figure 2.1). The fact that it represents a motivational continuum provides the opportunity of summing up values with analogous motivational goals into 4 higher-order types of values. The first high order value is self-transcendence which consists of two basic values namely benevolence and universalism. Self-transcendence reflects the motivational goal of the concern for the welfare and interests of others.

The second high-order value, self-enhancement, is also comprised by two values namely power and achievement. From the one side, self-enhancement indicates the motivational goal of self-interest and the attainment of success. From the other side, self-enhancement denotes the pursuit of gaining control over people and resources without always taking into consideration the welfare of others.

Figure 2.1 The circular arrangement of basic values



Source: Schwartz (1994: 24)

Openness to change is the third high-order value type and similarly to the previous high order values includes two values namely self-direction and stimulation. This high order value expresses the motivational goal of readiness for new experiences, autonomy and independence in action and thought, as well as excitement and novelty.

The final high-order value in Schwartz's model is conservation, which contrary to the previous high order values consist of three values namely tradition, conformity and security. The motivational goal illustrated by conversation is the need to preserve the status quo by exhibiting commitment to customs and past beliefs as well as expressing adherence to expectations and social norms. Conversation also reveals a preference to stability and security in life. The dashed lines surrounding hedonism (figure 2.1) represents the compatibility and the common elements this motivational type shares with the goals expressed by self-enhancement and openness to change.

The major contribution of Schwartz's system of values, to theory development is that rather than simply classifying a set of selected values, it represents a holistic model that structures the overall patterns of the domain of values, describing how each motivational type of value emerges with consequences that may conflict or be compatible with another type. However, Schwartz's model has been criticised of restricting the analysis of the concept to preconceived set of values rather than investigating the values that relate to the particular context of inquiry (Isomursu, Ervasti, Kinnula & Isomursu, 2011). Nevertheless, the outcome of Schwartz and Boehnke's (2004) study, involving 46 samples from 27 countries (N=10.857), empirically validated the existence of the ten motivationally distinct types of values, structured in a high-order manner, and further justified the assumption that values form a motivational continuum. While critics call for inclusion of context-specific descriptors of values, it is clear that the model however with preconceived values, resonates with a vast amount of individuals, cultures and occupations. In respect of these findings, it has been contented that Schwartz's circular motivational continuum of values could be acknowledged as a universal system of values that underlies and helps explain people motivational bases of attitudes, behaviour and ultimately decision making, during their life course.

2.4 General life values and values related to other life domains

A general assumption underlying the value literature is that the function of value systems as a meaning producing mechanism in the private sphere of the individual on the one side and in the public spheres of social structure on the other, is somewhat interrelated. The transcendental nature of values, as discussed earlier, provides the basis to be applied to various aspects of life which within the broader behavioural field of learning are called "life domains" (i.e., Jin & Rounds, 2012; Lyons, Higgins, & Duxbury, 2010; Sagie & Elizur, 1996). Each life domain represents a unique sphere of human activity such as work, religion, sports, politics, culture, education, leisure and family among others. Within this context, value researchers have sought to theoretically

articulate and empirically validate the relationships between general life values and the values related to specific life domains.

Sagie & Elizur's (1996) facet analytic study from the field of organisational behaviour, has addressed this key concern of value research. Facet theory assumes that any concept selected to be theoretically structured (e.g., work values) is linked to a whole network of other, similar variables from the same broader domain of investigation (Lyons, Higgins, & Duxbury, 2010). This approach rather than investigating correlations between variables as for example factor analytic techniques do, the facet analytic approach conducts a search for an underlying theoretical pattern to the correlations (Shye, Elizur & Hoffman, 1994). Lyons, Higgins, & Duxbury (2010) note that this type of analysis requires to develop, initially, a theoretical definition of the concept under investigation that specifies the facets and features of which the concept is consisted. The outcome of this process as explained by Shye (2004) is a mapping sentence, which shows the roles that the facets play relative to each other and the range of responses to the items that comprise the facets.

In this particular study, Sagie & Elizur (1996) proposed a two faceted model (figure 2.2), where the first facet, modality, has been conceptualised as common to values in all life domains. In particular, values were classified into three types:

- (a) material or instrumental because they have direct and practical consequences in life (e.g. economic security, work benefits, and sport achievements),
- (b) affective because they mostly relate to feelings or emotions (e.g. love, friendship, spiritual religious experiences) and
- (c) cognitive because they pertain to the inherent psychological satisfactions of life (e.g. meaningful life or work, contribution to society, and broadening one's horizons).

Figure 2.2 A multifaceted definition of values (Sagie & Elizur,1996)

The extent to which respondent X assesses the importance to him/her of having

a. Modality

- { (a1) material (instrumental) }
- { (a2) affective]
- { (a3) cognitive }

states, objects, goals or behaviours pertaining to

b. Life area

- { (b1) life in general }
- { (b2) work]
- { (b3) religion }
- { (b4) culture }
- { (b5) sports]
- { (b6) politics }

is of

Range

- { low }
- :
- { high }

importance on a sense of well-being.

*Source: Sagie & Elizur (1996) *Curly brackets denote 'either/or,' e.g. {work} {religion} is read as either work or religion*

The generality of the modality facet was validated in previous studies with samples from eight countries (i.e., Elizur, 1984, 1991; Elizur, Borg, Hunt & Beck, 1991).

The second facet refers to the specific domain of life to which the values are relevant. Sagie & Elizur (1999) focused on six life domains, including work, religion, culture, sports, politics, and life in general (home and family). This list, they noted, is not exhaustive and additional elements, (i.e., economics, education) could be included as well. For reasons of systematic sampling of the contents, they represented each facet feature by an equal number of items. In addition, features of either facet were represented in combination with the features of the other facet. For example, love represents an affective value in the general life area, and meaningful work a cognitive work value. Within this context, they developed a formal definition (a 'mapping sentence') of values

(see Figure 2.2) where the two facets describe the domain of the mapping sentence, and its range is the degree of importance of the value to the holder.

The study tested and confirmed the hypothesised definitional framework by means of factor analysis as well as smallest space analysis facet analyses a non-metric scaling technique that shows patterns of inter-relationships among measurement items (see figure 2.3).

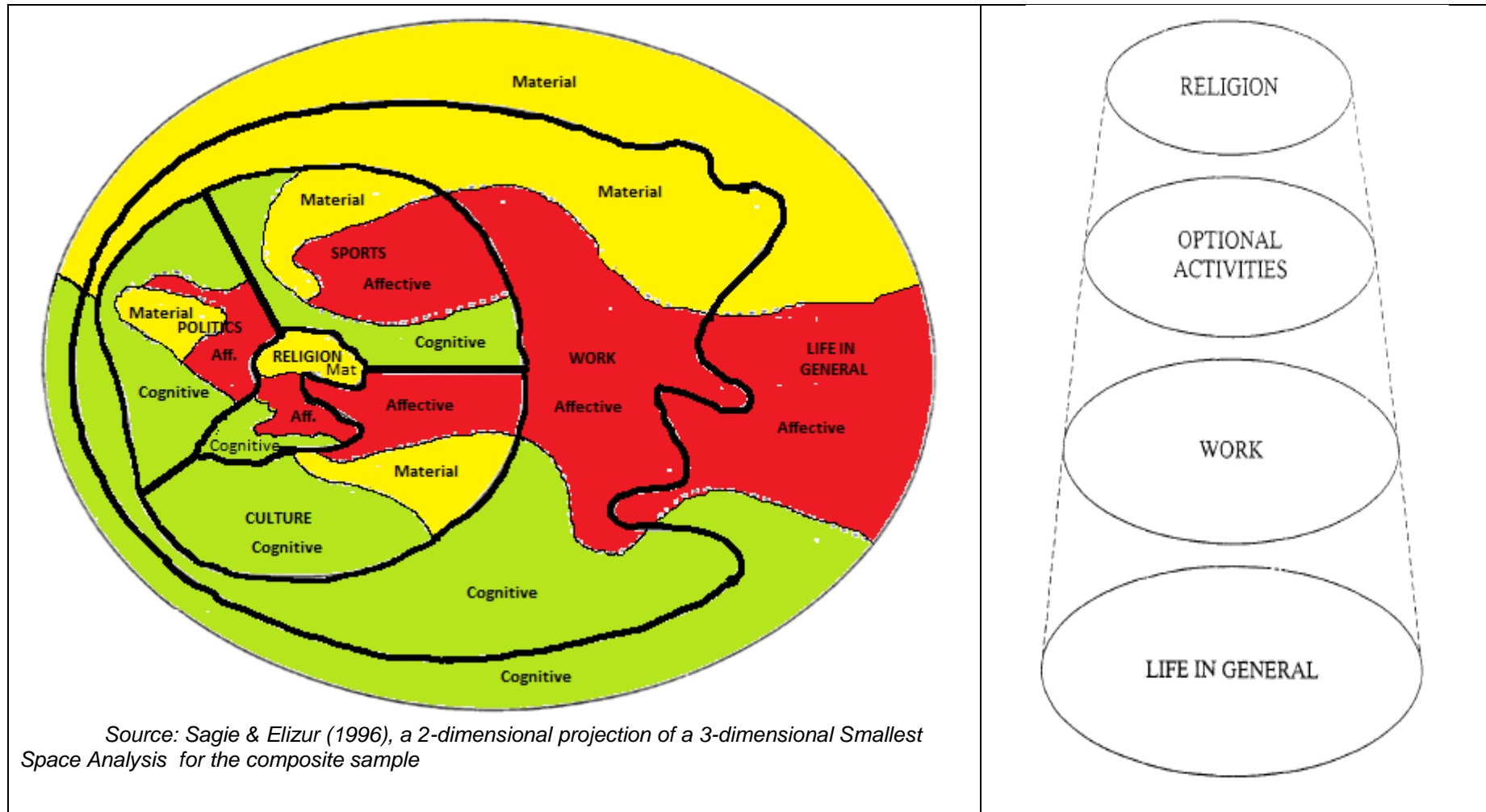
A careful examination of the two dimensional projection on the (left side) reveals four circular areas perceived as a set of layers, one above the other. The widest layer of general life values is positioned at the bottom of the structure. Values related to the life domain of work are located above in a somewhat narrower layer. The circular layer adjacent to the life domain of work is consisted of values related to the life domains of culture, sports, politics and religion. Each of these life domains are positioned in a distinct wedge-like region. Thus, considering the structure in an axial direction (right side of figure 2.3), the construct of values, as hypothesised, can be ordered into values related to the life domain of life in general, work, optional activities (i.e. culture, sports, and politics), and values related to the life domain of religion.

The work of Sagie & Elizur (1996) extends value research by empirically validating that values have a coherent structure, which more importantly integrates multiple life domains. However, it has to be noted that Sagie & Elizur (1996) were not explicit about the causal nature of the relationships between the values concerning the general life domain and those related to specific life domains.

2.5 General life values and work values

Over the years, a great deal of scholarly activity has been devoted to the study of values, which is rich in its diversity of concepts and perspectives (Roe and Ester, 1999; Lyons, Higgins, & Duxbury, 2010). Much of the focus has been on the investigation of values in relation to the life domain of work.

Figure 2.3 A schematic representation of values (Sagie & Elizur, 1996)



For most observers, it is the “key role that work plays in social life, not only as the primary source of income, but also as a base for social participation, social status, consumption, health, family life, and so on (Roe & Ester, 1999; p.2). Emphasis has therefore been placed on two critical issues: namely the interrelation of general life values and work values and the assessment and structure of the work values domain. This section provides an overview of extant literature regarding the interrelation of general life values and work related values.

2.5.1 Work values as expressions of values in the life domain of work

Much of the recent literature in the area of work values describes the construct as a projection of values in the life domain of work. Meglino & Ravlin (1998) were among the first that defined work values in this context. In particular, they argued that if one is exploring individuals and/or groups’ behaviour at work, it should be best to add the qualifier «at work» to the definition of values presented at table 2.1. From a broader management perspective, van Quaquebeke, Zenker & Eckloff (2009) combined Rokeach’s (1973) and Locke’s (1976) conceptions of values to describe the meaning of work related values. They suggested that values represent intrinsic and enduring perspectives which individuals hold throughout different stages in their lifetime, signalling “what a person consciously or subconsciously desires, wants, or seeks to attain” (Locke, 1976, p. 1304) and that work values reflect these sentiments in applied settings, indicating what people strongly care about in the work place. In a similar vein, Bu & McKeen’s (2001), influenced by Kluckhohn’s notion of values, argued that work values captures the end states that individual’s desire and expect in the workplace.

Contemporary tourism and hospitality scholars have also supported the emergence of work values as expressions of values in the workplace. For example, Mok, Pine & Pizam (1998), drawing on Rokeach’s (1973) view defined values as intrinsic, enduring perspectives of what is fundamentally important in

life and added that work values are those perspectives in the workplace. Other hospitality scholars, such as Gursoy, Chi & Karadag, (2013) and Wong & Liu (2009), argued in a more simplistic manner that work values are important and valuable outcomes, end-values, which people seek and derive from work.

Despite the wide agreement that work values derive from general life values, at the conceptual level, contemporary scholars are not explicit about the nature of this relationship and moreover empirical validation is missing. Two studies from the applied psychology field, Elizur & Sagie (1999), Ros, Schwartz & Surkiss (1999) have addressed this critical issue.

2.5.2 Elizur & Sagie's (1999) multifaceted model of values

Elizur & Sagie (1999) extended their two faceted model of values (see section 2.4) by developing a more focused, three faceted model. While the first facet, modality, was identical to that of Sagie & Elizur's (1996), the second facet was related to the level of focus. They argued that the meaning of some values such as salary, good friendship and recognition at work are more focused while other values such as meaningful work, contribution to society and esteem as a person, are more diffuse. Therefore, they suggested that by using "other words, in comparison with the more abstract diffuse values, the focused ones are more often associated with actual behaviours and events" (p.76). The focus facet, they argued, corroborates Rokeach's (1973, 1979) dichotomisation of instrumental (focused) and terminal (diffuse) values. In addition, the third facet, life domains, was concentrated solely on the more specific domain of work and the more inclusive general life domain.

As in the case of the two faceted model, the various features of each facet were represented in combination with the features of the other facet. For example, having good friends is an affective focused life value whereas use of abilities at work is a cognitive diffuse work value. Within this context, they hypothesised a formal definition of values (see Figure 2.4).

Figure 2.4 A multifaceted definition of values (Elizur & Sagie, 1999)

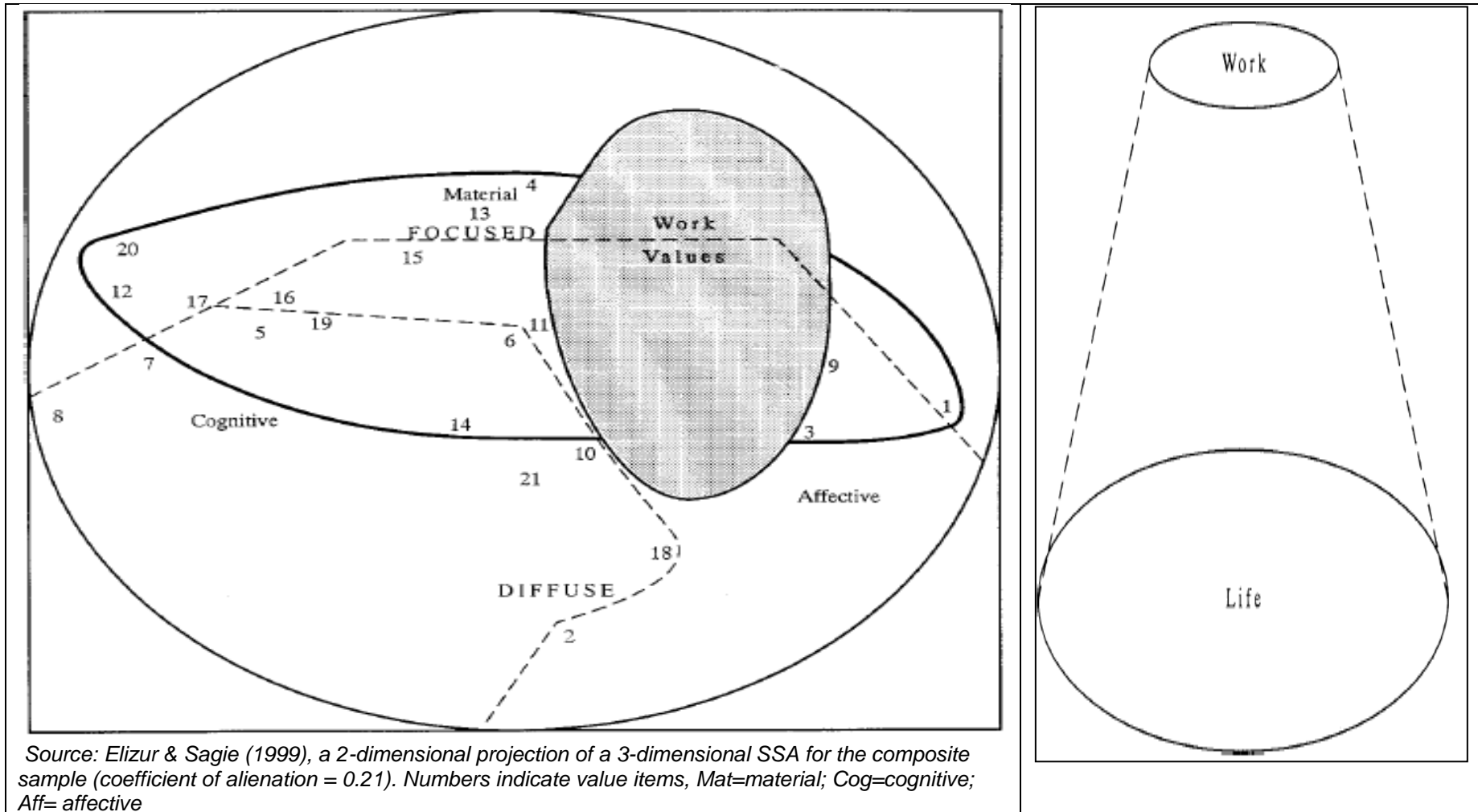
The extent to which one assesses the importance to oneself of having:

<i>a. Modality</i>		<i>b. Focus</i>	
{ (a1) material }	and	{ (b1) focused }	states, objects, goals, or behaviour pertaining to:
{ (a2) affective }			
{ (a3) cognitive }		{ (b2) diffuse }	
<i>c. Life area</i>			
{ (c1) life }	is of	{high}	importance in a sense of well-being
{ (c2) work }		{low}	

Source: *Elizur & Sagie (1999)*

Using the data scores of 165 Israeli managers on 24 items associated with work values and 21 items related to values in general, they empirically tested and validated the proposed definitional framework by means of smallest space analysis. This non-metric scaling technique produced patterns of inter-relationships among the measurement items, as shown in figure 2.5. In particular, the map at the left side of figure 2.5 illustrates all the points representing the general life values items, which as clearly shown are located along a wide circular region. On the contrary, the work value items are located in a narrower oval region (shadowed). In an axial dimensional direction (right side of figure 2.5), the schematic representation of the values domain includes two parallel layers, representing the narrow area of work (at the top) and wider area of life in general (at the bottom). The structural similarity between the concepts illustrates that work values reflect direct or parallel manifestations of life values, in the domain of work. Thus, Elizur & Sagie's (1999) findings provide the causal nature of the relationship between general life and work values, addressing the limitation of Sagie & Elizur's (1996) model, as noted earlier.

Figure 2.5 A schema of the relationship between general life and work values



2.5.3 Ros, Schwartz & Surkiss (1999) model of work values

Ros, Schwartz & Surkiss (1999), employed Schwartz' (1992) universal theory of values, to describe the relationship between general life values and work values. In particular, they considered the three types of work values, cognitive, material and affective proposed by Elizur & Sagie (1999) as conceptually parallel to the three higher-order types of values (see section 2.3). Cognitive work values reflect openness to change values – meaning the pursuit of interest, autonomy, creativity and growth, in work. Material work values illustrate conservation values – meaning having work is considered as a means to fulfil the requirements needed for general security and maintenance of order in their lives. Affective or social work values denote the pursuit of self-transcendence values; meaning having a work is seen as a vehicle for positive social relations and contribution to society.

However, as discussed earlier, the employment of Schwartz's theory of universal values imposes the presence of a fourth factor of work values, one that parallels the self-enhancement type of values. Ros, Schwartz and Surkiss (1999) argued that this type should have a prestige or power related content (i.e., influence, authority, power) to match the contextual meaning of motivations included in the self-enhancement type of values. This consideration was further based on a secondary analysis of data from two studies; Elizur (1984) and Elizur, Borg, Hunt and Beck's (1991). Ros, Schwartz & Surkiss (1999) claimed that they identified some anomalies in the cognitive, material affective classification of work values reported by these studies, which were resolved by distinguishing a fourth dimension, namely prestige work values. Specifically, the region of work values that has been conceived as cognitive was divided into intrinsic and prestige regions making better sense of the data.

Hypotheses regarding the content and the structure of work values were tested against the observations of a representative national sample of the adult, urban Jewish population in Israel (N = 999). Ten items, selected by aspects widely used in the work values literature, represented the domain of participants work

values. Ros, Schwartz & Surkiss's (1999) Work Values Scale (RSS-WVS) asked participants to rate on a scale from 1 (very important) to 4 (not at all important), how important was each of these items in choosing an occupation. Two methods of analysis were performed on the matrix of intercorrelations among the selected items: smallest space analysis and principal component analysis with oblique rotation.

Ros, Schwartz & Surkiss, (1999) reported that both methods of analyses supported the a priori assignment of items to the four types of work values (social, extrinsic, prestige and intrinsic). For example, they noted that the smallest space analysis yielded four regions of work values (social, extrinsic, prestige and intrinsic) with opportunities for occupational advancement, item 10, in the centre of space. In addition, the same four postulated types of work values emerged after the principal component analysis (see Table 2.3). Based on these results, they argued that work values are expressions of values in life domain of work. This particular conceptualisation extends the work of Elizur & Sagie's (1999) by providing a more theoretically sound approach for relating general life and work values.

However, it has to be noted that although they reported that their smallest space analysis supported the a priori assignment of work items to types of work values they neglected to provide the relevant map and/or the relevant statistics regarding the fit of the data to the postulated model. In addition, the pattern matrix produced by the principal component analysis, includes some important cross-factor loadings (item that loads above 0.30 for more than one factor). In particular, the number 6 item, work in which you are your own boss, has a high loading to both the intrinsic (.51) and the prestige work value type (.61). Despite the above inconsistencies, recent studies from different cultural contexts (i.e., Canada, USA, Taiwan), occupations (i.e., knowledge workers, police academy students) and fields (i.e., organisational behaviour, vocational behaviour, and sociology) have empirically validated Ros, Schwartz & Surkiss's (1999) four-factor structure of work values four (see Chen & Kao, 2012; Jin & Rounds, 2012; Lyons, Higgins, & Duxbury, 2010). These findings further support the

notion of work values as direct manifestations of values, in the life domain of work.

Table 2.3 Factor loadings for the work value survey items (Ros, et., 1999)

Work Value Types & Items	I Social	II Extrinsic	III Prestige	IV Intrinsic
Social				
7. Contributing to people & society	.79			
4. Work with people	.77			
9. Social contact with co-workers	.67			
Extrinsic				
1. Good salary & work conditions		.90		
2. Job security (permanent job, pension)		.79		
Prestige				
8. Authority to make decisions over people			.69	
5. Prestigious, highly valued work			.63	
Intrinsic				
3. Interesting and varied work				.80
6. Work in which you are your own boss			.61	.50
Percent of variance explained	31%	14%	11%	8%

Source: developed from Ros, et al., 1999, loadings below .30 were omitted, item 10, opportunities for occupational advancement fail to adequately load (above .50) on any of the designated factors

2.5.4 Lyons et al (2010) model of work values

Lyons, Higgins, & Duxbury, (2010) have recently explored the notion of work values as expressions of values in the life domain of work. At the conceptual level, they argued that a more efficient way to address the vagueness in work values definitions is by using the term “work aspects”. In particular, they employed this term to refer to certain behaviours and outcomes related to work, reserving the term work values to a more general level of underlying criteria that determine people’s preferences about these aspects of work.

Within this context, Lyons, Higgins & Duxbury (2010) assessed the work values domain as predominately consisted of 31 work aspects, covering a wide range of individual attributes of jobs (e.g., pay, hours), working conditions (e.g., supervisory relations, job security), and work outcomes (e.g., intellectual stimulation, prestige). Earlier, Lyons (2003), based on a content analysis of 13 work value measures, used in prior research, identified a set of 134 uniquely worded items. Categorisation of these items by independent raters using a Q-sort approach, resulted in a set of 31 discrete work aspects known as the Lyons's (2003) Work Values Scale.

Lyons, Higgins & Duxbury (2010) surveyed 119,167 Canadian workers to rate the degree to which each work aspect would be a "top priority" in selecting a job or choosing to remain in a job on a six-point scale (1=highly unlikely. . .6=highly likely). The results of exploratory smallest-space analysis from a split-half sample suggested the modality facet could be partitioned into 4 types of work values. The 4 high-order types of work values represented rewards or benefits that are provided by work (i.e., instrumental, cognitive, social/altruistic, and prestige/status) (see table 2.4). Confirmatory smallest space analysis using the holdout split-half sample confirmed the derived structure.

The findings of Lyons, Higgins & Duxbury (2010) extend previous attempts to describing the nature of work values as a multidimensional construct (i.e., Billings & Cornelius, 1980; Elizur, 1984). Moreover, the structure of the modality facet of work values corroborates the 4 high-order types of work values proposed by Ros, Schwartz & Surkiss, (1999) providing additional support to the stream of research (i.e., Elizur & Sagie, 1999; Ros, Schwartz & Surkiss, 1999; Sagie & Elizur, 1996) advocating the conceptualisation of work values as expressions of values in the work setting.

The usefulness of the above discussed studies, beyond the articulation of the relationship between general life and work values lies in the facilitation they provide to the integration of theory and results from the broader value literature on the more specific inquiry of work values.

Table 2.4 Lyons et al (2010) modality of work values facet

Work Value Types	Work aspects	Description
Instrumental	Fairness	Working in a setting where policies and programs are administered with FAIRNESS and impartially
	Supportive supervisor	Working for a SUPERVISOR who is considerate and supportive
	Hours of work	Having HOURS OF WORK that are convenient to your life
	Recognition	Working where RECOGNITION is given for a job well done
	Benefits	Having BENEFITS (e.g., vacation pay, health/dental insurance, pension plan, etc.) that meet your personal needs
	Salary	Doing work that affords you a good SALARY
	Job security	Having the assurance of JOB SECURITY
Cognitive	Independence	Having the ability to work INDEPENDENT, without having to rely on others
	Creativity	Doing work that involves CREATIVITY and original thought
	Use abilities	Doing work that allows you to USE the ABILITIES you have developed through your education and experience
	Challenge	Working on tasks and projects that CHALLENGE your abilities
	Intellectually stimulating	Doing work that is INTELLECTUALLY STIMULATING

	Interesting work	Doing work that you find INTERESTING exciting and engaging
	Variety	Doing a work that provides change and VARIETY in work activities
	Continuously learn	Having the opportunity to CONTINUOUSLY learn and develop new knowledge, skills
	Advancement	Having the opportunity for ADVANCEMENT in your career
	Freedom	Having the FREEDOM to make decisions about how you do your work and spend your time
Societal	Moral values	Doing work that is consistent with your MORAL VALUES
	Contribution to society	Doing a work that makes a helpful CONTRIBUTION to society
	Co-workers	Working with agreeable and friendly CO-WORKERS
	Fun	Working in an environment that is lively and FUN
Prestige	Influence	Having the ability to INFLUENCE organisational outcomes
	Prestigious	Doing work that is PRESTIGIOUS and regarded highly by others
	Authority	Having the AUTHORITY to organise and direct the work of others

Source: developed by Lyons et al (2010) and Lyons (2003)

2.6 The structure of work values within tourism & hospitality

This section provides an overview of the second key issue in work value research, the structure of the construct, with an emphasis on the tourism and hospitality field.

A growing body of literature has documented the work values structure of current and future workers in tourism and hospitality. As shown in table 2.5 most of the studies have structured the domain of work values using Super's (1970) Work Values Inventory (SWVI). This measure, as explained by Pizam & Lewis (1979) in their seminal paper of work values within tourism & hospitality research, was designed to assess the values, which are extrinsically and intrinsically related to work. Subsequent studies by Pizam and colleagues (Neumann, Reichel & Pizam, 1980; Pizam, Reichel and Neuman, 1980), used principal component analysis with varimax rotation on data scores derived by the SWVI to structure the domain of work values beyond the intrinsic/extrinsic dichotomy expressed in Pizam & Lewis's (1979) study. In both cases, as shown in table 2.5, the analysis yielded a 4-factor structure (self-expression, work conditions, status and altruism).

Many tourism and hospitality researchers have replicated the work of Pizam and colleagues. However, as noted by Lykken (1968), these efforts should be distinguished between operational and constructive replications. The former approach indicates that the researcher attempted to duplicate all the details of the above studies methods while the latter reflects that the researcher deliberately avoided imitation of the earlier studies' methods to create a more stringent test of the replicability of the findings (see also Eden, 2002; Tsang & Kwan, 1999). Within this context, White's (2006) operational replication, based on a multinational sample of tourism and hospitality students, has also documented a four-factor structure namely, comfort-independent, stimulation, affiliation and achievement (see table 2.5).

Table 2.5 Evidence concerning the structure of work values within tourism & hospitality research

Study	Sample	Work Value Instruments	Factor Analytic Method	Factors Assessed in Order of Mean Importance
Pizam, Reichel & Neumann, 1980	190 US students	45-item Work Values Inventory (SWVI; Super, 1970)	Principal Component Analysis/varimax rotation	1. Self Expression (6 items, α =NA), 2. Work Conditions (3 items, α =NA), 3. Status (2 items, α =NA), 4. Altruistic (1 items, α =NA),
Neumann, Pizam & Reichel, 1980	218 US students	45-item Work Values Inventory (SWVI; Super, 1970)	Principal Component Analysis/varimax rotation	1. Self Expression (6 items, α =NA), 2. Work Conditions (3 items, α =NA), 3. Status (2 items, α =NA), 4. Altruistic (1 items, α =NA),
Mok, Pizam & Pine, 1998	120 Chinese ethnic hotel managers in Hong Kong	20 items from the Value Survey Model (VSM; (Hofstede, 1980)	Principal Component Analysis/varimax rotation	1. Task Characteristics (4 items, α =NA) 2. Organisation (3 items, α =NA) 3. Working Relations (3 items, α =NA) 4. Community (2 items, α =NA) 5. Quality of life (2 items, α =NA) 6. Income (2 items, α =NA)
Wong & Chung, 2003	152 managers in Chinese hotel restaurants in Hong Kong	18 items from the Value Survey Model (VSM; (Hofstede, 1980) & 5 items from the Chinese Value Survey (CVS; Bond, 1987)	Principal Component Analysis/varimax rotation	1. Congenial Job Context (5 items, α =.71) 2. Desirable Job Context (4 items, α =.69) 3. Job status & Prospect (3 items, α =.59) 4. Self-fulfilment & Accountability (3 items, α =.59) 5. Confucian work dynamism (2 items, α =.60)
White, 2006	562 Multinational students	45-item Work Values Inventory (SWVI; Super, 1970)	Principal Component Analysis/varimax rotation*	1. Comfort-Independent (6 items**, α =.86) 2. Stimulation (5 items, α =.79) 3. Affiliation (4 items, α =.76) 4. Achievement (2 items, α =.72)

table continues

Study	Sample	Work Value Instruments	Factor Analytic Method	Factors Assessed in Order of Mean Importance
Chen & Choi, 2008	398 US hospitality practitioners	45-item Work Values Inventory (SWVI; Super, 1970)	Principal Component Analysis/varimax rotation	1. Comfort & Security (4 items, $\alpha=.79$) 2. Professional Growth (4 items, $\alpha=.80$) 3. Personal Growth (4 items, $\alpha=.75$) 4. Work Environment (3 items, $\alpha=.68$)
Chen & Tesone, 2008	398 US practitioners & 828 US students	45-item Work Values Inventory (SWVI; Super, 1970)	Principal Component Analysis/varimax rotation	1. General (7 items, $\alpha=.89$) 2. Management (4 items, $\alpha=.81$) 3. Hospitality (4 items, $\alpha=.69$)
Chu, 2008***	511 Taiwanese students	45-item Work Values Inventory (SWVI; Super, 1970)	Principal Component Analysis/varimax	1. Tangible Rewards (6 items, $\alpha=.86$) 2. Self-fulfilment (3 items, $\alpha=.82$) 3. Liberal Spirit (2 items, $\alpha=.78$)
Wong & Liu, 2009****	566 Chinese students	45-item Work Values Inventory (SWVI; Super, 1970)	Hierarchical Cluster Analysis	1. Intrinsic 2. Extrinsic
Gursoy et al, 2013	200 employees from a U.S. hotel chain	25-item instrument generated from a series of focus group meetings	Principal Component Analysis/varimax rotation	1. Leadership (2 items, $\alpha=.74$) 2. Work Centrality (5 items, $\alpha=.77$) 3. Work-life Balance (5 items, $\alpha=.64$) 4. Power (4 items, $\alpha=.70$) 5. Non-Compliance (4 items, $\alpha=.71$) 6. Recognition (2 items, $\alpha=.81$) 7. Technology Challenge (3 items, $\alpha=.73$)

Source: author, * The analysis of the 45 items did not conform to the 15 work values proposed by Super (1970),

Reporting only items with loading above .50, * the reported factors are part of second-ordered structure, **** this study reported clusters

In a similar vein, Chen & Choi (2008), using a sample of US hospitality practitioners, reported an alternative four-factor solution including comfort & security, professional growth, personal growth and work environment (see table 2.5). However, in a later study, Chen & Tesone (2009) added data scores from US hospitality students and advocated that a three factor structure, (general, management and hospitality work values) best described the data.

At the same time, Chu (2008) conducted a constructive replication of Pizam and colleagues work within the Taiwanese context. Contrary to the above discussed operational replications, Chu (2008) has randomly divided the data from hospitality students into two sub-samples. Exploratory factor analysis on the data of the first sub-sample and subsequent confirmatory factor analysis on the second subsample revealed the presence of a higher work value factor that accounted for all the covariance among the three first-ordered factors (tangible rewards, self-fulfilment and liberal spirit). Nevertheless, Wong & Liu's (2009) constructive replication used hierarchical cluster analysis, on data scores collected by a sample of Chinese hospitality students and empirically validated Super's (1970) original conceptualisation of extrinsic and intrinsic work values (see table 2.6).

While the majority of tourism and hospitality studies assessed the work values domain using Super's (1970) Work Values Inventory, a body of the literature implemented alternative measures. For example, Mok, Pizam and Pine (1998) and later Wong & Chung (2003), in studies involving Chinese ethnic hospitality practitioners in Hong Kong, adopted the Value Survey Model (VSM, Hofstede, 1980). Using the dominant method of principal component analysis with varimax rotation, they both documented a five-factor structure (see table 2.5).

Recently, Gursoy, Chi & Karadag (2013) unveiled a seven-factor structure (work centrality, non-compliance, technology challenge, work-life balance, leadership, power and recognition) based on data scores assessed by a novel 25-item instrument generated from a series of focus group meetings with US hospitality practitioners .

Table 2.6 The factorial structure of work values within tourism & hospitality as assessed by the SWVI

	Chen & Tesone, 2009	Chen & Choi, 2008	Chu, 2008*	Neumann et al, 1980 & Pizam et al, 1980	Wong & Liu, 2009**
Work Values	Work Value Factors				
1. Way of life	General	Comfort & Security	Tangible Rewards	Self-Expression	Extrinsic
2. Supervisory Relations	General	Comfort & Security	Tangible Rewards	Work Conditions	Extrinsic
3. Security	General	Comfort & Security	Tangible Rewards	Work Conditions	Extrinsic
4. Economic Return	General	Comfort & Security	Tangible Rewards	Work Conditions	Extrinsic
5. Prestige	General	Professional Growth	-	Status	Extrinsic
6. Achievement	General	Personal Growth	-	Self-Expression	Intrinsic
7. Surroundings	General	Work Environment	Tangible Rewards	Work Conditions	Extrinsic
8. Management	Management	Professional Growth	-	Status	Intrinsic
9. Independence	Management	Professional Growth	Liberal Spirit	Self-Expression	Intrinsic
10. Variety	Management	Professional Growth	Self-fulfilment	Self-Expression	Intrinsic
11. Creativity	Management	Personal Growth	Self-fulfilment	Self-Expression	Intrinsic
12. Intellectual Stimulation	Hospitality	Personal Growth	Self-fulfilment	Self-Expression	Intrinsic
13. Altruism	Hospitality	Personal Growth	Liberal Spirit	Altruism	Intrinsic
14. Associates	Hospitality	Work Environment	Tangible Rewards	-	Extrinsic
15. Aesthetics	Hospitality	Work Environment	-	-	Intrinsic

Source: Author, SWVI= Super's Work Values Inventory (Super, 1970)

* the reported factors are part of second-ordered structure, ** this study reported clusters

Table 2.7 The factorial structure of work values within tourism & hospitality as assessed by the VSM**

Work values	Mok, et al, 1998	Wong & Chung, 2003
		Work value factors
1. Job freedom	Task characteristic	Congenial job context
2. Be consulted by supervisor	Task characteristic	Congenial job context
3. Make contribution to organisation	Task characteristic	Congenial job context
4. Challenging tasks	Task Characteristics	Self-fulfilment & accountability
5. Work in a prestigious organisation	Organisation	Job status & prospect
6. Well defined job*	Organisation	-
7. Opportunity to help others	Organisation	Self-fulfilment & accountability
8. Good working relationship with superior*	Working Relations	-
9. Job security	Working Relations	Desirable job content
10. Good co-operation among peers	Working Relations	Congenial job context
11. Serve country*	Community	-
12. Live in desirable area	Community	Confucian work dynamism
13. Little tension	Quality of life	Congenial job context
14. Sufficient time for personal life	Quality of life	Desirable job context
15 Opportunity for high earnings	Income	Desirable job context
16. Opportunity for advancement	Income	Job status & prospect

Source: Author, VSM: Value Survey Model (Hofstede, 1980)

* these values were not selected by Wong & Chung (2003) because of low factor loading (<.50)

** the studies used a smaller version with 18 items,

2.6.1 Critique

Despite the growing importance that has been placed on structuring the work value domain within tourism and hospitality, a careful examination of table 2.5 reveals that there is great variability among studies and research faces challenging, conceptual, methodological and statistical issues. For instance, the sampling adequacy in many studies is questionable. Almost half of the studies were conducted with sample sizes of less than 300 participants and the ratio per measured variables, in most cases, had not exceeded 10:1. Under these conditions, Fabrigar, Wegener, MacCallum & Stahan (1999) warns that it is difficult to obtain accurate estimates of population parameters. In addition, there are cases where the studies report structures with factors composite of two variables, while it has been suggested that at least 3 to 5 measured variables representing each common factor to be included in a study (see Fabrigar, Wegener, MacCallum & Stahan, 1999; MacCallum, Widaman, Zhang & Hong, 1999; Velicer & Fava, 1998). Furthermore, it has to be noted that early studies have not documented the reliability measurements of the derived factors, therefore making it difficult to detect the level of internal consistency among the variables that compose the proposed factors. Nevertheless, studies that reported reliability measures include frequent paradigms of factors that failed to satisfy the threshold value of .70 (see Fabrigar, Wegener, MacCallum & Stahan, 1999). These observations leave room for scepticism regarding the psychometric properties of the factors in the previously discussed work value structures.

In addition to the above shortcomings, it seems that conceptual confusion regarding the content and the structure of the factors exists among relevant studies. Table 2.6 illustrates the work value factors derived by studies that employed Super's (1979) Work Values Inventory. It is obvious that there is no apparent connectivity between the proposed structures of work value factors. In a similar vein, while the work value structures proposed by Mok, Pizam & Pine (1998) and Wong and Chung (2003) share the same number of factors and have been derived within the same context and using the same instrument and

statistical analysis, there is little consistency among the content of the factors (table 2.7). This phenomenon is directly linked to scholars' preference for orthogonal rotations, as an extraction method for deriving the pattern matrix of the work value factors (see table 2.5).

Orthogonal rotations (varimax has generally been regarded as the best orthogonal rotation and is overwhelmingly the most widely used orthogonal rotation), constrain factors to be uncorrelated (Fabrigar, Wegener, MacCallum & Stahan, 1999). Notably, the simplicity and the conceptual clarity associated with this method of extraction favour its employment by hospitality and tourism scholars, however there are reasons to question the wisdom of this approach within work value research. To date, there is a substantial theoretical and empirical basis for expecting the work value factors, contrary to the assumption of no relationship involved in the orthogonal rotations, to be inter-correlated. As a case in point, Schwartz's central articulation in the universal theory of values clearly conceptualises values as a continuum of related motivations (see section 2.3). This basic tenet of value theory, as noted earlier, has been validated by samples from different cultures (Schwartz, 2005) and across different occupations (Koivula & Verkasalo, 2006). Studies in Canada (Lyons, Higgins, & Duxbury, 2010), US (Robinson & Bretz, 2008), Spain (Ros, Schwartz & Surkiss, 1999), Israel, (Elizur, 1984; Elizur & Sagie, 1999) China, Germany, Holland, Hungary, Taiwan and Korea (Borg, 1986; Elizur, Borg, Hunt & Berg, 1991) have also validated that values related to the life domain of work tend to be related in a predictable manner. Therefore, oblique rotations which permit correlations among factors (Fabrigar, Wegener, MacCallum & Stahan, 1999), constitute a more accurate and realistic representation of the inter-relations among work values. Thus, from a conceptual context, the restriction of varimax rotation to produce uncorrelated factors has yielded contradictory findings.

In the case of Chu's (2008) second order factorial structure the employment of varimax rotation, raises further conceptual and methodological concerns. While the first part of Chu's (2008) analysis considers factors as uncorrelated, the result of the subsequent analysis, illustrates the same factors as correlated in a

second-order manner. Thus, although Chu (2008) has documented results indicating a good model fit, the adoption of varimax rotation as a method for extracting the factor structure of participants work values, limits the consistency of the findings. Nevertheless, the three first-order factors in Chu's (2008) model of work values, tangible rewards, self-fulfilment and liberal spirit lack theoretical coherence. For example, the tangible rewards factor comprised of six work aspects namely, way of life, supervisory relations, security, economic return, surroundings and associates (see table 2.7). Notably, the majority of these aspects have an intangible content, which provides a rather confusing meaning to the factor and the structure in general. As clearly noted in table 2.7, all of these aspects are extrinsically related to work and therefore a more suitable, theoretically and conceptually, labelling would have been to name this factor as extrinsic work values. In the same vein, three aspects intrinsically related to work comprise the self-fulfilment factor (see table 2.7). It is obvious that a comparison between Chu's (2008) intangible rewards and self-fulfilment factors and Wong & Liu's (2009) extrinsic and intrinsic factors, although they share the same work aspects, the latter is a more theoretically sound manner for structuring the content of work values. Moreover, validating that work values represent a second-order factorial construct of intrinsic and extrinsic work values would have provide more implications for theory and practice in work values research.

A further issue of concern in extant research is the heavy reliance on Super's (1970) Work Values Inventory, as an instrument for assessing the domain of work values. This instrument as noted earlier, has been designed to measure extrinsic and intrinsic aspects of work. However, a difficulty commonly encountered in examining the structure of work values in terms of the intrinsic/extrinsic dichotomy is that this classification has been found to obscure the inclusion of important factors (i.e., social or prestige related factors) not related to the intrinsic-extrinsic dimension (see Elizur, 1984; Ros, Schwartz & Surkiss, 1999). As a case in point, almost all findings include an additional prestige and/or socially related factor in the derived work value structures (see table 2.5). Nevertheless, Super's (1970) Work Values Inventory was designed

decades ago, diminishing therefore its adequacy to effectively cover the breadth and interrelatedness of the work-values domain in the current work environment. This issue has been clearly depicted in White's (2006) study where the analysis failed to conform to the 15 value dimensions as proposed by Super (1970).

In the light of the above, it is apparent that there is limited convergence within the tourism and hospitality literature regarding the structure of the work values domain. This is surprising, considering the great similarity in the context (mostly students as research objects), the assessment instrument (Super's Work Values Inventory), the statistical analysis (principal components analysis) and the extraction method (varimax). It is obvious that the analysis of mean scores on values scales designed many decades ago, based on inductive approaches that use no a priori theoretical standpoints and consider the domain as a class of unrelated factors, will not produce similar results. This situation deters efforts to extract firm conclusions regarding the structure of the work values domain within the field. Moreover, future researchers are placed in the unsatisfactory position of dealing with an amalgam of factors that are difficult to compare and to combine. Thus, it is essential for current research to overcome this "bricolage" of structures with integrative research regarding the types of work values that exist in today's tourism and hospitality field and their inter-relations. The concluding section of this chapter paves the way in this direction.

2.7 Conclusion – An integrative framework of work values

Essential to any study of work values is prior knowledge of the nature of general life values. This chapter, perhaps in a somewhat narrow perspective, concludes that the content of general values has been evolved by conceptualisations derived from a wide area of social sciences (i.e., sociology, anthropology, social and applied psychology) that build on one another. This study follows, Schwartz's (1992) theory of values, which has been built on common elements of earlier conceptualisations (i.e., Kluckhohn, 1951; Rokeach, 1968, 1973; Williams, 1968, 1973) and represents the most comprehensive and up-to-date

model regarding the content and dimensionality of the construct. A succinct depiction of Schwartz's theorisation, empirically validated across most societies, asserts that values emerge implicit or explicit, as a result of the biological, psychological and social forces that individual and groups face during their life course. While people come of age, through experiences, education and in general by interacting with other individuals and/or groups, organisations and societies, they develop a heuristic mechanism called the value system. This system represents a motivational continuum hierarchically ordered with a coherent structure that transcends specific situations and objects in order to direct people everyday actions, behaviours and choices.

In the light of the above and for the purpose of this study, values, in the general life domain, defined as the implicit or explicit analogical preferences that individual and groups use to evaluate aspects of their world and make choices in a sense of well-being. This definition denotes an endeavour to integrate, in a meaningful manner, the conceptualisations that were put forth by some of the most prominent theorists as discussed in previous subsections. In particular, drawn from a stream of applied psychologists (i.e., Elizur & Sagie, 1999; Levy, 1990; Sagie & Elizur, 1996), this study further implements the criterion of well being in the hierarchical ordering of values. The meaning ascribed to well being, is that of the "optimal psychological experience and functioning" (p.1), as proposed by Deci & Ryan (2008).

In a substantive context, general life values due to their transcendental nature and coherent structure are ascribed as providing the content in various spheres of human activities (i.e., work, family, sports, religion, politics) and value systems are assigned the uncovering and organising of the conditions for maintaining this content as a way of well-being. Thus, this approach provides a linkage between the relative importance of the items conceptualised to structure the domain of general life values and the attainment of a specific purpose in life, the accomplishment of optimal psychological experience and functioning.

Regarding the concept of values within the domain of work, this study argues that it no longer seems prudent to examine the concept in isolation of the

broader general life domain. Conceptualising work values within the framework of both the broader general life domain and the narrower life domain of work, together, could aid in clarifying the vagueness that surrounds the term within the field of tourism and hospitality. This study is rooted, therefore, within the stream of research, which conceives work values as manifestations of values in the life domain of work (i.e., Elizur & Sagie, 1999; Lyons, Higgins, & Duxbury, 2010; Ros, Schwartz & Surkiss, 1999; Sagie & Elizur, 1996). Within this context, work values are defined as the implicit and explicit analogical preferences that individuals and groups use to evaluate the aspects of their work and make choices in selecting a work or staying in a work. This definition implies that each work value is an organising construct, which encompasses a constellation of “work aspects” (Elizur, 1984; Lyons, Higgins, & Duxbury, 2010). The term “work aspects” is being used in lieu of work values, as an umbrella term for describing all the modalities of selective direction in the life domain of work commonly associated with the definition of work values such as motivations, needs, characteristics, outcomes (Lyons, Higgins, & Duxbury, 2010). Thus, much like the construct of personality, which may be conceived by a seemingly limitless array of traits, work values can be described by the preference, in the sense of importance or priority, on any conceivable aspect of work (Pryor, 1982).

This framework is favoured to conceptualise the domain of Greek hotel workers because it provides the opportunity to establish theoretically founded, structural correspondence with mainstream studies pertaining to both the broader general life domain as well as the more specific life domain of work. Nevertheless, it more readily orients the assessment of values within the life domain of work and allows a better understanding of the content of work values.

This integrative conceptual framework will serve as a basis for investigating the nature of work values across the prevailing generations of today’s Greek hotel sector workforce, the main purpose of this study.

CHAPTER 3

Generations in the workplace: a literature review

Having established the conceptual framework for exploring work values in the Greek hotel sector, the remaining task of the literature review, is to develop a relevant framework for the second concept under investigation, that of generations. The term generation has its roots in the Greek word “genesis’ and refers to a system of descent (parent-child); a sequential process resulting from the biological fact of birth. However, belonging to or distinguishing from a specific generational cohort encompasses a sense of awareness of one’s own personal identity and a pattern of the adult-adult interaction within a given society. A generations therefore functions as a spectrum for projecting a psychological and sociological eidolon of individuals’ life course.

The purpose of this chapter is two-fold. The first is to examine the theoretical developments of generational identity formation as they have emerged in both the psychological and sociological field of learning. In particular, greater emphasis is placed on sociological elaborations of generational formation through the lens of culture. This aims to demonstrate how a culture-specific conceptualisation of generations may provide a more valid approach for

understanding the relationship between work values and generations in the Greek workforce (research objective 2, see figure 1.1).

The second purpose is to discuss critically the findings of the extant literature on generational differences in work values. Greater emphasis is placed on understanding how this stream of research, conceptualised, measured and structured the domain of work values. This aims to enhance our understanding of whether evidence of identifiable patterns of work values coinciding with generational identity (research objective 2, see figure 1.1) were developed from a sound conceptual and methodological basis and valid empirical findings.

This chapter starts with a discussion of generational identity as it takes places in the private sphere of the individual life course (psychological approach) and then shifts the focus into the public spheres of social structure (sociological approach). A subsequent cultural mode of interpreting the phenomenon is provided and the definition of a generation is developed, within the context of this study. The following section introduces the studies that comprise extant literature on work values across generations and discusses the generational timeline of the current workforce as proposed by these studies raising questions about its relevance to the Greek workforce. Accordingly, the generational boundaries of the Greek workforce are being developed based on culture-specific historical circumstances, rather the dominant, across studies, US classification. The discussion concludes with an overview and a critical evaluation of the state of extant literature concerning the topic of work values across generations.

3.1 Generational identity

In the popular debate regarding the formation of generational identity, scholars have mainly drawn on two accounts of life course to provide a critical perspective about the phenomenon, the psychological and the sociological. The former, as argued by Biggs (2007, p. 696), most commonly refers to the private sphere of family relations and the latter to the public sphere of age-based cohorts travelling through time together.

3.1.1 *The psychological approach*

Scholars within the psychological paradigm employ the construct of generations as a means of capturing the complexity of age-based identity within the private sphere of the individual life course and then progress through the public sphere of social structure.

As a product of “lived through” history, generations are affected by an amalgam of influences, which as noted by Goldman (2010), provide each generation with distinctive ways of playing with boundaries. The first step to identify one’s own personal generational identity is to become conscious of the positions set by preceding generations and thus be able to relate or to distinguish generational cohorts. Psychologists consider this partly as a developmental process, strongly influenced by “a primarily unconscious struggle to forge an inwardly believable and morally acceptable functional linking of potentially odd combinations and mutually irreconcilable realities” Goldman (2010; 480). As a case in point, Bollas (1992, p.260) states “A generation will have achieved its identity within ten years, roughly speaking between twenty and thirty in the space between adolescent turbulence and the age of thirty when childhood, adolescence and young adulthood can be viewed of a piece, the thirty year old will feel himself to be part of his generation, and he will, in the next few years, take note of a new generation defining itself in such a way that he can distinguish it from his own”. Thus, through the intensification of experiences, a “more complex sense of self emerges” (Biggs, 2007; p. 699) capable of realising his/her place in time and in culture.

Biggs & Lowenstein (2011) describe this process as “generational intelligence”, “an ability to reflect and act, which draws on an understanding of one’s own and others’ life-course, family and social history, placed within a contemporary social climate”(p.2). It is a four-phase phenomenon, which begins with the need of “self-exploration and generational awareness – an exploration of the inner world of generation, its imaginative contents and processes” (p.14). In the following phase, the individual becomes able to realize the affinity between

generational positions and more importantly to recognize the multiple perspectives “hiding” behind age-based relations. The outcome of this process is that the individual is able to escape from the shadow cast by preceding generations entering, therefore, the next phase of critically “taking a value stance towards generational positions”(p.148). The final phase finds the individual mature enough to take generationally aware actions in order to “flexibly encounter the position of the age-other and act on it” (p.148).

Thus, this body of the literature advocates that generational identity is formed not just in the horizontal dimension of the birth cohort but also in a vertical dimension of maturity which signifies the growing awareness of the opportunities and challenges emerging in adult life course as a result of the changing historical circumstances. The meeting point between these dimensions form the location in which the phenomenology of generational identity and its immediate experience exist within the public spheres of intergenerational context (Biggs, Haapala & Lowenstein, 2011).

3.1.2 The sociological approach

The second paradigm within the debate draws on sociology to provide a critical approach about the formation of the phenomenon. This stream of research considers generations as a structural component of society emerging through the dynamic process of social change. Contrary to the psychology driven approach, scholars within this body of the literature explore the phenomenon as it takes place in the public spheres of social structure and then illustrate the consequences for the individual.

The sociological approach to generations is largely predicated on the theoretical foundations set by Mannheim (1893–1947), as articulated in his seminal essay “The problem of generations” (1952). As with Marxist theories of social class, Mannheim viewed generations as a means of understanding social structure, with an emphasis on the procedures of social change. Mannheim believed that all individuals, in a conscious or unconscious manner, belong to a specific generation, on the basis of their year of birth and their place in historical time.

At the time of his theoretical articulation, this view was in contradiction to the commonly considered definition of generations as a successive biological phenomenon. Mannheim recognised the significance of the biological process of birth, aging and death in the formation of generations but argued that the influence of the changing historical circumstances needs also to be taken into account. He noted that, “Were it not for the existence of social interaction between human beings –were there no definable social structure, no history based on a particular sort of continuity then generations would not exist as a social location phenomenon. (1952: 290–1)

As a social location phenomenon, generations, therefore emerge not just by one (horizontal) dimension of birth cohort but also by a second (vertical) dimension of historical process. As a product of the formative personal experiences of society members, history is a crucial determinant in the formation of generations. The meeting point of birth cohorts and historical process creates a two dimensional space, which Mannheim calls “generational location” and objectively positions each generation across the pattern of social structure.

However, the subjective component that forms “generations in actuality” appears only when “A concrete bond is created between members of a generation by their being exposed to the social and intellectual symptoms of a process of dynamic de-stabilization” (Mannheim 1952; p.303). The shared exposure of an age-based cohort to a historically specific context during the early formative years serves as a basis for the development of an “identity of responses, a certain affinity in the way in which all move with and are formed by their common experiences” (Mannheim 1952; p. 306), a generational identity.

Thus, Mannheim’s sociological approach, describes a generation as an age-based cohort, product of a shared “lived through” history of events during their formative years. Accordingly, generational identity is formed in the common location in the historical dimension and a concrete bond developed during cohorts’ shared exposure to economical, social, political and/or technological change fixes its boundaries.

3.1.3 The cultural interpretation

Having examined both the psychological and sociological aspects of generational identity formation, it is apparent that the shared formative influences imbue the members of a generation with a unique identity, which is actualized by the historical challenges and opportunities in which they came of age and matured. Elaborating on this, a body of the literature has recently provided a cultural mode of interpretation to the formation of generational identity.

As a case in point, Pilcher's (1994) widely cited reiteration of Mannheim's theory states, "each social generation, although contemporaneous with other generations, has a distinctive historical consciousness which leads them to experience and approach the same social and cultural phenomena differently" (p. 488). The term "historical consciousness" denotes a more psychodynamic character to the formation of generational identity and has been commonly used by many contemporary sociologists to depict the "concrete bond" ascribed to generations. McMullin, Comeau & Jovic's (2007) interpretation of Mannheim's work "through the lens of culture", described Mannheim's "concrete bond" as a subjective experience of the historical consciousness and "generational location" as an objective component of generations. Within this context, they defined a generation as "a unique type of social location based on the dynamic interplay between being born in a particular year and the socio-political events that occur throughout the life course of the birth cohort, particularly while the cohort comes of age" (pp. 299–300).

Gilleard's (2004) culturally distinctive conceptualisation of Mannheim's key aspects proposed to redefine the term "generational location" as "generational field" and the term "concrete bond", as "generational habitus". Gilleard (2004) implemented the term "field" to define the "emergence of a changed relationship between past and present social spaces" (p.114). In addition, the term 'habitus' was used to denote "dispositions that generate and structure individual

practices and which emerge and are defined by the forces operating in a particular generational field”(p.114).

The term habitus was previously integrated into Eyerman & Turner’s (1998) culturally oriented definition of a generation as “. . . a cohort of persons passing through time that come to share a common habitus, hexis and culture, a function of which is to provide them with a collective memory that serves to integrate the cohort over a finite period of time” (p.93). Habitus, was used by the authors to denote a “shared collective cultural field (of emotions, attitudes, preferences and dispositions) and a set of embodied practices (of sport and leisure activities)” (p. 93), indicating that generational identity is formed in a cultural context.

Taking his lead from Mannheim, Vincent (2005) advocated that generational identity is shaped by the formative influences experienced by cohorts during the early years of adolescence or young adulthood. However, elaborating on Mannheim’s generational location, Vincent (2005, p. 584) argued that these formative influences, are “local and specific and emergent from personal biography and family and community situation,” suggesting that generational identity is a product of one’s specific cultural context. Accordingly, the shared exposure to these influences creates a cultural solidarity (similar to Mannheim’s concrete bond) encompassed by a set of symbols, practices and values, which endure and develop as it ages.

In the light of the above, the formation of generational identity for the purpose of this study, is considered as a cultural construction phenomenon. It is a reflexive process where age-based cohorts are first experiencing the circumstances in the specific cultural context, then are critically evaluating the opportunities and challenges and ultimately are formulating their behaviour based on shared cultural reference points which allow them to reshape the essence of “their time”. These shared cultural reference points include among others a set of values which were developed in the cohort’s formative years and endure and evolve as members of the cohort travel through time together.

3.2 Studies of work values across generations

Table 3.1 presents an overview of extant literature on work values across generations. In order to identify all relevant studies examining work values across generations, the PsycINFO, ABI/Inform Complete and EBSCO Host databases were searched. The criteria for inclusion are similar to Costanza et al's (2012) meta-analytic study of generational differences in work related attitudes. In particular, based on the purpose of the thesis, studies should have (a) included empirical large-scale quantitative data, (b) employed a multi-scale measure of work values, (c) compared at least two generational cohorts and (d) examined the effect of generations on work values at least at univariate level (i.e., ANOVA, t-tests).

Within this context, a number of studies, although relevant, were eliminated from further analysis. For example, Gursoy, Maier & Chi's (2008) study of generational differences in work values among 97 hospitality employees and managers, at a North American branded hotel chain with over 50 hotels owner operated, franchised and leased has not been included because findings were based solely on a series of focus group discussions. In addition, the recent study of Zopiatis, Krambia-Kapardis & Varnavas (2012) has documented how each of the 3 prevailing generations in the Cyprian hospitality industry is perceived by its own members compared to the perceptions of members of the other two generations in terms of work values and beliefs. However, work values were assessed with a single 20 bipolar scale of hospitality occupational related issues and therefore were excluded from analysis. Furthermore, Ng & Sears's (2010) Canadian study, which has provided evidence about the differences in the work values of ethnic minorities and women relative to the majority group, it was solely focused on members of the Millennials generation. Jurkiewicz & Brown's (1998) study was also excluded because evidence of similarities and differences among the three age cohorts of US public employees on 15 motivational factors was based on ordinal data

Table 3.1 Characteristics of studies concerning work values across generations

Context	Study	Generational Boundaries	Work values Instrument	Factor Analytic Method	Factors assessed in order of mean importance
	Smola & Sutton, 2002	Boomers (1946-1964) Xers (1965-1978) Millennials (1979-1994)	Cherrington (1980)	Cherrington's groupings of items were chosen	1. Desirability of Work Outcomes, ($\alpha=.79$) 2. Pride in Craftsmanship, ($\alpha=.61$) 3. Moral Importance of Work, ($\alpha=.39$)
	Real et al, 2010	Boomers (1946-1964) Xers (1965-1979) Millennials (1980-2000)	11 items from <i>Monitoring the Future</i> (Johnston et al, 2004)	Principal Component Analysis/varimax rotation	1. Intrinsic Job Features (5 items, $\alpha=.73$) 2. Social Aspects of Work (6 items, $\alpha=.75$)
USA	Twenge et al, 2010	Boomers (1946-1964) Xers (1965-1981) Gen Me(1982-99)	23 items from <i>Monitoring the Future</i> study (Johnston et al, 2006)	Confirmatory Factor Analysis	1. Intrinsic (7 items, $\alpha=.48$) 2. Altruistic (2 items, $\alpha=.74$) 3. Social (2 items, $\alpha=.67$) 4. Extrinsic (4 items, $\alpha=.70$) 5. Leisure (4 items, $\alpha=.73$)
	Hansen & Leuty	Boomers (1946-1964) Xers (1965-1980) Yers (1981-)	Minnesota Importance Questionnaire (MIQ; Rounds, Henley, Dawis, Lofquist, & Weiss, 1981)	Rounds et al (1981) groupings of items were chosen	1. Achievement (2 items, α not provided) 2. Comfort (6 items, α not provided) 3. Status (4 items, α not provided) 4. Altruism (3 items, α not provided) 5. Safety (3 items, α not provided) 6. Autonomy (3 items, α not provided)

table continues

Context	Study	Generational Boundaries	Work values Instrument	Factor Analytic Method	Factors assessed in order of mean importance
USA - Hospitality	Chen & Choi, 2008	Boomers (1946-1964) Xers (1965-1977) Millennials (1978-)	45-item Work Values Inventory (SWVI; Super, 1970)	Principal Component Analysis/varimax rotation	1. Comfort & Security (4 items, $\alpha=.79$) 2. Professional Growth (4 items, $\alpha=.80$) 3. Personal Growth (4 items, $\alpha=.75$) 4. Work Environment (3 items, $\alpha=.68$)
	Gursoy et al, 2013	Boomers (1946-1964) Xers (1965-1980) Millennials (1981-2000)	25-item instrument generated from a series of focus group meetings	Principal Component Analysis/varimax rotation	1. Leadership (2 items, $\alpha=.74$) 2. Work Centrality (5 items, $\alpha=.77$) 3. Work-life Balance (5 items, $\alpha=.64$) 4. Power (4 items, $\alpha=.70$) 5. Non-Compliance (4 items, $\alpha=.71$) 6. Recognition (2 items, $\alpha=.81$) 7. Technology Challenge (3 items, $\alpha=.73$)
Canada	Lyons et al, 2005	Boomers (1945-1964) Xers (1965-1979) Millennials (1980-)	22 items from the Lyons Work Values Survey (LWVS; Lyons, 2003)	Principal Component Analysis/varimax rotation	1. Social (2 items, $\alpha=.78$), 2. Extrinsic (3 items, $\alpha=.76$), 3. Intrinsic (9 items, $\alpha=.84$), 4. Altruistic (3 items, $\alpha=.62$)
New Zealand	Cennamo & Gardner, 2008	Boomers (1946-1961) Xers (1962-1979) Yers (1980-)	40-item instrument comprised of items from the LWVS and the Work Values Questionnaire (WVQ; Elizur, 1984)	Confirmatory Factor Analysis	1. Social (3 items, $\alpha=.63$) 2. Intrinsic (12 items, $\alpha=.91$) 3. Freedom (3 items, $\alpha=.65$) 4. Altruism (3 items, $\alpha=.69$) 5. Extrinsic (6 items, $\alpha=.78$)

table continues

Context	Study	Generational Boundaries	Work values Instrument	Factor Analytic Method	Factors assessed in order of mean importance
Multinational	Cogin, 2012	Boomers (1947-1963) Xers (1966-1976) Yers (1979-1994)	12-item Protestant work Ethic (PWE; Blau & Ryan, 1997)	Principal Component Analysis/varimax rotation	1. Asceticism (3 items, α not provided) 2. Hard work (3 items, α not provided) 3. Independence (3 items, α not provided) 4. Dislike of Leisure (3 items, α not provided)
Greece	*Furnham et al, 2005		37-tem Work Values Questionnaire (WVQ; Mantech, 1983)	Principal Component Analysis/varimax rotation	1. Influence & advancement (5 items= $.67$), 2. Autonomy & use of skills (4 items, $\alpha=.71$) 3. Financial & working conditions (6 items $\alpha=.65$) 4. Work relationships (4 items, $\alpha=.69$)

Source: Author * Furnham et al (2005) was included because is the sole published scholarly study of work values within the Greek context
 .-.-. the dotted lines frame the studies within hospitality research

As a result, although the findings of the above studies was taken into account more emphasis to inform the understanding of the topic was placed on 9 articles published between 2002 and 2012 which met the inclusion criteria, the content of which are discussed in detail in the following sections.

3.3 Generational conceptualisations in studies of work values

Although various conceptualisations were employed to describe the process of generational identity in studies of work values, there is a widespread agreement in the content. Hansen & Leuty (2012, p.35), based on Smith & Clurman (1998) marketing oriented perspective, advocate that the term generational identity refers to “a group of individuals who share common life experiences such as world events, natural disasters, politics, economic conditions, and pop culture”. This view echoes Mannheim’s definition, which as explained by Cugin (2012, p. 3), posited that generational identity is formed by “a group that shares both a particular span of birth years and a set of worldviews grounded in defining social or historical events that have occurred during the generation’s formative development years (Mannheim 1922/1924)”. However, most studies utilised Kupperschmidt’s (2000, p.66) aspect which described generational identity shaped by an “identifiable group that shares birth years, age location, and significant life events at critical developmental stages”, adding a further psychological perspective to the definition.

What is consistent across these definitions is that the outcome of generational identity is an age-based cohort, a generation, bounded by the shared exposure, at critical developmental stages, to changing historical circumstances. Accordingly, the standard approach within this stream of research, has been to assume that the current workforce is distinguished into 3 age-based cohorts (see table 3.1); the Baby Boom Generation (1945-1965) (here after Boomers), Generation X (hereafter X-ers) and the Millennial Generation (here after Millennials).

3.3.1 The Baby Boom Generation (1945-1965)

In terms of the downward boundary of the generational timeline in the current workforce, there is an undeniable agreement among scholars that it should be considered the end of World War II. The period that followed in the countries under investigation (US, Australia, Canada and New Zealand) was marked by high birth rates. This phenomenon began to decline in the mid-1960's marking, as shown in table 3.1, the boundary between Boomers and the successive generation.

Boomers were raised in era of great economic prosperity, Boomers have been described as an economically optimistic cohort who believe strongly in lifetime employment and value highly company loyalty (Lyons, Duxbury & Higgins, 2005). However, the surge in births created a densely populated cohort, leading Boomers to compete for resources and opportunities (Lancaster & Stillman, 2002). In general, the historical circumstances that shaped the formative years of this generation, in the countries under investigation, were the Cold War, the effort to conquer the moon, the movements for the civil and Women's rights and the Vietnam War as well as the assassinations of inspirational key historical personalities, especially in the United States.

Within this context, the work behaviour of Boomers, as reported by the Society of Human Resource Management in 2004, reflects a cohort that "gives maximum effort", "plans to stay for long term" and is mainly "results driven". In addition, hospitality studies (i.e. Chen & Choi, 2008; Gursoy, Maier & Chi, 2008; Gursoy, Chi & Karadag, 2013) depicted this generation as "workaholics" and goal-oriented. They are also portrayed as seeking success and advancement and therefore their career is of central value and focus in their lives. They also enjoy being in charge and tend to have high opinions of their departments and hospitality organisation companies in general.

3.3.2 The X Generation (1965-1980)

The rise in birth rates in the late 1970's and early 1980's when early Boomers began to have children has been commonly assumed as the point in time that separates X-ers from the generation now entering the workforce. Contrary to Boomers, X-ers were reared in a period of economic uncertainty accompanied by high levels of unemployment and high rates of inflation. The resulting governmental and corporate downsizing has provided fewer opportunities for success than did the ambitious Boomers (Lyons, Duxbury & Higgins, 2005). In general, the events that cultivated the formative years of this generation, in the countries under investigation, were the AIDS epidemic, the high rates of divorce and the fall of the Soviet Union.

Within this context, X-ers have been ascribed workplace traits such as “embrace diversity”, “learn quickly”, “tech savvy”, “and “like informality” (Society of Human Resource Management, 2004). Nevertheless, hospitality studies (i.e. Chen & Choi, 2008; Gursoy, Maier & Chi, 2008; Gursoy, Chi & Karadag, 2013) portrayed this generation as a cohort that strives to balance work with fun, self reliant, realistic, independent, expecting the work performed to be recognised through promotions, titles and benefits.

3.3.3 The Millennial Generation (1981-2000)

The youngest generation entering the current workforce came of age during a period characterised by economic prosperity with employment outsourcing, foreign investments and joint ventures. In addition to the economical circumstances, this generation grew up in a socially globalised and technologically “wired” world. In general, the revolutionary changes that forged the formative years of this generation, in the countries under investigation, were the introduction of the World Wide Web, the terror hit of 9/11 and the Gulf War.

Thus, in the same vein as X-ers, the workplace traits that characterised this cohort were those of “embracing diversity”, “seeking work/life balance”, “learning quickly”, “being tech savvy”, “like informality” but also the “need of

supervision” (Society of Human Resource Management, 2004). Nonetheless, hospitality studies (i.e. Chen & Choi, 2008; Gursoy, Maier & Chi, 2008; Gursoy, Chi & Karadag, 2013) have characterised the incoming generation of workforce as a goal-driven cohort who wish to have immediate impact and expect rapid promotion and development but at the same time seek to establish legitimacy with members from older generations in the workforce.

3.3.4 Critique

Upon examination of the generational boundaries drawn by relevant scholars on the topic under investigation, it is evident that the lines, in the form of birth years, that demarcate each generational cohort, are fairly consistent. This phenomenon relates to the tendency of relying on the historical circumstances that arose in the US context as a means of structuring the generational composition of the current workforce. This may seem valid, as the majority of relevant studies as shown in table 3.1 have been conducted in the United States. In addition, the rest of the studies surveyed samples of workforce from Canada, Australia and New Zealand that followed the same demographical patterns as the U.S.

However, the historical circumstances that have been suggested to be responsible for the formation of these generational cohorts are unlikely to have had the same significance outside this Anglo-Saxon context. For instance, as noted in the introductory chapter, between the end of World War II and the 1970's Greece suffered a lengthy and torturous process of reconciliation from the divisive civil war (1946-1949) while North American countries and Australia experienced growing influence on the world stage and were among the seven most powerful countries in the world. It would seem unlikely that individuals growing up in Greece and the US during this time would have experienced life in the same way. The emphasis of contemporary sociologists (i.e., Vincent, 2005) on the need for individuals to witness the changing historical circumstances in the same way in order to comprise members of a generation gives rise to the assumption that generational formation should be

conceptualized as being within a specific cultural national context. Parry & Urwin (2011) have recently presented evidence of academic research in this area, which has been conducted within single countries, based on the political and cultural history of that region and supported the proposition that different generations exist in different national contexts. This study therefore, argues that the generational timeline within the Greek cultural context will not follow the Anglo-Saxon paradigm, commonly adopted by scholars within the work values across generation research.

Hence, the formation of generational identity in the Greek workforce is being considered as a culturally constructed phenomenon, achieved through a reflexive process. In particular, this study posits that history imbues age-based cohorts with a unique cultural toolbox forged by the changing social, political, economical and technological circumstances. In order to face the opportunities and challenges that arise in the life domain of work setting, each generation selects from the cultural tool box, a set of values among others, and places special meaning on them, reshaping thus the “times” in which each generation came of age.

By shifting the emphasis from the biological and psychodynamic rhythm of life course, to a socio-cultural mode of experiencing life, a further perspective to describe generational belonging in the life domain of work emerges. Within this context, the formation of generational identity is not a product of people’s birth period and maturation process but a “cultural tank” filled with variable influences, created at a particular historical moment, able to fuel the mechanism of values with distinguishing priorities, separating thus each cohort from the others.

As with all endeavours of classifying and/or categorising, determining the lines that demarcate each generation in a given society should be viewed with an element of caution. Considering, generational identity broadly as a maturity phenomenon, forged by the historical circumstances imposed during the times of change, cannot be helpful. Generational identity, as argued by contemporary sociologists (i.e., Vincent, 2005), is local and specific, shaped by influences of

personal biography, family and cultural setting. The perspective presented in this study paves in this direction emphasising that national culture is a key aspect in the formation of generational identity and that generational boundary are contingent on the specific cultural settings in which they become meaningful.

3.4 The generational timeline of the contemporary Greek workforce

Taking into consideration that this study investigates the Greek hotel sector workforce, the development of the generational timeline will only focus on those who are working-aged instead of the entire population of the Greek society. Within this context, individuals older than the official retirement age are unlikely to be employed in significant numbers in the Greek hotel sector workforce. Indeed, according to OECD estimates shown in table 3.2 while the official retirement age in Greece is 65 for men and 62 for women, the average effective age of retirement comes earlier. In particular, the average effective age of retirement for men between 2006 and 2011 is estimated at 61,8 and for women at 59,9 (OECD, 2013). It is therefore, expected that age 65 should adequately cover the vast majority of individuals who are still in employment within the Greek hotel sector workforce.

In regards to the downward limit of age, most studies, consider the age of 18. This is the age that most individuals have completed secondary education. However, as will be explained in the subsequent section, 33 percent of the workforce in the Greek hotel sector are primary school graduates. This means that they have entered into the Greek hotel sector workforce earlier than the age of 18. Therefore, those over the age of 15, the age at which individuals have completed primary education, will be considered. Thus, the generational timeline of the Greek hotel sector workforce, for the purpose of this study, includes working members aged 15 to 65, or at the time of writing, those people born between 1947 and 1997.

**Table 3.2 Average effective retirement age vs. official (OECD countries),
2006-2011**

Country	Men Effective	Official	Country	Women Effective	Official
Mexico	71,5	65	Turkey	70,4	58
Korea	71,4	60	Mexico	70,1	65
Japan	69,3	64	Korea	69,9	60
Iceland	68,2	67	Chile	68,1	60
Chile	68,1	65	Japan	66,7	62
Israel	67,7	67	New Zealand	65,7	65
Sweden	66,3	65	Iceland	65,7	67
Portugal	66,2	65	Portugal	65,1	65
New Zealand	65,9	65	United States	64,8	66
Switzerland	65,5	65	Sweden	64,4	65
United States	65,2	66	Norway	64,3	67
Australia	65,2	65	Israel	64,1	62
Estonia	64,5	63	Switzerland	64,1	64
Norway	64,2	67	Ireland	63,5	66
Canada	63,8	65	Spain	63,4	65
UK	63,6	65	Australia	62,9	64
Netherlands	63,6	65	Estonia	62,6	61
Denmark	63,5	65	Canada	62,5	65
Turkey	63,5	60	UK	62,3	60
Ireland	63,3	66	Netherlands	62,0	65
Czech Republic	62,6	62	Finland	62,0	65
Spain	62,3	65	Germany	61,4	65
Germany	61,9	65	Denmark	61,4	65
Greece	61,8	65	Greece	59,9	62
Finland	61,8	65	France	59,5	60
Slovenia	61,7	63	Poland	59,4	60
Poland	61,5	65	Italy	59,2	60
Italy	60,8	65	Czech Republic	59,1	61
Slovak Republic	60,4	62	Belgium	59,0	65
Austria	60,4	65	Hungary	58,9	63
Hungary	60,4	63	Luxembourg	58,6	65
Belgium	59,6	65	Austria	58,4	60
France	59,1	60	Slovenia	58,0	61
Luxembourg	58,0	65	Slovak Republic	57,7	62
OECD-34 average	63,9	64,4	OECD-34 average	62,8	63,1

Source: OECD estimates derived from the European and national labour force surveys

Note: The average effective age of retirement is defined as the average age of exit from the labour force during a 5-year period. Labour force (net) exits are estimated by taking the difference in the participation rate for each 5-year age group (40 and over) at the beginning of the period and the rate for the corresponding age group aged 5-years older at the end of the period. The official age corresponds to the age at which a pension can be received irrespective of whether a worker has a long insurance record of years of contributions. For Belgium and France, workers can retire at age 60 with 40 years of contributions; for Greece, at age 59 with 35 years of contributions; and for Italy, at 57 (56 for manual workers) with 35 years of contributions.

Figure 3.1 The generational map of the contemporary Greek hotel workforce

Timeline	Cohorts						
	Divided		Metapolitefsi	Europeanised			
Births	1946	-----	1967	-----	1981	-----	1996
Employment	1961	-----	1982	-----	1996	-----	2012
Age in 2012	65	-----	46	-----	31	-----	16
Formative events	Life course						
Civil War (1946-1949)	CHL						
↓							
Collapse of pol. Centre (1958)	CHL, ADS						
↓							
Colonel's Coop (1967)	CHL, ADS, YAD		CHL				
↓							
3 rd Democratic Republic (1974)	CHL, ADS, YAD		CHL				
↓							
E.E.C accession (1981)	ADS, YAD, THR,		CHL, ADS			CHL	
↓							
Reconciliation (1989)	YAD, THR, MAG		CHL, ADS, YAD			CHL	
↓							
Socialistic government (1996)	THR, MAG		ADS, YAD, THR			CHL, ADS	
↓							
E.M.U accession (2001)	THR, MAG		YAD,THR			CHL, ADS, YAD	
↓							
Athens Olympic Games (2004)	THR, MAG		YAD,THR			CHL, ADS, YAD	
↓							
Debt crisis (2010)	MAG		YAD,THR, MAG			ADS, YAD	

Source: Author, Note: CHL=Childhood (birth-12yrs), ADS=Adolescence (13-17yrs), YAD=Young Adulthood (18-29yrs), THR=Thirties (30-39yrs), MAG=Middle Aged (40-64yrs) based on American Psychological Association (APA) age classification.

As shown, in Figure 3.1, these events are related to a number of subsequent social, political and economical events that came to occupy the centre of Greece's post World War II historical stage. Eventually, these events have shaped the norms of the society, as the members of the Greek hospitality workforce came of age. Therefore, it is argued that these revolutionary events demarcate the generational timeline of the Greek hotel sector workforce into three age-based cohorts, the Divided (1946-1966), the Metapolitefsi (1967-1981) and the Europeanised (1982-1996) (Figure 3.1).

3.4.1 The Divided Generation (1946-1966)

The members of this generation were born prior to 1967 and at the time of the study were aged 45 and older, classifying them as a middle-aged cohort. This cohort has been labelled as the Divided (Dihasmeni) Generation (D-ers here after) because their crystallising experiences were mostly comprised of long lasting divisive events, creating thus a collective memory of bipartition. Indeed, this generation was raised at a time where Greece faced the consequences of the Civil War with governments imposing policies of dichotomisation largely influenced by the context of the Cold War. This could be encapsulated in the enforcement of the 516/1948 law which demanded “a certificate of social reliability” from all those who wanted to be employed in the public sector and/or acquire a passport or a driver license (Siani-Davies & Katsikas, 2009). The categories of this ‘certificate’ as noted by Samatas (2005) were until 1974 the followings:

- “Epsilon” Ethnikofrones, (meaning national-minded) with two grades (Epsilon one, E1 and Epsilon two, E2) which allowed to be employed in the public sector and/or acquire a passport or a driver license and
- ‘Alpha’ leftists (A), ‘Beta’ crypto-communists (B), ‘Gamma’ dangerous communists (Gamma), and ‘Chi,’ unknown (X) which prohibited the above.

Thus, for many decades, a schism between the so-called «nationally minded» ethnikofrones, on the one hand, and the left and its sympathizers, which were deemed harmful to society (miasmata), on the other, divided the Greek society.

However, in 1958, the collapse of the political centre and the relevant rise of the communist party in the elections signalled the beginning of a new era. This event was the harbinger of the 1963 Papandreou centrist government, which tried to “restore democracy” and bridge the divide. Unfortunately, the cleavage between right and left oppositions remained as deep as ever, leading to the formation of the 1967 coup (Colonel’s junta) (Siani-Davies & Katsikas, 2009), an event which marks the boundary between members of the Divided generation

D-ers and the successive age-based cohort. After the 1967 coup, the Colonel's junta were in power for 7 years and banned all political parties and harshly silenced any criticism of its actions. Thus, as evidenced in Figure 3.1 the collective experiences of this generation were formed in a highly authoritative environment that fostered the schism of the society based on political criteria.

3.4.2 The Metapolitefsi Generation (1967-1981)

The members of this generation were born between 1967 and 1981, representing, therefore, at the time of the study, a cohort of people at their thirties whereas some of them may have been middle-aged. This age-based cohort will be named as the Metapolitefsi Generation (M-ers hereafter) because their generational consciousness is mainly related with the restoration of democracy and its aftermath, reconciliation and wiping the slate clean from the divisive past. Indeed, only some members of this generation have experienced the Colonel's junta, mainly during the early years of their childhood (see figure 6.1). The post dictatorship phase, or Metapolitefsi as Greeks call the 1974 transition to multiparty democracy, is marked by a constant effort to achieve a "public healing of old scars" (Siani-Davies and Katsikas, 2009, p. 571). This has been achieved in two phases, 1974-1981 and 1981-1989, the formative years of this generation (see Figure 6.1).

In the beginning, the right wing government of Karamanlis (1974-1980) placed more emphasis on rectifying the worst excesses of the dictatorship, the political exigencies of the time than directly confronting the legacy of the civil war (Siani-Davies and Katsikas, 2009). Therefore, they granted a general amnesty for political offences committed under the dictatorship, released all political prisoners and abolished by law 67/1974 the certificates of social reliability (Kassimeris, 2005). Later, the 1981 elected, socialist government of Papandreou, the first since 1924, focused more on erasing the discriminations of past which had excluded large segments of Greek society from public life (Siani-Davies and Katsikas, 2009). A series of decrees and laws, recognized those who participated in national resistance during World War II, who were

given pension rights (Siani-Davies and Katsikas,2009) but also authorised the return of political refugees and their children (Close, 2004). In 1989, a coalition government was formed and in a symbolic manner, nearly 17 million surveillance files were incinerated, on the 40th anniversary of the battle for Grammos (The Times, 30 August 1989 as cited in Siani-Davies & Katsikas, 2009). Thus, the formative experiences of this generation are not only marked by the change in the symbols, the rhetoric and the constitution but also by an environment that created the space to bridge the divides, forging a national consensus and reconciliation.

3.4.3 The Europeanised Generation (1982-1996)

The members of this generation were born between 1982 and 1996, comprising, therefore, at the time of the study, people mostly in their young adulthood. This age-based cohort will be defined as the Europeanised Generation (hereafter EU-ers) because the generational awareness of this cohort has been shaped by the accession to the E.E.C and E.M.U, an affirmation of Greece's economic viability, the technological revolution, and globalization; which caused a paradigm shift towards westernized standards.

Indeed, contrary to previous cohorts, EU-ers, have only experienced democratic governance which has been mainly concentrated on the integration into the wider structures of the European Union. The first step has been made in 1981 with the accession in the European Communities (E.C) the precursors of today's European Union (E.U). This event marked the beginning of Greece's modernization and also signalled the need to narrow the gap with the more developed societies of the E.U. The election of Simitis socialistic government in September 1996 was also a decisive moment into this direction. His governance (1996-2004), inspired by the neo-liberal paradigm, prioritised the meeting of the convergence criteria for accessing the Euro-zone, leading to important privatisations, the reduction of inflation, the restriction of public deficit and the enlargement of the Gross Domestic Product (GDP). The announcement, in 1997, of the nomination of Athens, as the hosting city for the

2004 Olympic Games has also helped to achieve this goal. The hosting of such a mega-event exerted a positive effect on the general index of the Athens Stock Exchange (ASE), and on particular industries related to the development of the necessary infrastructure (Veraros et al., 2004). This positive effect has been brutally interrupted in 2010, when the newly elected government of socialist George Papandreou announced that the budget deficit of Greece had reached -15.6% of GDP. This event marked the beginning of a debt crisis that led to austerity measures, orienting the boundary between EU-ers and the successive generation. Thus, the formative experiences of this generation were developed outside of any divisive habits of the past, in an optimistic, progressive, opportunistic environment that embraced the social, economical and political norms associated with the accession in the European Union and the Euro-Zone.

3.5 The state of research in studies of work values across generations

This section highlights the state of research in the literature concerning the topic under investigation based on their cultural context. It has to be noted that because of the focus on the Greek hospitality sector the studies that were conducted in Greece and/or within the hospitality sector are discussed in separate sub-sections. However, in terms of the Greek context, the review of the literature found no evidence of academic literature pertaining to work values across generations within the Greek context. Thus, this part of the literature review discusses the findings from the one extant study that examined Greek work values, namely that of Furnham, Petrides, Tsaousis, Pappas, & Garrod, (2005).

3.5.1 Work values in the Greek context

Furnham, Petrides, Tsaousis, Pappas, & Garrod's, (2005) study compared the work values perceptions of 216 Greek and 314 UK workers. Based on the psychological literature, Furnham, Petrides, Tsaousis, Pappas, & Garrod (2005) defined work values as a class of motives that serve as standards or criteria to engender thought and action in the work setting. Accordingly they assessed

participants' work values using a 37 work aspects extension of the Mantech's (1983) Work Values Questionnaire and assumed that the intrinsic/extrinsic dichotomy will best describe the structure of the work values domain.

Factor analysis with varimax rotation on the collected data suggested an underlying structure of work values with four factors. Two of the factors (influence and advancement as well as autonomy and use of skills) clearly captured intrinsic work values while a third factor (financial and working conditions) was comprised almost exclusively of extrinsic work values. The fourth factor (work relationships) was not easily interpretable in terms of the intrinsic/extrinsic dichotomy. Greek workers placed the greatest importance on work values related to work relationships and intrinsic aspects of work (e.g., interesting work, respect from managers, trust, esteem in one's work, opportunities for growth and development, a chance to use one's skills and abilities). Conversely, they placed the least importance on extrinsic work values (e.g., avoiding fatigue, flexible benefits, feedback, clarity of work goals). Notwithstanding the significance of this study, as the sole empirical evidence of work values within the relatively unexplored Greek cultural context, relevant findings should be interpreted with caution since as shown in table 3.1 three of the four factors revealed low internal consistency (below the threshold value of .70).

3.5.2 Work values across generations within hospitality

Chen and Choi (2008) explored the work values of three generations (Boomers, X-ers and Millennials) of employees from the US hospitality sector (see table3.1). Conceptually, work values were broadly defined as the underlying preferences and beliefs that should be satisfied in people's career choices. In addition, following the dominant paradigm within the hospitality sector, work values were assessed with Super's (1970) Work Values Inventory. In a similar vein, principal component analysis with varimax rotation was performed on data scores obtained by 398 hospitality employees. The resulting structure comprised four, unrelated work value factors namely: comfort and security

values (e.g., security, supervisory relations, and economic returns), personal growth (e.g., achievement, creativity, and variety), professional growth (e.g., prestige, independence, management) and work environment (e.g., surroundings, associates, aesthetics).

Comparison of data scores among the three generational groups indicated that Boomers placed significantly more importance on the type of work values related to personal growth than did X-ers and Millennials. In addition, the Millennials mean score on the work environment type was significantly higher than those of Boomers and X-ers. Notably, the internal reliability of the work environment factor (.68) was below the threshold value of .70 and therefore the above findings may have to be considered with caution.

Gursoy, Chi & Karadag (2013) have recently extended the exploration of the topic within the US hospitality workforce. This team of scholars preferred to define work values in operational terms. In particular, work values were defined as the importance individuals place on certain outcomes related to attributes of work. Contrary to the tendency, evidenced in the previous chapter, of work values studies within hospitality research to rely on Super's (1970) Work Values Inventory for assessing the domain of work values, Gursoy, Chi & Karadag (2013), developed a new measure of work values. A series of focus group meetings generated 67 outcomes related to attributes of work, 25 of which were used to assess participants work values. Data scores were collected from 717 employees of a North American branded hotel chain with over 50 hotels owner operated, franchised and leased. Using the commonly employed method of principal component analysis with varimax rotation, they reported that a seven factor structure best fitted the data. The factors included, work centrality (e.g., job security), non-compliance (e.g., challenge), technology challenge (e.g., using latest technology makes my job easier), work-life balance (e.g., 'I will not sacrifice my leisure time for the company'), leadership (e.g., 'I work best when there is strong leadership'), power (e.g., 'I strive to be "in command" when I am working in a group') and recognition (e.g., 'They treat younger employees like kids').

Comparison of data scores among the three age-based cohorts (Boomers, X-ers and Millennials) illustrated significant differences in all underlying types of work value. Relative to older generations, Millennials placed significantly higher importance on non-compliance, leadership and recognition. By contrast, relative to younger generations Boomers placed significantly greater emphasis on power. In addition, X-ers mean score on technology challenge and work centrality was significantly higher than both Millennials and boomers. However, as previously with Chen & Choi caution needs to be taken when considering these findings because the internal consistency of the work-life balance (.64) was low (see table 3.1). Moreover, the leadership and recognition factors were underdetermined because they were comprised solely by two measured variables (see table 3.1). As explained earlier, methodologists have recommended that at least three to five measured variables representing each common factor or principal be included in a study (Fabrigar, Wegener, MacCallum & Stahan, 1999; MacCallum, Widaman, Zhang & Hong, 1999; Velicer & Fava, 1998).

3.5.3 Work values across generations of US workforce

Table 3.1 clearly illustrates that the evidence of work values across generations is mainly originated within a US cultural context. Within this body of the literature, Smola and Sutton's (2002) survey between Boomers & X-ers work values provided the first results. Participants were mainly workers from the manufacturing industry (35.3 per cent) and the Government/Military sector (23.5 per cent). Smola and Sutton (2002) conceptualised work values as expressions of values in the life domain of work. In particular, they defined general life values as what people believe to be fundamentally right or wrong and argued that "work values apply the definition of right and wrong to the work setting" (p.364). This view is clearly influenced by Meglino & Ravlin's (1998) organisational perspective on work values, analysed earlier (see section 2.1.3).

In operational terms, work values were assessed using Cherrington's (1980) questionnaire. Following Cherrington's original classification, they structured

generations' work value domain as a class of three work value factors namely, Desirability of Work Outcomes, Pride in Craftsmanship and Moral Importance of Work.

On a total of 20 significance tests, Smola and Sutton (2002) reported only 3 significant differences in work values between Boomers and X-ers. In particular, Gen X-ers revealed a significant higher desire to be promoted quickly than Boomers did. Also, Gen X-ers felt more strongly than Boomers that working hard makes one a better person whereas Boomers placed significantly more importance on "work should be one of the most important parts of a person life" than their counterparts. No significant differences were found in any work aspect related to the work value factor of Pride in Craftsmanship.

Notably, Smola and Sutton's (2002) reported generational differences were not related directly to the three factors proposed to structure the domain of work values. Instead, their findings were based on the results of comparison among the individual work aspects conceptualised to comprise each factor. This relates to the fact that two of the three work value factors exhibited unacceptable levels of internal consistency (see table 3.1). Thus, while Smola & Sutton (2002) reported the first evidence of generational differences in work values within the US context, the psychometric properties of the factors and the methodology employed limits the generalisability of the findings.

Contrary to Smola & Sutton's (2002) sample variability, Real, Mitnick & Maloney's (2010) study focused entirely on workers from the construction industry. However, inclusion of Millennials (1980-2000) work values in the investigation of the topic expanded Smola & Sutton's work.

Real, Mitnick & Maloney, as previously noted in Gursoy, Chi & Karadag (2013), indicated a preference to define work values in operational terms. In particular, work values were defined as the importance that construction workers placed on a selection of 23 work aspects from the Monitoring the Future study (MTF: Johnston, Bachman, O'Malley & Schulenberg, 2004). Principal component analysis with varimax rotation on data scores collected by 2581 construction

workers resulted, after omitting 2 work aspects², in a 2-factor structure (see table 3.1). The first factor, intrinsic job features, included 5 work aspects which indicated the extent to which workers believed it was important to have a job “which is interesting to do”, and “where you can see the results of what you do” with five items. The second factor, social aspects of work, comprised of 6 work aspects, which mainly explained sociability and status elements of work. These included having a job that “permits contact with a lot of people”, “most people look up to and respect”, and “gives you a chance to make friends”. Based on this structure, one significant difference reported among the three cohorts with Millennials construction workers scoring significantly higher than Boomers for intrinsic job features. Thus, Real, Mitnick & Maloney (2010) results partially validate popular claims of generational differences in work values.

Twenge, Campbell, Hoffman & Lance (2010) have conducted what is perhaps the most comprehensive analysis regarding inter-generational differences in work values. They analyzed data from a US panel survey of high school seniors from 1976, 1991 and 2006 (total N=16,507) in order to compare the Gen Me generation (1982-1999) with Generation X (1965-1981) and Boomers (1946-1964) at the same stage of life. By doing so, they avoided the potential confound between generational cohort effects and life-stage effects which is inherent in cross-sectional comparative studies.

Work values were broadly defined as the outcomes people desire and feel they should attain through work and were assessed, as previously Real, Mitnick & Maloney (2010), using 23 work aspects from the Monitoring the Future survey (Johnston, Bachman & O'Malley, 2006). Confirmatory Factor Analysis was used to examine the structure of work values. Based on a brief overview of the literature 5 factors specified: leisure (e.g., vacation time, freedom and independence in working), intrinsic (e.g., interesting work, results-oriented job), altruistic (e.g., being helpful, work that is worthwhile to society), social (e.g., friendly co-workers, working with people) and extrinsic (e.g., status, money).

² These work aspects were found to (a) be unrelated to any factor, (b) had high loadings on several factors, and/or (c) fail to meet the criteria for factor retention

The resulting model, after omitting 4 aspects with low psychometric properties, revealed a good fit to the data and all the factors of work values showed good internal reliability except intrinsic (.48) and social work values (.67).

However, these work value factors were included in the analysis illustrating that Gen Me placed significantly less emphasis on intrinsically and socially related work values relative to both GenX and Boomers. Gen Me appeared to be significantly less likely to rate higher leisure related work value compared with GenX and Boomers. Despite therefore the importance of the time-lag methodology which contrary to the previous studies that used measurements taken only at one point in time, compares people of the same age at different points in time, and the nationally representative sample, Twenge, Campbell, Hoffman & Lance's (2010) findings may be interpreted with caution.

3.5.4 Work values across generations of the Canadian workforce

The study of Lyons, Duxbury & Higgins (2005) is among the first endeavours that investigated the topic beyond the US context. Lyons and colleagues examined the data scores from 1,194 knowledge workers distinguished into 4 cohorts Matures (born prior to 1945), Boomers (1945-1964), X-ers (1965-1979) and Millennials (1980 -). At the time of the study, the Millennial generation had not yet entered the workforce in large numbers, therefore, it was reasoned that the most appropriate proxy would be university students, who represented the knowledge workers of the future. Within this context, 123 of the 1194 participants, were undergraduate students enrolled in a second-year course in human resources management. Students were offered a small grade bonus for their participation.

Work values were broadly defined as generalized beliefs about the desirability of various aspects of work (e.g., pay, autonomy, working conditions), and work-related outcomes (e.g., accomplishment, fulfilment, prestige). In addition, participants work values were assessed with 22 items from the Lyons's (2003) Work Value Scale. The exploratory factor analysis of data suggested that a five

factor structure best described the domain of participants work values: intrinsic, extrinsic, social, altruistic, and prestige (see table 3.1).

In particular, univariate F tests for the individual work values suggested that with the exception of extrinsic work values, significant generational differences exist on all types of work values. Further multivariate analysis of variance on collected data suggested that members of Generation X-ers found intrinsic work values to be significantly more important than Boomers and Millennials whereas altruistic work values appeared to be significantly more important to Matures than to X-ers and Millennials. Additionally, Millennials scored significantly higher on prestige and social work than the rest of the generational cohorts. Lyons, Duxbury & Higgins (2005) extended our understanding of the topic by providing evidence beyond the predominant US context and by further illustrating the effect of gender (discussed in section 3.4.7). However, the results concerning altruistic work values may have to be treated with caution because the relevant reliability coefficient was below the threshold value of .70.

3.5.5 Work values across generations of the New Zealand workforce

Influenced by the work of Lyons, Higgins, & Duxbury (2005), Cennamo & Gardner (2008), investigated the phenomenon in another English speaking country beyond the US context. In particular, they surveyed 504 workers from 3 age-based cohorts (Boomers, Generation X & Generation Y) at 8 organisations (construction, pharmaceutical distribution, information technology, recruitment, media and law firms), in New Zealand. In a similar vein to previously discussed studies (i.e., Gursoy, Chi & Karadag, 2013; Real, Mitnick & Maloney, 2010), Cennamo & Gardner (2008) defined work values solely in operational terms, as the importance that workers placed on a synthesis of 39 work aspects from Lyons's (2003) Work Values Scale and Elizur's (1984) Work Values Questionnaire.

Confirmatory factor analysis performed on the data scores of the 39 work aspects. Based on a brief overview of the literature, 6 factors specified as conceptualising the domain of work values: extrinsic (e.g., salary), intrinsic (e.g.,

meaningful work), status (e.g., having influence and responsibility), social (e.g., having a fair and considerate supervisor, pleasant co-workers), altruism (e.g., helping others) and freedom (e.g. work/life balance). The resulting model, after omitting 4 work aspects with low psychometric properties, indicated good fit to the data and all specified work value factors exhibited good internal reliability measures except freedom work values (.63) (see table 3.1).

Multivariate analysis of variance suggested that no significant differences existed among generational cohorts regarding four of the six factors of work values, including extrinsic, intrinsic, altruism and social work values. Generational cohorts differed significantly only on status and freedom work values. In particular, Boomers scored significantly lower on status work values than Gen X-ers and members of the Generation Y whereas the younger generational cohort rated freedom work values significantly lower than the older cohorts. Notwithstanding the significance of the above study, Cennamo & Gardner's (2008) results may be considered with caution because freedom work values, as discussed earlier, revealed low internal consistency.

3.5.6 Work values across generations in a multinational context

Cogin (2012) has recently investigated the topic in a multinational corporation. Her survey included employees from Australia, Singapore, China, Germany and the US. Interestingly, she advocated that one way to overcome the differences in start and end dates for each generation, is to omit from the samples those born on the cusp of a generation or in the years bridging two generations. Participants were therefore, stratified to the following cohorts: Traditionalists (1926–1944), Baby Boomers (1947–1963), Generation X (1966–1976), and Generation Y (1979–1994).

In addition, Cogin (2012) broadly defined work values as a construct that reflects the way in which people evaluate activities or outcomes and assessed the domain of work values using 12 work aspects from Blau & Rayn's (1997) Protestant Work Ethic scale. Comparison of mean work value scores revealed significant generational differences in three of the four dimensions: 'hard work',

'anti-leisure', and 'asceticism'. No significant differences were observed for the 'independence' dimension. In particular, findings suggested that Y-ers placed significantly less importance than X-ers, Boomers and Traditionalists did on the dimension of "anti-leisure" and "hard work". In the case of anti-leisure, the relevant difference between X-ers and Boomers and Traditionalists was also significant. In contrast, Y-ers placed significantly more emphasis than X-ers, Boomers and Traditionalist did on the dimension of "asceticism". Thus, Cugin's (2012) work contributes to the expansion of current literature on the topic by providing empirical evidence from a multinational context.

However, although the study reported that principal component analysis with varimax rotation confirmed the original four-factor structure of Blau & Rayn's (1997) Protestant Work Ethic scale, neither the pattern matrix of the factors nor their reliability coefficients were provided, making difficult to extract firm conclusion about the validity of the proposed work values structure.

3.5.7 The effect of gender on the relationship between work values and generational identity

While Real, Mitnick & Maloney's (2010) study expanded Smola & Sutton's work, with the addition of Millennials, the youngest generation in current workforce, Hansen & Leuty's (2012) study did the same with the addition of the Silent generation (1925-1945), the oldest members of current workforce. However, Hansen & Leuty's (2012) study placed greater emphasis on investigating the effect of gender on the relationship between work values and generational identities.

Drawing on the vocational psychology literature (i.e., Zytowski, 1994) they conceptually described work values as positive reinforcers of job satisfaction and assessed the concept accordingly using the Minnesota Importance Questionnaire (MIQ; Rounds, Henley, Dawis, Lofquist, & Weiss, 1981). The MIQ measured the importance that 1689 clients of a vocational clinic placed on 6 work reinforcers namely Achievement, Comfort, Status, Altruism, Safety and Autonomy based on a selection of 20 vocational needs.

Initial analyses were performed to examine gender differences between participants. The results supported earlier studies (i.e., Elizur, 1994; Manhardt, 1972) that reported gender differences in work values. In particular, women appeared to rate significantly higher than men regarding the majority of the vocational needs such as altruism, safety, activity, compensation, working conditions, morals, company policies and supervision while men scored significantly higher only the need for security. Taking into consideration these statistically significant results, Hansen & Leuty (2012) decided to conduct the analysis of work reinforcers separately for each gender. Within this context, no significant generational differences were observed for women on the 6 work reinforcers assessed by the Minnesota Importance Questionnaire (Rounds, Henley, Dawis, Lofquist, & Weiss, 1981). However, three significant generational differences were found for men with those from the Silent generation placing significantly lower importance on Comfort than men from Generation X. In contrast, Generation X men seemed to endorse significantly lower Status and Autonomy from both the men from the Silent and the Baby Boomer generation. Thus, Hansen & Leuty's (2010) work extended the extant literature on work values by providing valuable insights concerning the effect of gender on generations' work values.

Two previously discussed studies have also explored the effect of gender on the relationship between work values and generational identity. Lyons, Higgins, & Duxbury' (2005) (see section 3.5.4) findings indicated that four age-based cohorts of Canadian knowledge workers differed significantly on four of the five factors they were assessed on, namely intrinsic, social, altruistic, and prestige work values. The remaining factor, extrinsic work values, which included the work aspects of salary, security and benefits, revealed no significant gender by generation interaction. This outcome is in contrast to Hansen & Leuty's (2012) findings, which reported significant differences in compensation and salary. Nevertheless, Cennamo & Gardner (2008) (see section 3.5.5) found significant main gender effects among New Zealanders but no significant gender by generation interactions in the six work values factors that were assessed (extrinsic, intrinsic, status, social, altruism, and freedom).

Given the inconsistency in extant empirical evidence regarding the gender by generation interaction to work values of current workforce in three countries, new Zealand, Canada and US, there is a need for further research to determine whether a key demographic attribute such as gender, substantially affect the relationships between work values and generational identity.

3.6 Conclusion

While generational differences in today's workforce is commonly used in scholarly articles, as well as, in the popular press to denote a common, global phenomenon related to various work outcomes, the focus and the scope of the research, in terms of work values, is both varied and narrow. Until recently, most studies have focused on an amalgam of work value factors, based on data derived by employees working mostly in non-service businesses, in a typically, US cultural context.

Indeed, extant studies on the topic have placed an emphasis on generational cohorts represented by knowledge workers (Lyons, Duxbury & Higgins, 2005), employees from the pharmaceutical industry (Cennamo & Gardner, 2008), manufacturing workforce (Smola & Sutton, 2002) and or construction workers (Real, Mitnick, & Maloney, 2010). Few studies have examined service sector employees and particularly those working in hospitality organisations (i.e., Chen & Choi, 2008; Gursoy, Chi & Karadag, 2013), which is the focus of this study. Nevertheless, research in this area has largely originated in the US and some other English speaking countries such as New Zealand, Canada and Australia. Empirical examination of work values across generations within the European context is still scant – Cugin's, (2012) multinational study includes a sample from Germany along with samples from Australia, USA, China and Singapore – and for the Greek workforce, the context of this study, no scholarly published study was reported.

Furthermore, a challenge inherent to the evidence that support the existence of generational differences in work values is the lack of consistency in the range and variety of items that were included in the assessment of the construct.

Many studies employ idiosyncratic lists of work aspects and then derive work value factors inductively through data driven approaches such as principal component analysis with varimax rotation. Even where communalities do exist, differences in the wording of items make comparisons challenging. For instance, although many studies include work aspects related to recognition, the wording of items ranges from having a job where you “feel more worthwhile”, to “most people look up to and respect” and to “no one respects younger employees because they are young”. In the same vein, the wording related to the work aspect of pay ranges from “economic returns” to “good starting salary” to “earning a good deal of money”.

In addition, inductive approaches such as principle components analysis, require creative interpretation by researchers. Therefore, factors that are similar in nature can be interpreted and named differently. For instance, Gursoy, Chi, & Karadag’s, (2013) “work-life balance” work value factor includes items that Twenge, Campbell, Hoffman, & Lance, (2010) defined as “leisure” work values, while Cennamo & Gardner, (2008) included items related to work-life balance in their “freedom” work value factor. A strong theoretical argument could be made that freedom, leisure and work-life balance are distinct, though related constructs, but there appears to be substantial overlap in their measurement.

Nevertheless, although the methodological approach of adopting orthogonal rotations (i.e., varimax) for extracting the factor structure of work values can be useful in identifying more simple patterns of participants responses, it treats the derived factors as uncorrelated rather than considering their inter-relationships. Such an approach, as explained in the previous chapter, fundamentally atheoretical and ignores the existing body of literature concerning the structure of work values. Previous research (see section 2.5.3), has determined that work value factors such as those reported in Table 3.1, (i.e., extrinsic, intrinsic, social and prestige) are not independent to each other, but tend to be related to each other in a predictable manner. Illustrative example is the work of Chen and colleagues. In the study, discussed in this chapter (see section 3.5.2), Chen & Choi (2008) reported a four factor structure of work values. This model was

based on the analysis of data scores collected by sample of 398 hospitality employees. In a subsequent replication with the addition of data scores from students, discussed in the previous chapter (see section 2.6), Chen & Tesone, (2009) reported a three factor structure. Table 2.6 clearly shows that the employment of varimax rotation as a method for deriving the structure of work values, which allows factors to be unrelated, even when the sample of the first study included in the sample of the second study, produces results with no apparent connectivity.

In the light of the above, it could be argued that the focus on non-service businesses, in a typically US or at best Anglo- Saxon context, limits the generalisability of extant findings on the topic under investigation. In addition, the incorporation of varied and idiosyncratic collection of work aspects in work value factors derived without a solid theoretical foundation is making difficult to draw meaningful conclusions from the extant literature. Nevertheless, the low psychometric properties (i.e., reliability coefficients below .70, underdetermined factors comprised with less than three variables) of many of the documented work value factors, raises questions about the validity of the empirical basis of this body of the literature. As a result, extant research faces critical, conceptual and methodological issues, which leaves as problematic any judgments about the relationship between work values and generational identity.

CHAPTER 4

Research (Bacon, 2001) methodology

The previous part of the thesis has established the conceptual background of the study by determining the substantive meaning of values and generations within the life domain of work and by critically evaluating the state of research on work values within tourism and hospitality, as well as, across generations. This chapter presents the manner in which the conceptual ideas generated by a multidisciplinary field of learning can be operationalised to create insights regarding the nature of work values across the prevailing generations of today's Greek hotel sector workforce (research aim). The purpose is therefore to discuss the methodology adopted to address relevant objectives and questions, specified in the introductory chapter.

This chapter starts with a description of the structure of the Greek hotel sector in terms of both the supply and the demand side with emphasis on the human resource management practices. The following section relates each of the four research questions specified in the introductory chapter to a relevant hypothesis, in order to address more effectively the research objectives of the study. Special attention was also given to operationally define each of the main concepts under investigation. The subsequent section highlights the employment of triangulation as a strategy for conceptualising, collecting, analysing and evaluating data to test the formulated hypotheses. The sampling frame of the study follows and the development of the research instrument is

further discussed. The final section of this chapter describes the procedures used for analysing the data collection for each of the four research hypotheses.

4.1 Research context

The hotel sector was chosen as the context for examining the nature of work values across the prevailing generations of today's Greek workforce.

4.1.1 A historical overview of the Greek hotel sector

History dictates that Greeks represent a philoxenous nation *par excellence*, imposed by the unwritten law of "*xenia*". *Xenia* represents the sacred bond of hospitality between the "xenos" (stranger/guest) and the host. In practice, hospitality progress through three "gestures" (1) the admittance of the xenos into the house; (2) the bathing of the guest and his gift of a fresh change of clothes; and (3) the meal (see Roth, 1993). To illustrate the importance of providing properly hospitality to guests, Zeus, the father of the gods, became "Xenios Zeus" protector of hospitality and guests. The violation of this sacred bond, like the violation of the blood bond, could result in an outbreak of polluting rage that disrupts social order (Bacon, 2001). The Trojan War is a characteristic paradigm of such a disruption. The Achaeans (Greeks) waged it against the city of Troy after Paris of Troy abducted Helen while he was King Menelaus' guest, an action that clearly represented a violation of *xenia*.

In recent times and particularly after the restoration of democracy in 1974 the philoxenous Greece has witnessed a dramatic increase in the size of its hotel sector. Table 4.1 shows that the bed capacity of the Greek hotel sector has grown from 175.161 in 1974 to 763.668 in 2011. This phenomenon is directly related to the raise of tourists flows facilitated by the cultural, historical and natural heritage, the maturity of other Mediterranean destinations and the lower cost of living (Buhalis, 2001). Indeed, within a period of twenty years, from mid 1974 to 1994, the number of international tourist arrivals increased more than five times (see table 4.1). Since then, the number of international tourist arrivals is consistently greater than the number of people actually populate Greece (see

Table 4.1). Today, the Greek hotel sector comprises of 9.670 establishments and a capacity of 771.271 beds, representing one of the world's largest and most mature hotel sectors (SETE, 2013).

**Table 4.1 Population, international tourist arrivals & hotel bed capacity
(1974-2011)**

	Population	International Tourist Arrivals	Hotel Bed Capacity
1974	8.962.023	2.188.304	175.161
1975	9.046.542	3.172.968	185.275
1976	9.167.190	4.243.563	213.431
1977	9.308.479	4.597.354	231.797
1978	9.429.959	5.081.033	247.040
1979	9.548.262	5.798.360	265.550
1980	9.642.505	5.271.115	278.045
1981	9.729.350	5.577.109	285.860
1982	9.789.513	5.463.060	301.230
1983	9.846.627	5.258.372	317.920
1984	9.895.801	6.027.266	333.820
1985	9.934.294	7.039.428	348.170
1986	9.967.264	7.339.015	359.380
1987	10.000.644	8.053.052	375.370
1988	10.037.037	8.351.182	395.810
1989	10.089.550	8.540.962	423.790
1990	10.160.551	9.310.492	438.360
1991	10.256.282	8.271.258	459.300
1992	10.369.828	9.756.012	475.800
1993	10.465.534	9.913.267	499.606
1994	10.553.032	11.301.722	486.518
1995	10.634.391	10.658.114	534.703
1996	10.709.150	9.782.061	550.692
1997	10.776.531	10.588.489	560.957
1998	10.834.910	11.363.822	577.759
1999	10.882.607	10.970.665	584.714
2000	10.917.457	13.095.545	593.990
2001	10.949.953	13.019.202	608.104
2002	10.987.559	12.556.494	626.914
2003	11.023.532	13.969.393	644.898
2004	11.061.735	13.312.629	668.271
2005	11.103.929	14.388.182	682.050
2006	11.148.533	15.226.241	693.252
2007	11.192.849	16.165.265	700.933
2008	11.237.068	15.938.806	715.857
2009	11.282.751	14.914.537	732.279
2010	11.307.557	15.007.493	763.407
2011	11.300.025	16.427.247	763.668

Source: developed with data from the Hellenic Statistical Authority Association

4.1.2 The demand side of the

Table 4.2 depicts, based on the star classification scheme graded by the Hellenic Tourism Organization, that almost one out of six hotel establishments operating in the Greek hotel sector belongs to the luxury categories (4 & 5 stars). However, the number of hotel establishments per classification provides only a snapshot of the situation in the Greek hotel sector. The number of beds per star classification is also an important measure that needs to be taken into consideration. For instance, by combining the two measures one realises that while the 17 percent of hotel establishments belonged to the luxury category, their number of beds equals 40 percent of the total capacity in the Greek hotel sector (see table 4.2). This phenomenon is related to the large number of seaside resort hotels. As a case in point, table 4.2 presents that in the prefecture of Crete, while the amount of five stars hotel establishments was outnumbered 4 times by the 3 stars hotels, their capacity exceeded those of 3 stars hotels by almost 20 percent. Similarly, in the prefecture of Dodecanese, the bed capacity of 4 & 5 stars hotels, exceeded the capacity of the lower classification hotels by more than 30 percent although the lower classification hotels (1,2 & 3 stars) outnumber them five times (see table 4.2).

Another noticeable feature in the structure of the Greek hotel sector is that more than two thirds of the total room capacity is concentrated on four areas namely Central Greece, Macedonia, Crete and Dodecanese (see table 4.2). This phenomenon is directly linked to the great appeal of these destinations to international tourists. As clearly depicted in Figure 4.1, among the top 10 Greek airports, in international tourist arrivals for the year 2012, these four areas have attracted more than 70 percent of the tourists.

However, according to the association of Greek Tourism Enterprises, 56 percent of those arrivals were recorded during the months of July, August and September. Therefore, another critical characteristic of the Greek hotel sector is that the large number of seaside resorts and most of the lower classes hotel

establishments operate only during the summer months, mainly from May to September.

Table 4.2 Greek hotel capacity by category and prefecture, 2012

Prefecture		5*****	4****	3***	2**	1*	Total
Dodecanese	Units	57	164	251	497	71	1040
	Rooms	12438	28880	13898	16438	1291	72945
	Beds	26054	56068	26798	30826	2496	142242
Epirus	Units	8	58	135	142	30	373
	Rooms	662	1025	2849	2673	517	7726
	Beds	1397	2113	5591	5079	983	15163
Thessaly	Units	28	109	126	237	82	582
	Rooms	1282	2724	3658	5483	1536	14683
	Beds	2600	5421	7122	10451	2995	28589
Thrace	Units	5	10	41	37	15	108
	Rooms	500	521	1378	981	267	3647
	Beds	1006	1063	2664	1820	514	7067
Central Greece	Units	38	137	288	600	216	1279
	Rooms	6849	10581	12074	16070	3788	49362
	Beds	13149	19949	22447	29923	7183	92651
Crete	Units	84	233	329	673	210	1529
	Rooms	16950	24701	15486	24232	5734	87103
	Beds	34209	47776	29236	43616	10538	165375
Cyclades	Units	37	176	200	448	168	1029
	Rooms	3593	5705	5410	9746	2449	25090
	Beds	3593	10906	10490	18790	4795	48574
Macedonia	Units	46	119	375	566	489	1595
	Rooms	7032	9642	14485	14194	9676	55029
	Beds	14306	18961	28569	27490	18629	107955
Aegean Islands	Units	6	33	125	181	50	395
	Rooms	784	1616	4334	4242	739	11715
	Beds	1595	2968	8249	8001	1439	22252
Ionian Islands	Units	23	95	209	508	80	915
	Rooms	3691	9515	14175	17347	1664	46392
	Beds	7223	18114	27273	33204	3198	89012
Peloponnese	Units	20	118	249	345	93	825
	Rooms	4017	5249	7704	8579	1192	26741
	Beds	8547	10290	14889	16308	2357	52391
Total	Units	352	1252	2328	4234	1504	9670
	Rooms	55985	100159	95451	119985	28853	400433
	Beds	113679	193629	183328	225508	55127	771271

Source: Association of Hellenic Tourism Enterprises, Based on data by Hellenic Chamber of Hotels

While the operation of such a large number of hotels has greatly contributed to the regional development of Greece, particular in insular areas, most of these establishments are providing a non-diversified product that is merely based on the “sand, sea and sun” paradigm. Thus, this type of tourism product, as noted by Chalkiti & Sigala (2010), amplifies the seasonality of the tourism demand in these regions and decreases their competitiveness as destinations.

Figure 4.1 Top 10 Greek Airports in International Tourist Arrivals, 2012



Source: SETE, Greek Tourism: Facts & Figures 2013

4.1.3 The supply side

A large proportion of hotel sector workforce³, based on micro-data from the 2012 Labour Force Survey⁴ (LFS), comprised of workers aged between 15-30

³ The Hellenic Statistical Authority does not provide separate data for the hotel sector workforce instead the relevant index of the LFS, includes also those working in the restaurant sector

years of age (members of the Europeanised generation). Approximately, 23 percent of the sector workers were aged less than 30 years of age while the relevant percentage for the entire Greek workforce is almost half with 14 percent. In addition, almost one out of three workers in Greek hotels and restaurants were aged between 46 and 65 years of age (members of the Divided generation) whereas those aged between 31 and 45 years of age (members of the Metapolitefsi generation) represented the largest cohort with 45 percent.

In addition to a young workforce, the Greek hotel sector is characterised by a shortage of highly qualified, educated and specialised employees (Chalkiti & Sigala, 2010). For instance, based on the 2012 LFS data, nearly half of the Greek hotel sector workforce (44 per cent) had completed secondary education. An additional 33 per cent were primary school graduates; graduates from third-level technical-vocational institutions represent 16 per cent of the occupied workforce, while holders of university degrees reflected only the 6 per cent (including the 0.3 per cent of holders of postgraduate and doctoral titles) of the workforce.

The high seasonality of tourism activity during the summer period, as noted previously, also has implications for employment in the Greek hotel sector. The seasonal pattern of operation creates extended “dead” periods for employment. Employment as a seasonal hotel worker is considered, therefore, of limited job stability and security (Chalkiti & Sigala, 2010). Thus, there is a perceived poor image for this segment of the sector as providing a viable career path.

These aspects of work have resulted in the emergence of a “high mobility culture” in the Greek hotel sector, where staff recruitment and retention has been surprisingly understudied. Notably, the extant literature has placed greater emphasis on issues related to the sector’s environmental marketing strategies (; Leonidou, Leonidou, Fotiadis & Zeriti, 2013), implementation of customer

⁴ The Hellenic Statistical Authority (EL.STAT) conducts the Greek LFS. Since 1998, the LFS is conducted four times per year, in order to meet the standards set by Eurostat.

service management (Sigala, 2005), adoption of activity based costing (Pavlatos & Paggios, 2009) and management account practices (Makrigiannakis & Soteriades, 2007), internet practices (Zafiropoulos, Vrana, & Paschaloudis, 2006) and web sites evaluations (Panagopoulos et al, 2011). The significance of human capital in the various aspects of Greek tourism production, as noted by Papageorgiou, (2008), has been seriously overlooked.

4.1.4 Human resource management practices

The management of human resources in the Greek hotel sector can be viewed as two sides of the same coin. On the up side, the luxury hotel establishments, which are managed by professionals (Akrivos, Ladkin, & Reklitis, 2007), invest considerably on the selection and development of their personnel (Paraskevas, 2000). Within this segment of the sector, the high level of concentration combined with the low level of switching costs increases the level of competition (Skogland & Siguaw, 2004). However, due to the limited opportunity to develop competitive advantage through differentiation or cost leadership (Bowen & Shoemaker, 2003), luxury hotel establishments are reliant on their personnel to provide consistent service quality which in turns develops customer loyalty, a valuable advantage against competition.

On the down side, the lower class hotel establishments (1 to 3 stars) which are usually private owned and family operated (Akrivos, Ladkin & Reklitis, 2007; Buhalis & Murphy, 2012) appear to be particularly slow to move from personnel to proper human resource practices (Paraskevas, 2000). While these types of hotels were and continue to be great facilitators of regional development, they also provide many opportunities for “unregistered” employment (Fakiolas, 2003; Lazaridis & Wickens, 1999). In addition, the human resource practices in these types of hotels are mostly inadequate and concentrated to the basic “personnel” functions without formal selection and development practices (Paraskevas, 2000). Nevertheless, when it comes to recording, saving and processing organizational knowledge, smaller category hotels are still at infant steps (Chalkiti & Sigala, 2010). Instead, they prefer to invest the limited financial

resources to information intelligence, additions to amenities and renovations of the facilities and superstructure (Bastakis, Buhalis, & Butler, 2004). It is to some extent disappointing that these types of hotel establishments have not yet realised that the frequent staff inflow/outflow caused by the high rate of turnover in the sector contributes to indirect heavy costs associated with the process of re-distributing knowledge.

Given the major shift in the generational dominance that is currently occurring in the Greek hotel sector, the high mobility culture and the lack of evidence of academic literature pertaining to the sector's practices for recruiting and retaining quality workforce, a study to investigate and compare the perceptions of work values across the generations of today's workforce in the Greek hotel sector, seems timely. In an ongoing and ever-evolving effort to recruit and retain the best available talents, human resource professionals in the Greek hotel sector are seeking ways to adapt their practices to the characteristics of a multigenerational workforce. By examining, the work values across the prevailing generations of today's Greek hotel sector workforce a more detailed understanding of the degree of fit between the fundamental needs of each generation and the requirements of the specific work environment can be extracted. Human resource professionals and scholars can in turn develop specific, practical and, above all, cost-efficient practices that enhance inter-generational synergies and comfort in the workplace while still operating within the short term cost restraints imposed by the uncertainty in the socio-economic environment of Greece.

4.2 Research hypotheses

To more effectively answer the four questions specified to address the objectives of the study and fulfil the aim of the thesis (see figure 1.1), an endeavour was made to relate each of them with a relevant hypothesis (see figure 4.2).

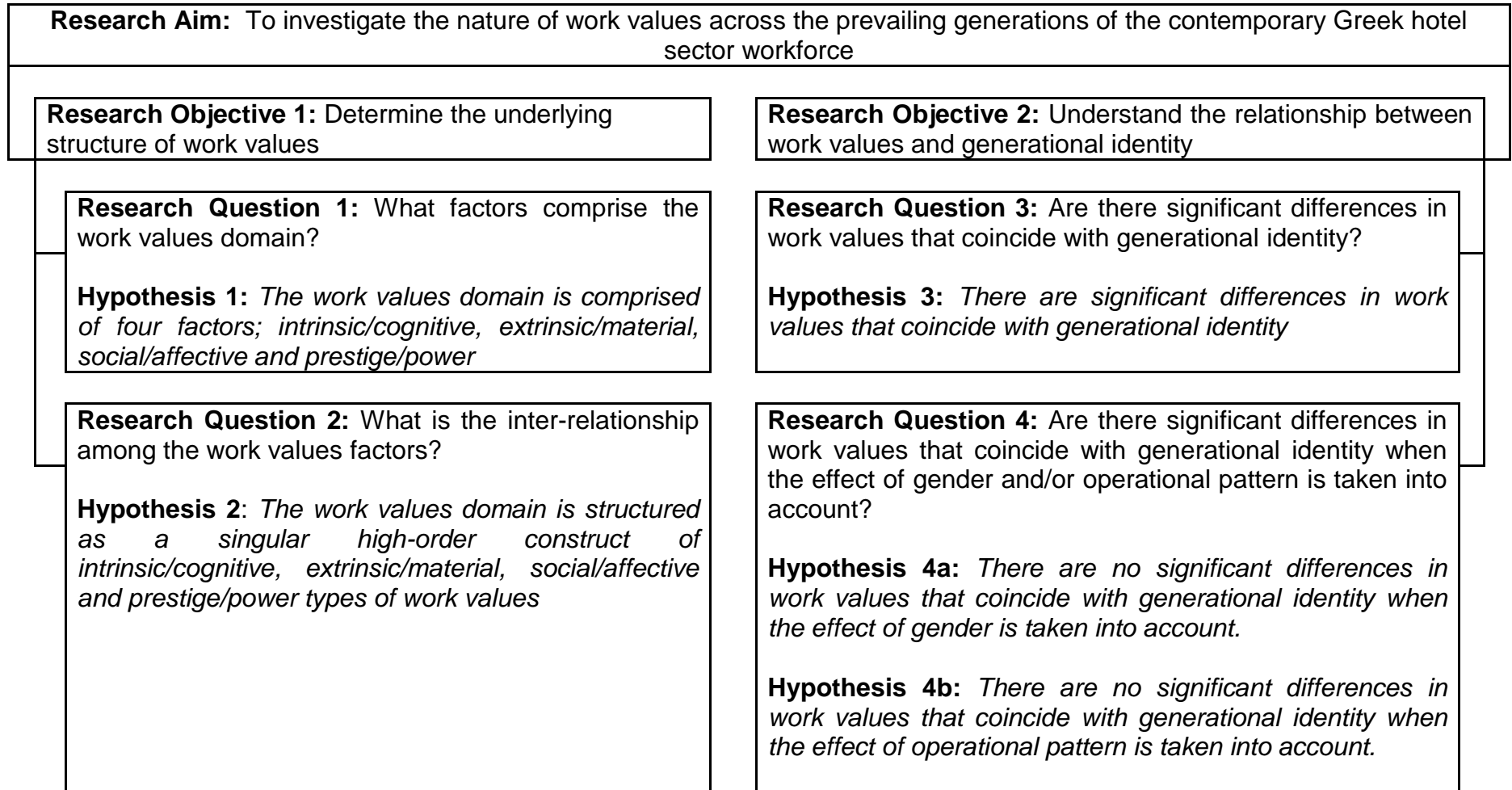
Addressing research question 1, which asks to determine the factors that comprise values related to the life domain of work, within the Greek hotel

sector, the review of the literature both within tourism & hospitality and across generations revealed an amalgam of conceptualisations. Despite the many different labels, the variability in the assessment and the limited convergence among the conceptualisations, it appears that there are four broad factors of work values recurrently mentioned in extant literature: (1) intrinsic or cognitive, (2) extrinsic or material (3) social or affective, and (4) prestige or power work values.

This classification largely overlaps classical distinctions such as intrinsic/extrinsic work values, which was not adequately manifested in the factor analytic results reported by Furnham, Petrides, Tsaousis, Pappas, & Garrod, (2005), the one extant study that examined Greek work values (see section 3.5.1) and is concurrent with the mainstream behavioural literature (i.e., Jin & Rounds, 2012; Lyons, Higgins, & Duxbury, 2010).

In addition, this approach corroborates the four factors of work values proposed by Ros, Schwartz & Surkiss (1999). Taking into consideration that the relevant factors were conceptualised by Ros, Schwartz & Surkiss, (1999) to represent expressions of Schwartz's (1992), recognised across countries, 4 high-order types of values, in the life domain of work, this typology is, thus, in agreement with the conceptual assumption of work values as projections of values in the life domain of work. Based on this reasoning and empirical evidence it is hypothesised that:

Figure 4.2 Research aim, objectives, questions & hypotheses



Source: Author

H1: The work values domain of the prevailing generations in the Greek hotel sector, will be comprised of four factors; intrinsic/cognitive, extrinsic/material, social/affective and prestige/power work values

Addressing research question 2, which focuses on the relationships among the hypothesised factors, the review of extant work values literature within tourism and hospitality (see section 2.6) and across generations (see section 3.5), indicated that the various work value factors were mostly conceived, as a class of separate constructs. Treating work values as a class of separate constructs, as shown in section 2.3, is in complete contradiction with the basic tenets of values theory, as articulated by Schwartz (1992). Schwartz's (1992) theoretically derived values conceptualisation as a high-ordered construct of inter-related motivational types, as noted earlier, is the most-up-to date and comprehensive attempt to define and conceptualise the domain of values. Furthermore, this model has been empirically validated across different cultures and occupations. Nevertheless, the tendency of extant literature to conceptualise work values as a class of unrelated constructs has caused little convergent among studies, deterring endeavours to extract firm conclusions regarding the structure of the work values domain within tourism and hospitality and/or across generations.

A notable exception in hospitality and tourism research of work values is the work of Chu (2008), which despite methodological and conceptual shortcomings, distinguishes by proposing a coherent high-order structure of related factors. This approach has gained much recognition within the mainstream work value literature. In particular, an increasing number of studies from a wide range of disciplines such as applied psychology (i.e., Ros, Schwartz & Surkiss, 1999), organisational behaviour (i.e., Lyons, Higgins, & Duxbury, 2010) and career assessment (Robinson & Bretz, 2008) have empirically validated that values in the life domain of work, as general life values, have a high-ordered coherent structure of four related factors. Based on this reasoning and empirical evidence it is hypothesised that:

H2: The work values domain will be structured as a singular high-order construct of intrinsic/cognitive, extrinsic/material, social/affective and prestige/power factors of work values.

Addressing research question 3, which asks whether there are significant differences in work values that coincide with generational identity, based on previous studies is a difficult task. Empirical findings in this area, as discussed in chapter 3, have been conflicting and generally inconclusive. For example, while some studies (i.e., Chen & Choi, 2008; Lyons, Higgins, & Duxbury, 2005; Real, Mitnick & Maloney, 2010), report significant generational differences in intrinsically related work values, others (i.e., Cennamo & Gardner, 2008; Twenge, Campbell, Hoffman, & Lance, 2010) found no matching evidence. Moreover, within the studies that reported significant generational differences in intrinsic work values further confusion seems to exist. For instance, Real, Mitnick & Maloney's, (2010) evidence suggested that Millennials placed significantly more emphasis than Boomers in intrinsic work values. However, Lyons, Higgins, & Duxbury (2005) found that Generation X placed significantly more emphasis in intrinsic work values than Boomers & Millennials and contrary to both studies, Chen & Choi's (2008) results indicated that Boomers scored significantly higher than Generation X and Millennials. It is apparent, therefore, that the contradiction in empirical findings is making it difficult to extract firm conclusions regarding the existence of substantial generational differences on work values.

However, the traditional theory of generational identity formation dictates that at times of rapid social changes, generational boundaries are created. In Greece, the post World War II society has been forged by radical historical circumstances that could have potentially, as discussed in section 3.4, shaped three prevalent age-based cohorts in current workforce, the Divided, the Metapolitefsi and the Europeanised. Generational theory also posits that each of these age-based cohort should have a distinct identity, which has been shaped by a unique and collective set of values that emerged as a "coming of age ritual" influenced by historical circumstances of that period. Therefore, it

may be expected that the prevalent generational cohorts in Greek hotel organisational context will exhibit significant differences in work values. Thus, the following hypothesis was determined:

H3: There are significant differences in work values that coincide with generational identity.

Addressing the first part of research question 4, which questions the effect of gender on the relationship between work values and generational identity, early studies have found significant gender-related differences in work values (Beutell & Brenner, 1986; Elizur, 1994; Manhardt, 1972; Mason, 1994). Moreover, Li, Liu & Wan (2008), Karakitapoglu, Aslan & Guney (2008) and Berings & Adriaenssens (2012) have recently documented findings supporting the notion of significant gender differences in work values in the Asian (China), American (USA) and European (Belgium) context, respectively. This phenomenon has also been reinforced in the hospitality context, as Wong & Chung (2003) reported significant work value differences between male and female hotel Chinese restaurant managers in Hong Kong.

However, if gender-related differences in work values are an established finding, they may confound the relationship between work values and generational identity. It is, therefore, essential to control the impact of gender when exploring the link between work values and generational identity in the Greek hotel workforce (research objective 2). Unfortunately, the few studies that explored this issue, as discussed in section 3.5.7, have provided conflicting findings. Therefore, there is insufficient evidence to surmise whether gender, a key demographic attribute in the Greek hotel workforce, would allow generational identity to predict work values. Thus, the following null hypothesis has been specified:

H4a: There are no significant differences in work values that coincide with generational identity when the effect of gender is taken into account.

Addressing the second part of research question 4, which questions the impact of operational pattern (seasonal vs. year-round hotels) on the relationship between work values and generational identity, relevant findings have, until recently, been lagging. Despite the fact that one of the main features of employment in the hotel sector, particularly in Greece, is its seasonal nature (Andriotis, & Vaughan, 2000; Lundberg, Gudmundson & Andersson, 2009) only few studies have explored seasonal workers' motivations and expectations towards work (Lee & Moreo, 2007; Lee-Ross, 1998, 1999; Lundberg, Gudmundson & Andersson, 2009; Matzler & Renzl, 2007). Within this literature, Matzler & Renzl's (2007) study in the Austrian hotel sector is the only comparative evidence. In particular, they documented a systematic difference in job satisfaction factors between seasonal and non-seasonal hotel workers. Taking into consideration that work values predict job satisfaction (Dawis, 2002; Rounds, 1990) it may therefore, be expected that a systematic difference in work values might also exist between seasonal and year-round workers. However, if such a phenomenon is evident, it may further confound the relationship between work values and generational identity. It is, therefore, essential to control the impact of operational pattern when exploring the link between work values and generational identity in the Greek hotel workforce (research objective 2). Unfortunately, to the best of the author's knowledge, there are no previous findings on this topic. Therefore, as in the case of gender, the paucity of evidence is making difficult to extract firm conclusions about the role of operational pattern, a key organisational attribute in the Greek hotel sector, in allowing generational identity to predict work values. Thus, the following null hypothesis has been specified:

H4b: There are no significant differences in work values that coincide with generational identity when the effect of operational pattern is taken into account.

4.3 Operational definitions of main concepts

Prior to discussing the strategy employed to test the previously specified hypotheses, it is essential to determine the manner in which each of the key examined concepts was operationalised. In terms of the work values concept, critical examination of the value literature, both in the broader general life domain and the narrower, study specific, life domain of work led to the conceptualisation of work values as expressions of values in the work setting. Within this context, the substantive meaning ascribed to the term was that of the implicit and explicit analogical preferences that individuals and groups use to evaluate the aspects of their work and make choices in selecting a work or staying in a work (see section 2.7). For the purpose of this study, work values were defined in operational terms as the importance that subjects place on a set of work aspects when selecting a potential job or deciding to remain in their job. It has to be noted that work aspects were utilised in lieu of work values, as discussed in section 2.7, to denote an umbrella term for describing all the modalities of selective direction in the work setting commonly associated with the definition of work values (i.e., motivations, needs, characteristics, outcomes).

Following the discussion in section 3.4, the generational timeline of the Greek hotel sector workforce, for the purpose of this study, was operationalised, into three generational cohorts. Subjects were categorised accordingly, on the basis of their year of birth. The three generational cohorts most prevalent in the Greek hotel sector workforce are as follow:

- the Divided generation, which includes those born between 1946 and 1966 (aged 66 to 46 at the time that the study was conducted),
- the Metapolitefsi generation, which includes those born between 1967 and 1981 (aged 45 to 31) and
- the Europeanised generation, which includes those born in 1982 and later (aged 30 and under)

In terms of seasonality in employment, Matzler & Renzl (2007; p.1096) emphasises that in tourism management seasonal jobs are broadly defined as “non-permanent and end at a specific time, typically when the seasonal peak is over” (Matzler & Renzl, 2007; p. 1096). In this study, seasonal workers, following Lee & Moreo’s (2007) study of seasonal workers job attitudes and satisfaction in Western South Dakota, US, are operationally defined as those who only worked during the summer resort operation period. Within this context, subjects were asked to identify the operation of the hotel as either year-round or seasonal. In a similar vein, subjects were asked to identify themselves as either male or female.

4.4 Research strategy

The strategy for collecting, conceptualising, analysing and evaluating data for testing the previously formulated hypotheses was drawn from triangulation. Hailing from topography and based on triangle analogy, triangulation was first adopted in navigation and surveying as a precise method to “locate an object’s exact position” (Jick, 1979: 602). Campbell & Fiske (1959) introduced the term into social research, as a means of examining convergent and discriminant validity of measures, in the development of a multi-method/multi-trait matrix. Since then, triangulation has been variously described (i.e., Cox & Hassard, 2005; Decrop, 1999; Downward & Mearman 2007; Oppermann, 2000; Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2010), as a process, a concept, a technique, a strategy, an approach or a method of looking at the same phenomenon or research question, using (see table 4.3):

(a) data collected at different times and situations or from different sources (data triangulation),

(b) more than one researchers to gather and/or evaluate data (investigator triangulation),

(c) multiple methods to collect and/or analyse data (methods triangulation) and

(d) multiple perspectives to interpret data (theoretical triangulation)

Table 4.3 Types of triangulation

Type	Description
Methodological triangulation	Where the assessment of the same topic under investigation is accomplished by the adoption of more than one research method. Within method triangulation reflects the usage of different varieties of the same method (quantitative or qualitative) whereas between method illustrates the utilization of different methods (qualitative and quantitative), in combination.
Data triangulation	Where the collection of information is performed using the same approach for different sets of data in order to verify or falsify generalisable trends detected in one data set.
Investigator triangulation	Where the interpretation or evaluation of the same body of data is conducted by making use of several scholars with a different backgrounds.
Interdisciplinary triangulation	Where the research process is informed not only by a single academic discipline (e.g. psychology) but by one or more other traditions
Multiple triangulation	Where the topic under investigation is explored by at least two of the other types of triangulation in combination

Source: Developed by Cox & Hassard, 2005; Decrop, 1999; Downward & Mearman 2004; Oppermann, 2000

Within this context, many tourism scholars from around the world, have adopted triangulation. For instance, Packer, McKercher & Yau (2007) in a Hong Kong based naturalistic inquiry utilised three investigators from different backgrounds to explore the factors related to participation in tourism, as perceived by people with disabilities. Others, such as Pearce, Tan & Schott (2004) combined in-depth and structured interviews with a survey to examine the tourism distribution channels in New Zealand.

Data were collected from channel members at different levels, namely the producers (e.g. accommodation and attraction providers), the consumers (in this case visitors to Wellington) and, to a lesser extent, different intermediaries

(inbound tour operators, wholesalers). In the Finish-Swedish borders, Prokkola (2007) investigated how cross-border regionalization contributed to regional tourism development using a combination of data from interviews with key informants, project documents, Internet homepages and travel brochures. McGehee & Meng (2006) made another attempt of triangulating the examination of US politicians' perceptions of the tourism industry. Data were collected using a questionnaire with both close and open-ended questions. Close-ended data were analysed with chi-square and Mann-Whitney tests whereas open-ended questions were content analysed by three different coders.

The adoption of triangulation is also evident in hotel-based studies. Stalcup & Pearson (2001) developed a conceptual model of turnover causes in US hotels using a preliminary qualitative test of the model on subject experts, a survey of hotel general managers, and interviews with a number of managers who had recently left hotel positions. In addition, Kumar, Kumar & de Grosbois's (2008) explored the technological capacity and innovation of Cuban hotels among other tourism organisations through a combination of personal interviews and a self-administered questionnaire. Data collected from a variety of sources involved in innovations projects such as general managers, directors and production managers and analysed with multiple regression technique. The data collected from interviews were used to provide richer context for the derived statistical results.

The implicit assumption in all of the above studies was that by utilising a combination of investigators, methods and data sources, triangulation has the potential to provide a more accurate and valid interpretation of the tourism phenomena. Indeed, Decrop (1999) suggested that triangulation "opens the way for richer and potentially more valid interpretations" (p.159). In the same vein, tourism and hospitality scholars Downward & Mearman (2004) argue that triangulation "can help to produce an understanding of the causes and consequences (events) associated with tourism as well as help to reinforce the validity of those insights" (p.120).

While, Decrop (1999), Downward & Mearman (2004) and others were promoting triangulation, Oppermann (2000, p.144) criticised the use of the term as a multi-method approach. "Multi-method approach should be referred to as multi-method approach as it is virtually impossible to obtain the 'truth', but the strength is in the addition and breadth of insight into a particular issue. The term triangulation, if people insist on using it, should be used only for data triangulation and possibly investigator triangulation and it is in data triangulation that this author sees its best application and its truest resemblance to the origins of the term triangulation". This view echoes the arguments of early critiques (e.g., Miller, 1983; Fielding & Fielding, 1986; Blaikie, 1991; Flick, 1992; McFee, 1992) that underlined the need to draw distinctions between triangulation and the mixing of qualitative and quantitative research methods. Current discussions in mixed method research (i.e., Hammersley, 2008; Wolf, 2010) exemplify the issue by pointing out that the combination of qualitative sources of data, or various quantitative methods in triangulations aims at convergence and can take place within and between disciplines rather than crossing the divide between them. By contrast, mixed method research is open to divergence because it preserves the quantitative-qualitative division even while seeking to bridge it.

In the light of the above, triangulation was simply meant to refer in this study to the following:

- (a) the conceptualisation of work values and generations through various disciplinary lenses (inter-disciplinary triangulation),
- (b) the assessment of work values with observations from three different samples (data triangulation),
- (c) the development of the underlying structure of work values with two statistical techniques (within method triangulation), and
- (d) the cross-examination of the derived structure by 3 scholars with different background (investigator triangulation).

In particular, as a form of inter-disciplinary triangulation, a number of academic disciplines informed the conceptual framework of the study. Work values were conceptualised as expressions of values in the workplace. This approach projects Schwartz's (1992) universal theory of general life values (social psychology) into the context of work as articulated by Ros, Schwartz & Surkiss (1999) and Elizur & Sagie (1999) (applied psychology) and recently validated by Lyons, Higgins, & Duxbury (2010) (organisational behaviour). In a similar vein, elaborating on Vincent's (2005) sociological view, the existential determination of generations is being considered as a cultural construction phenomenon. This conceptualisation links Mannheim's (1952) sociological approach of generations as actuality with Biggs & Lowenstein's (2011) psychological perspective of generational intelligence.

As a form of data triangulation, responses from different samples at different times were collected using the same work values scale. During the fall of 2011, the scale developed for the purpose of the study, was first distributed to undergraduate students enrolled at tourism management departments across Greece. The data scores collected from students served as a pilot study. Then, during the first quarter of 2012, a survey was conducted, using the same scale, to luxury (4 & 5 stars) hotels with a year-round operational pattern in the region of Makedonia, Greece. From the 350 questionnaires, 304 usable questionnaires were returned (86% response rate). The data scores collected from the year-round hotel workers were analysed using exploratory factor analysis. The emergent factor structure was then subjected to confirmatory factor analysis using data scores collected from practitioner in seasonal hotels. The data scores from this sample were collected from a subsequent survey conducted during the second quarter of 2012 into luxury seasonal hotels in the same region. From the 350 questionnaires, 303 usable questionnaires were returned (86% response rate). Making use of alternative forms of factor analysis, both exploratory and confirmatory, secured within method triangulation (see table 4.3) to the derived underlying structure of work values (research aim 1). Nonetheless, three scholars were asked to attempt to replicate the resulted structure reflecting further investigator triangulation.

The procedure described above is a form of a multiple triangulation (see table 4.3) including all the approaches utilised by tourism and hospitality scholars in combination with the addition of inter-disciplinary triangulation.

4.5 Research samples

Testing the previously specified hypotheses requires a large and as representative as possible, sample of hotel workers, in terms of (a) generational cohorts (b) males and females and (c) seasonal and year-round. In order to ensure participating hotels provided enough questionnaires for meaningful analysis, it was determined to conduct a broad regional study focusing on hotels that were at least four stars and their capacity exceeded 150 rooms. This sampling frame has been adopted by relevant behavioural studies of hotel workers such as Davidson, Manning, Timo & Ryder's (2001) exploration of the structure of organisational climate in Australia.

Hotels classified as 1-3 stars were eliminated from the study because, as noted previously, they heavily rely "on unpaid labour from family members" (Bastakis, Buhalis & Butler, 2004; p.162) and their human resource practices are "inadequate and mostly concentrated on the basic "personnel" functions" (Paraskevas, 2000; p.242). Hotels in insular regions were also excluded from the study because their operation pattern is almost entirely seasonal (Chalkiti & Sigala, 2010). In addition, the size criterion (hotels with more than 150 rooms) has been used as a means of providing homogeneity among luxury hotels following Stalcup & Pearson's (2001) study of turnover intentions in US hotels.

Four peninsular regions matched the required profile, Epirus, Thrace, Macedonia and Central Greece. Both Epirus & Thrace were rejected because of the small number of 4-5 stars hotel establishments, 66 in Epirus and 15 in Thrace (see table 4.2). Between the two remaining regions, Central Greece and Macedonia, it was decided to conduct the study in the latter. This region encompasses a wide variety of sub-regions (see figure 4.3) and as shown in table 4.2, fulfilled the requirements regarding the number of 4-5 stars hotels. More importantly, the researcher would have been able to take advantage the

strong links⁵ with a number of “gatekeepers”, of luxury hotels in this region, people who provide and facilitate access for research (Okumus, Altinay & Roper, 2007).

Figure 4.3 Regions of Greece



Of the total 167 luxury hotels operating in the region of Macedonia (see appendix A), all together, 38 hotels fulfilled the criteria determined above (table 4.4). The eligible population of hotels for this study was identified using the online directory of the Hellenic Chamber of Hotels (HCH).

⁵ The researcher was a member of the Economic Chamber of Greece (2004 – 2008) as a human resource consultant and worked with many hotel organisations in Macedonia.

Table 4.4 Sample population of hotels

	Name	Type	Rooms	Beds	Operation	Class	Location
1	MELITON BEACH	Hotel	486	1203	May-October	5*****	Neos Marmaras
2	PALLINI BEACH	Hotel	485	999	April-October	4****	Kallithea
3	SITHONIA BEACH	Hotel	485	1135	April-October	5*****	Neos Marmaras
4	SANI BEACH	Hotel	467	903	April-October	4****	Sani
5	ATHOS PALACE	Hotel	414	863	April-October	4****	Kallithea
6	CAP SIS	Hotel	407	708	Year-round	4****	Thessaloniki
7	SIMANDRO BEACH	Hotel	367	734	April-October	5*****	Sani
8	OCEANIA CLUB	Hotel & Hotel Apart.	346	649	Year-round	5*****	Nea Moudania
9	KASSANDRA PALACE	Hotel	334	691	Year-round	5*****	Kriopigi
10	ARISTOTELES	Hotel	332	606	May-October	4****	Ouranopolis
11	MAKEDONIA PALACE	Hotel	287	530	Year-round	5*****	Thessaloniki
12	OLYMPIAN BAY	Hotel	272	524	May-October	4****	Leptokaria
13	GRAND HOTEL PALACE	Hotel	267	451	Year-round	5*****	Thessaloniki
14	POSEIDON PALACE	Hotel	254	524	Year-round	4****	Leptokaria
15	ALEXANDRA BEACH	Hotel	222	571	May-October	4****	Potos
16	ALEXANDROS	Hotel	219	436	May-October	5*****	Nea Roda
17	ALEXANDER THE GREAT	Hotel	216	410	April-October	4****	Kriopigi
18	ANTHEMUS SEA	Hotel	214	457	April-October	5*****	Nikiti
19	THE MET	Hotel	213	398	Year-round	5*****	Thessaloniki
20	MAKRYAMMOS	Hotel	206	402	April-October	4****	Makryamos
21	PORTO SANI	Hotel Apartments	196	299	April-October	5*****	Sani
22	HYATT REGENCY	Hotel	196	312	Year-round	5*****	Thessaloniki
23	POTIDEA PALACE	Hotel	193	464	April-October	4****	Agios Mamas
24	DION PALACE RESORT	Hotel	190	356	Year-round	4****	Gritsa
25	SANI BEACH CLUB	Hotel	186	391	April-October	5*****	Sani

table continues

Name	Type	Rooms	Beds	Operation	Class	Location
26 PORTES BEACH	Hotel	179	350	May-October	4****	Agios Mamas
27 ATHENA PALACE VILLAGE	Hotel	179	388	Year-round	4****	Nikiti
28 PORTO PALACE	Traditional hotel	178	362	Year-round	L'CLASS	Thessaloniki
HOLIDAY INN	Hotel	178	335	Year-round	5*****	Thessaloniki
29 THESSALONIKI						
30 MEDITERRANEAN VILLAGE	Hotel	177	388	Year-round	5*****	Paralia Kallitheas
31 PLATAMON PALACE	Hotel	177	338	Year-round	5*****	Platamonas
32 EAGLES PALACE	Hotel	176	364	April-October	5*****	Ouranopolis
33 THEOXENIA	Hotel	176	314	April-October	4****	Ouranopolis
34 BLUE DOLPHIN-SARGANI	Hotel	167	317	April-October	4****	Metamorfossi
35 PORTES MELATHRON	Hotel	164	300	April-October	4****	Agios Mamas
36 MENDI	Hotel	163	322	April-October	4****	Kalandra
37 THEOPHANO IMPERIAL	Hotel	155	355	Year-round	5*****	Kassandria
AEGEAN MELATHRON	Hotel	151	318	April-October	5*****	Kallithea
38						

Source: Developed with data from the Hellenic Chamber of Hotels

The data refer to 4 & 5 stars hotels, in excess of 150, operating in the region of Macedonia in the spring of 2012.

The Hellenic Statistical Authority uses this source to publish official statistics regarding the supply side of the Greek hotel sector. Nevertheless, the online directory of the (HCH) is the source most commonly used by scholars exploring the Greek hotel sector (i.e., Andriotis, 2006; Belou & Andronikidis, 2009; Leonidou, Leonidou, Fotiadis & Zeriti, 2013)

The procedure of contacting those hotels resembles the snowball technique. An initial round of contacts with various managers in luxury hotel establishments had taken place to secure at least one department manager as a contact person in each of the 38 hotels in the sample. This aimed to use those contacts as a reference to ease access to the “gatekeepers”. Over a period of three weeks an adequate number of contact persons were revealed, covering all the hotels in the sample. Subsequent contacts were made in person or by telephone to clarify the purpose of the study, and to underline the invaluable help they would be providing to the study by allowing collecting essential data.

In each case, a copy of the questionnaire was provided before the discussion took place. Contact persons were therefore informed about the content of the study and the affiliated academic institute prior to the discussion. During the conversation emphasis was placed on the importance of recruitment, engagement and retention practices in hotel management and the potential benefits of the study for hotel organisations. Almost half of the contacted persons asked for additional information and their requests were fully covered. The outcome of this endeavour was to secure the participation of 14 hotel establishments.

Having established the necessary access to distribute the questionnaire, a package of 50 questionnaires was delivered to each contact department manager for distribution to hotel workers. As an endeavour to avoid systematic variance and sampling errors/random fluctuations that could have possibly distorted survey findings, the researcher had been assured that participants would be randomly chosen and the completed questionnaires returned with anonymity.

All members of the workforce were invited to participate in this study, as a means of collecting sufficient information from different perspectives and to enhance statistical efficiency. Questionnaires were planned to be distributed as follows: 30 percent to those aged above 46, 45 percent to those aged between 45 and 31, and 25 percent to those aged 30 and less. This plan was based on the generational composition of the workforce, in Greek hotel sector, as previously discussed.

After a period of 10 days, a follow-up call was made to get informed about the procedure. Accordingly, an appointment scheduled during the following two weeks to collect completed questionnaires. This procedure lasted almost 4 months and 607 usable questionnaires were collected from the 700 administered, revealing an 86 percent response rate which compares favourably to those of other studies of work values across generations.

4.6 Research instrument

4.6.1 Challenges in assessing work values

A major challenge in the study of work values is to decide whether to develop a measure for assessing the construct or implement an existing one. As discussed in the literature review, a plethora of different measures exists, each assessing a number of work values types, based on a variety of work aspects. Despite the variation, the content of popular measures shares a high degree of overlap. Recently, Rounds & Armstrong (2005) compared the labels and/or the operational definitions across three popular measures; the Minnesota Importance Questionnaire (Rounds, Henley, Dawis, Lofquist, & Weiss, 1981), Ronen's (1994) taxonomy of Hofstede's values and Sverko's (1999) orientations of Nevil & Super's (1986) Values Scale. Their findings indicated that five factors of work values were expressed across the three assessments. These types assessed the importance of ability utilisation, autonomy, status (i.e., advancement, authority, recognition, status), altruism and work environment. Berings, De Fruyt & Bowen (2004) examined the content of four popular measures namely the Minnesota Importance Questionnaire (Rounds, Henley,

Dawis, Lofquist, & Weiss, 1981), Super's (1970) Work Values Inventory, Nevil & Super's (1986) Value Scale and Pryor's (1981) Work Aspects Preference Scale and found similarities in six work aspects namely, associates/coworkers, earnings/compensation, creativity, achievement and security.

While the above endeavours relied solely on the comparison of the labels and/or the operational definitions of popular measures, earlier work by Macnab & Fitzsimmons (1987) has already provided empirical evidence of convergent validity across four of these measures; the Minnesota Importance Questionnaire (Rounds, Henley, Dawis, Lofquist, & Weiss, 1981), Pryor's (1981) Work Aspects Preference Scale, Super's (1970) Work Values Inventory and Nevil & Super's (1986) Value Scale. Using a multi-trait/multi-method (MTMM) design they examined the relationship among eight work aspects (altruism, authority, co-worker, creativity, independence, prestige, security and work conditions), that had common labels or operational definitions across these scales. The Campbell and Fiske criteria and confirmatory factor analysis of the MTMM matrix demonstrated substantial convergent and discriminant validity. In particular, testing with confirmatory factor analysis on a series of models suggested that the eight work aspects were more important than the four methods for explaining the variance in the MTMM matrix. It was therefore, concluded that the four scales were measuring highly similar constructs. However, the fact that the adoption from contemporary scholars of Pryor's (1981) Work Aspects Preference Scale and Nevil & Super's (1986) Value Scale is scarce, limits the application of Macnab & Fitzsimmons (1987) findings in current work values research.

Leuty & Hansen (2011) addressed this limitation by providing up to date empirical evidence regarding the convergent validity of the Minnesota Importance Questionnaire (Rounds, Henley, Dawis, Lofquist, & Weiss, 1981). In addition, two measures, Pryor's (1981) Work Aspects Preference Scale and Nevil & Super's (1986) Value Scale, used in Macnab & Fitzsimmons' study, were replaced by other popular work values inventories such as Super's Work Values Inventory-Revised (SWVI-R: Zytowski, 2006) and Manhardt's (1972)

Work Values Inventory. The analysis revealed that neither of the measures under investigation fully captured the domains within the construct. Thus, although popular measures such as the Minnesota Importance Questionnaire (Rounds, Henley, Dawis, Lofquist, & Weiss, 1981), Super's (1970) Work Values Inventory, the SWVI-R, Nevil & Super's (1986) Value Scale, Pryor's (1981) Work Aspects Preference Scale and Manhardt's (1972) Work Values Inventory provide comprehensive coverage, as shown by early (i.e., Macnab & Fitzsimmons, 1987) and recent studies (i.e., Leuty & Hansen, 2011) none of the measures on its own covers the entire work values domain. In addition to the above findings, the fact that the majority of popular work values measures were developed many decades ago, raises questions regarding their relevance to today's changing work environment. Within this context, commentators argue that there is need for exploring the domain of work values with attributes beyond those covered by popular inventories (Jin & Rounds, 2012; Leuty & Hansen, 2012; Lyons, Higgins, & Duxbury, 2010); a challenge taken up by this study.

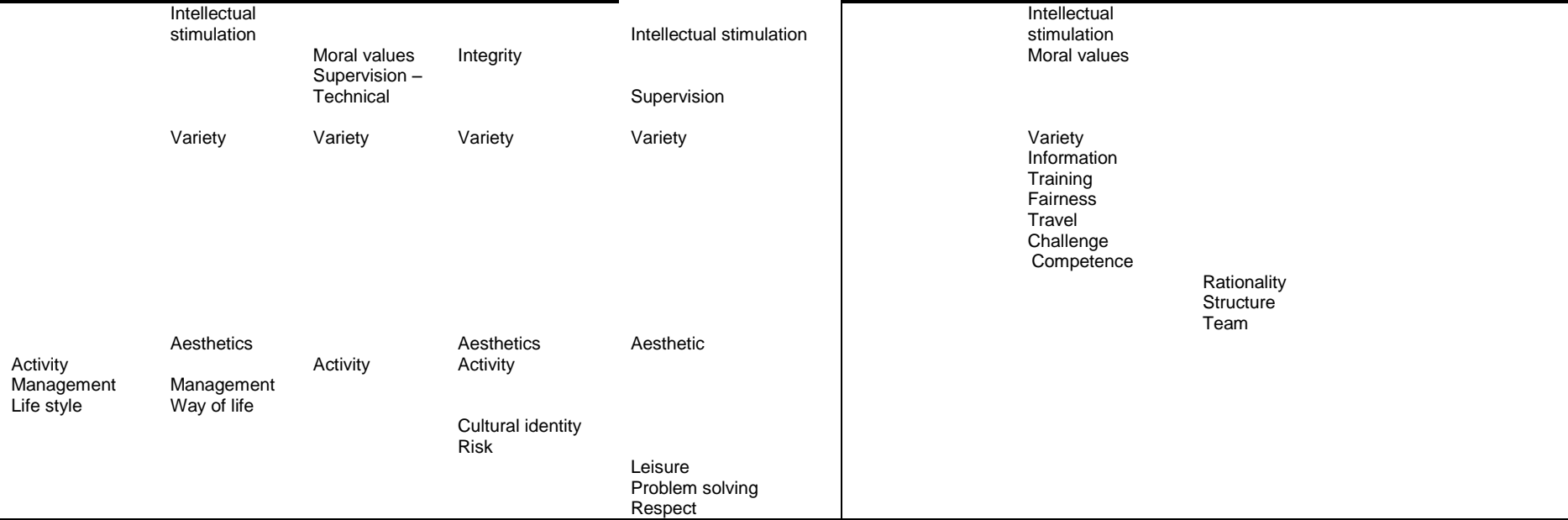
4.6.2 Selection of work values measures

In order to meet the above-discussed challenges, an endeavour was made to include new aspects of work that reflect modern realities of working. In particular, greater attention was placed on work aspects beyond those comprised in Macnab & Fitzsimmons's (1987) and Leuty & Hansen's (2012) studies (i.e., the MIQ, the SWVI, the SWVI-R, the VS, the WAPS and the MWVI).

The first selected inventory was the Work Values Questionnaire (WVQ; Elizur, 1984), one of the most influential measures in extant work values literature (Cennamo & Gardner, 2008; Petrides, Tsaousis, Pappas, & Garrod, 2005; Leuty & Hansen, 2011; Lyons, Higgins, & Duxbury, 2010). The reliability of the scale has been validated in many cultural contexts outside the Israeli (commonly examined by Elizur) such as Kuwait (Ali & Al-Kazemi, 2005), Netherlands Antilles (Van Vianen et al, 2007) and U.S.A., China, Korea, Taiwan, Germany, Holland, Hungary (Elizur, Borg, Hunt & Berg, 1991).

Table 4.5 Agreement of work values across popular and selected work values measures

WAPS (1981)	SWVI (1970)	Most cited			MWVI (1972)	WVQ (1984)	LWVS (2003)	Selected	
		MIQ (1981)	VS (1986)					TWVI (2007)	RRS-WVS (1999)
Co-workers Security Money	Associates Security Economic return	Advancement Co-workers Security Compensation	Advancement Security Economic reward	Advancement Associates Security Income	Advancement Colleagues Security Pay	Advancement Co-workers Security Salary	Competition Community Stability Earnings	Advancement Co-workers Security Salary	
Prestige	Prestige	Social Status Social services	Prestige	Social contribution Routine	Interesting work Status Social contribution Benefits Convenient hours	Interesting work Prestige Social contribution Benefits Hours of work Fulfilling work		Interesting work Prestige Social contribution	
			Relevance		Meaningful work Organisational Influence	Organisational Influence & decision making			
	Supervisory relationships	Supervisory relationships	Supervision - Human	Supervisory relationships Use of educ. background Recognition	Influence in work Supervisory relationships	Supportive supervisor Use of abilities			
		Use of abilities Recognition Working conditions Autonomy	Use of abilities	Working conditions Autonomy Creativity	Use of abilities Recognition Working conditions	Physical setting			
Surrounding	Surrounding		Work conditions				Autonomy Creativity Fun Authority	Autonomy Creativity Stress Avoidance	
Creativity	Creativity	Creativity	Creativity					Authority	
		Authority	Authority		Company Image Esteem				
			Interaction	Interaction			Innovation		
Independence	Achievement Independence	Achievement Independence Responsibility Company policies	Achievement	Accomplishment Independence Responsibility Clear duties	Accomplishment Independence Responsibility			Interaction	
Detachment Self-development Altruism			Personal development Altruism	Continued development		Balance Continuously learn Help people			



Source: developed by the author, the dotted lines illustrate the work aspects selected for inclusion in the measure of the study

The average number of work aspects per work values measure is 19

MWVI = Manhardt's (1972) Work Values Inventory

VS = Nevil & Super's (1986) Values Scale

MIQ = Minnesota Importance Questionnaire (Rounds, Henley, Dawis, Lofquist, & Weiss, 1981)

WVQ = Elizur's (1984) Work Values Questionnaire

TWVI = Bering's (2007) Twelve Work Values Inventory

LWVS = Lyons's (2003) Work Values Scale

Nevertheless, the content of Elizur's (1984) Work Values Questionnaire as shown in table 4.5, captures the majority of the work aspects included in the popular work values measures that were omitted from selection. Furthermore, Elizur's (1984) Work Values Questionnaire incorporates two unique work aspects, esteem (having a work where you are being recognised and valued for your skills and personality) and company image (having a work in an organisation that you are proud to work for).

Other selected work values inventories are the Work Values Scale of Ros, Schwartz & Surkiss (1999), and Lyons's (2003) Work Values Scale. While the former, as shown in table 4.5 comprises of the least amount of work aspects, the later includes the most.

Lyons's (2003) Work Values Scale was designed by a content analysis of 13 work value measures that had been used in prior research. Therefore, this is perhaps the most comprehensive work values measure in current literature. Nevertheless, both the Work Values Scale of Ros, Schwartz & Surkiss (1999) and Lyons's (2003) Work Values Scale, measure, as discussed in sections 2.5.3 and 2.5.4, four work values factors namely intrinsic, extrinsic, social and prestige. These factors are similar to those under testing in hypothesis 1 and 2. However, neither of the two work values scales was adopted on its own to assess the work values domain of Greek hotel workers because of their low frequency of use, and/or lack of use with samples from Greece or at least the European cultural context. By contrast, Bering's (2007) Twelve Work Values Inventory is among the few measures developed within a European context. Belgian psychologist, Dries Berings started the design of this instrument in 2001, when he asked 1747 employees in Flanders to think about their ideal work situation and to indicate on a five-point Likert scale how important they evaluated a set of 50 work characteristics in choosing an ideal job.

These characteristics were selected after a careful study, mainly referring to aspects of work covered in the Minnesota Importance Questionnaire (Rounds, Henley, Dawis, Lofquist, & Weiss, 1981), Pryor's (1981) Work Aspects Preference Scale, Super's (1970) Work Values Inventory, the Competing Value

Model, a comprehensive model of contrasting management values (Quinn, 1988; Quinn & Rohrbaugh, 1983), the literature about Individualism-Collectivism (Hofstede, 1980; Ramamoorthy & Carroll, 1998; Wagner, 1995), and customer service (Furnham & Coveney, 1996).

Principal component analysis of participants' scores with varimax rotation produced a pattern matrix of 12 distinct components with acceptable to excellent internal consistency (Cronbach alfa ranged from .67 to .85). Berings argued that these components were also a meaningful way of structuring work values as a class of "broad to prefer general characteristics of work" (p. Berings, De Fruyt & Bouwen, 2004). Subsequent studies such as Berings, De Fruyt, & Bouwen (2004), Berings, Grieten, Lambrechts, & De Witte (2008) and Berings & Adriaenssens (2012) have provided further evidence of the construct validity of this model in the Belgian context.

While Bering's (2007) Twelve Work Values Inventory shares many qualities with Pryor's (1981) Work Aspects Preference Scale, as shown in table 4.5, the introduction of this inventory extended the domain of work values. In particular, Bering's (2007) Twelve Work Values Inventory introduced many novel aspects of work such as rationality (preponderance of rationality, cerebrality over emotions), stability (stability and continuity in organization), structure (a well organised and structured workplace), team (accent on team-work and team spirit), community (work as a family with personal relationships) and innovation (an organisation responsive to new developments).

In the light of the above, the shared work aspects of the above discussed work values measures, Elizur's (1984) Work Values Questionnaire, the Work Values Scale of Ros, Schwartz & Surkiss (1999), Lyons's (2003) Work Values Scale and Bering's (2007) Twelve Work Values Inventory were selected for developing the assessment scale of this study.

4.6.3 The work values scale

Upon examination of table 4.5, it is apparent that there are 20 work aspects shared among the four selected work values measures (see table 4.6). Based on the hypothesised classification of the work values construct, six shared work aspects, respectively, represented intrinsic (advancement, autonomy, interesting work, fulfilling work, use of abilities and creativity) and extrinsic work values (benefits, earnings, convenient hours, stability and stress avoidance). In a similar vein, four shared work aspects, respectively, described prestige (authority, influence in work, influence in organisation and status) and social work values (colleagues, recognition, social contribution and supervisory relations). Durvasula, Netemeyer, Andrews, & Lysonski, (2006) emphasise that in multi-dimensional scales, it is preferred to have an equal number of items per scale dimension. Therefore, it was decided to operationalise each of the four conceptualised types of work values with five relevant work aspects.

Within this context, the intrinsically related work aspects of interesting and fulfilling work were synthesised into one. The label remained as “interest” although the relevant statement further incorporated the essence of fulfilment (see table 4.6). This procedure reduced effectively the number of intractably related work aspects to the required five. However, in the case of extrinsically related work aspects the required number of five, was accomplished by dropping a relevant aspect. As this study was focused on workers in 4-5 stars hotel establishments, a level of homogeneity was expected in their work conditions. Thus, it was reasoned to omit from inclusion in the assessment of work values that work aspect relating to work conditions (see table 4.6).

By contrast, the work aspects of social nature needed the inclusion of an additional aspect to achieve the required number of five. This aspect was interaction, a unique social work aspect included in the Work Values Scale of Ros, Schwartz & Surkiss (1999) was added (see table 4.6).

Table 4.6 Transformations of shared work aspects

-
- 1. Advancement:** Having a work that provides you the opportunity to promote your career
 WVQ: Chances for promotion
 Synthesised from RSS-WVS: Opportunities for occupational advancement
 L-WVS: Having the opportunity for **ADVANCEMENT** in your career
- 2. Authority :** Having a work where you organise & direct others
 Rephrased from RSS-WVS: Have the authority to make decisions over people
- 3. Autonomy:** Having a work that permits you to determine which aspects of your jobs are more or less important
 RSS-WVS: Work in which you are your own boss
 Synthesised from L-WVS: Having the **AUTONOMY** to make decisions about how you do your work & spend your time
 TWVI: Have the personal space, liberty and self determination to prioritise your own work
- 4. Benefits:** Having a work that provides you the opportunity to have special rewards that meet your personal needs (car lease, rent, children tuition fees, etc.)
 Adopted from WVQ: Benefits and social conditions (vacation, sick leave, pension)
 L-WVS L-WVS: Having **BENEFITS** (e.g., vacation pay, health/dental insurance, pension plan, etc.) that meet your personal needs
- 5. Colleagues:** Having a work where colleagues are keen in developing interpersonal relationships, friendships.
 WVQ: Fellow workers who are pleasant and agreeable
 Synthesised from RSS-WVS: Social contact with co-workers
 L-WVS: Working with agreeable and friendly **CO-WORKERS** with whom you could form friendships
 TWVI: Community - Have the opportunity at work to get to know your colleagues on a personal level
- 6. Decision making:** Having a work where you actively participate in the decision making process of the organisation
 Synthesised & WVQ: Influence in work
 relabelled from TWVI: Influence -Be a member of a major decision making organ at work

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- 7. Earnings:** Having a work that provides you the opportunity to earn a substantial income.
WVQ: Pay (the amount of money you receive)
Synthesised from RSS-WVS: Good salary & work conditions
L-WVS: Doing work that affords a good SALARY
TWVI: Opportunity to earn a lot of money
- 8. Recognition:** Having a work where recognition is given for a job well done (replaced by Esteem)
Adopted from WVQ: Recognition for doing a good job
L-WVS L-WVS: Having a work where RECOGNITION is given for a job well done
- 8. Esteem:** Having a work where you are being recognised and valued for your skills & personality
Rephrased from WVQ: You are valued as a person
- 9. Influence:** Having a work where your opinion affects organisational outcomes
Synthesised from WVQ: Influence in the organisation
L-WVS: Having the ability to influence organisational outcomes
- 10. Creativity:** A work with room for improvisation and experimentation (replaced by Innovation)
Adopted from L-WVS: Doing a work that involves CREATIVITY and original thought
TWVI TWVI: A work with room for improvisation and experimentation
- 10. Innovation:** Having a work in an organisation preoccupied with innovation and change
Adopted from TWVI: Having a work in an organisation preoccupied with innovation and change
- 11. Interaction:** Having a work that provides you the opportunity to daily interact with customers
Rephrased from RSS-WVS: Work with people
- 12. Interest:** Having a work that you find interesting and fulfilling
WVQ: Interesting and varied job/ and To do a complete and meaningful work
Synthesised from RSS-WVS: Interesting and varied job
L-WVS: Doing a work you find INTERESTING, exciting and engaging and/or you find personally FULFILLING

-
- 13. Organisation:** Having a work in an organization/hotel that you feel proud to work for.
Adopted from WVQ: To be employed by a company for which you are proud to work
- 14. Owner:** Having a work where the boss creates and maintains an atmosphere of mutual respect and personal invest among employees
Synthesised & relabelled from WVQ: Supervisor (a fair and considerate boss)
L-WVS: Working with a SUPERVISOR who is considerate and supportive
- 15. Schedule:** Having a work with convenient working hours.
WVQ: Convenient hours of work
Synthesised from L-WVS: having HOURS OF WORK that are convenient to your life
- 16. Contribution:** Having a work that enables you to help others and make a contribution to society.
WVQ: Contribution to society
Synthesised from RSS-WVS: Contributing to people and society
L-WVS: Doing a work that makes a helpful CONTRIBUTION to society; makes a difference
- 17. Stability:** Having a work that provides you with stability and continuity.
WVQ: Job security (permanent job)
Synthesised from RSS-WVS: Job security (permanent job, pension)
L-WVS: Having the assurance of JOB SECURITY
TWVI: Having stability and continuity in organisation
- 18. Status:** Having a job title that is looked up by others in the organization and society.
WVQ: Job status
Synthesised from RSS-WVS: prestigious highly valued job
L-WVS: Doing a work that is prestigious and is regarded highly by others
- 19. Stress avoidance:** Having a work with relaxed atmosphere that causes little pressure or stress.
L-WVS: Working in an environment that is lively and FUN
Adopted from TWVI: Having a work with relaxed atmosphere that provides little worry and stress
TWVI

20. Use of abilities: Having a work that allows you to use the skills and knowledge you have developed through your education and experience.

WVQ: Use of ability & knowledge in work

L-WVS: Doing a work that allows you to **USE** the **ABILITIES** you have developed through education and experience

Source: author,

In bold are the statement actually used in the assessment of work values,

WVQ: Work Values Questionnaire (Elizur, 1984), RSS-WVS: Work Values Survey (Ros, Schwartz & Surkiss, 1999), L-WVS: Work Values Survey (Lyons, 2003), TWVI: Twelve Work Values Inventory (Berings, 2007)

“Interaction’ with customers is a key work characteristic in hotels and more importantly, the quality of this task has a direct impact on the level of customer satisfaction and loyalty. In the same vein, “company image”, a unique work aspect of power content, included in Elizur’s (1984) Work Values Questionnaire, was further added (see table 4.6). This procedure resulted in the selection of 20 work aspects, classified as hypothesised into four types of work values. Each type of work values comprised of 5 work aspects. In addition, emphasis was placed to best capture the hotel work environment and the Greek cultural context.

Within this context, most of the statements were rephrased, other were relabelled and some were replaced (table 4.6). For instance, supportive supervision was relabelled to “owner”, as a means of more vividly capturing the Greek hotel business environment that mostly includes independently owned establishments or small group of hotels. In addition, esteem was preferred as a label for the shared social work aspect of recognition. This term encapsulates more closely the prominent Greek cultural value of “filotimo” (literally meaning the love of honour). Nevertheless, creativity, a shared work aspect with intrinsic nature was replaced by innovation, a unique work aspect with intrinsic content, selected by Bering’s (2007) Twelve Work Values Inventory. This replacement was based on comments received by a group of hotel managers that were asked to evaluate the content of the scale. According to views of managers view there is no room for improvisation and experimentation in their profession.

The 20 work aspects that comprised the work values scale, developed for the purpose of the study, are given in table 4.7, based on their hypothesised classification. Notably, the actual number of the selected work aspects corroborates to the average number of work aspects included in the 9 most cited work values measures, discussed above (see table 4.5). Nonetheless, the substantive content of the scale denotes a balance between the work aspects incorporated in traditional inventories and those included in contemporary measures.

Table 4.7 Work values scale – Hypothesised classification of work aspects

Type	Work aspect (description)
Intrinsic/ Cognitive	<p>WV01-Advancement (Having a work that provides you the opportunity to promote your career).</p> <p>WV03-Autonomy (Having a work that permits you to determine which aspects of your job are more or less important).</p> <p>WV10-Innovation (Having a work in an organization preoccupied with innovation and change).</p> <p>WV12-Interest (Having a work that you find interesting, exciting and engaging).</p> <p>WV20-Use abilities (Having a work that allows you to use the skills and knowledge you have developed through your education and experience).</p>
Extrinsic/ Instrumental	<p>WV04-Benefits (Having a work that provides you the opportunity to have special rewards that meet your personal needs (car lease, rent, tuition fees, etc)).</p> <p>WV07-Earnings (Having a work that provides you the opportunity to earn a substantial income).</p> <p>WV15-Schedule (Having a work with convenient working hours).</p> <p>WV17-Stability (Having a work that provides you with stability and continuity).</p> <p>WV19-Stress avoidance (Having a work with relaxed atmosphere that causes little pressure or stress).</p>
Social/ Affective	<p>WV05-Colleagues (Having a work where colleagues are keen in developing interpersonal relationships, friendships).</p> <p>WV08-Esteem (Having a work where you are being recognized and valued for your skills and personality).</p> <p>WV11-Interaction (Having a work that provides you with the opportunity to daily interact with customers).</p> <p>WV14-Owner (Having a work where the boss creates and maintains an atmosphere of mutual respect and personal invest among employees).</p> <p>WV16-Social Contribution (Having a work that enables you to help others and make a contribution to society).</p>
Prestige/ Power	<p>WV02-Authority (Having a work where you organize and direct the work of others).</p> <p>WV06-Decision making (Having a work where you actively participate in the organisation's decision-making process).</p> <p>WV09-Influence (Having a work where your opinion affects organizational outcomes).</p> <p>WV13-Organisation (Having a work in an organization that you feel proud to work for)</p> <p>WV18-Status (Having a job title that is looked up by others in the organization and society).</p>

Source: Author

4.6.4 Pilot testing – Work values scale

Prior to the distribution and collection of data from hotel workers, the developed work values inventory was also administered to undergraduate students, as a means of pilot study. It was reasoned that university students, particularly those in tourism management programs, are the most likely source of tomorrow's hotel workers. During the fall of 2011, 700 questionnaires were randomly distributed to the seven Departments of Tourism Management, in Technological Educational Institutes, across Greece. Questionnaires were completed anonymously and voluntarily. Data scores from 649 usable questionnaires were collected, illustrating a response rate of 92 percent.

The reliability analysis from data scores generated a .916 measure of Cronbach alpha coefficients. This value illustrates a high internal consistency among selected work aspects and homogeneity in the content of the scale (Litwin, 1995).

4.6.5 Format and layout of the questionnaire

The format and the layout of the questionnaire follows Dillman's (2000) suggestions. In particular, attention was given to make the instrument appealing, attractive, in order to stimulate participation, and at the same time facilitate respondent's visual perceptions of the instrument's concepts and its comprehension.

The length of the survey questionnaire (Appendix B) was 3 pages and the size of each sheet was A4. The layout of the survey instrument included high quality white sheets for every page and blue fonts in order to represent the colours of the Greek flag, adding therefore a sense of patriotism. The fonts were Trebuchet MS type which is easily readable for the Greek alphabet. Each page was numbered, including the front page cover, as a navigational path and was bordered for symmetry and similarity, providing a sense of belonging together.

The front page cover (first page) included a short, simple informative title "Work values across generations" and several graphic illustrations such as a logo for

confidentiality, a picture of Olympios Zeus the ancient god of hospitality, a map of Macedonia declaring geographical coverage, and the logo of the institution responsible for the survey. An informative part was also attempted to stimulate participation while elucidating the purpose of the survey and the significance for hotel organisations and employees. Additionally, the cover page determined the identity and contact details of the researcher and the supervisor for clarification reasons. Furthermore, a separate graphic illustration declared the intent of the researcher to donate 0,20 euro for every fully and correct completed questionnaire to the Children's Smile foundation (Appendix C).

The second page illustrated the work values scale. A small paragraph provided guidance as to the content of the questionnaire. Emphasis was placed on the fact that there are no right or wrong answers. Following Lyons, Higgins, & Duxbury's (2010) instructions, participants were asked to rate the degree to which each work outcome would be a "top priority" when selecting a potential job or deciding to remain in their job on a six-point scale (1-highly unlikely ... 6-highly likely). By capturing the relative priority that respondents place on work aspects in the context of selecting or staying in a job, the instrument integrates both the hierarchical nature of values (Schwartz, 1992) and the notion of value trade-offs in selecting job-related behaviours (Lyons, Higgins, & Duxbury, 2010). Furthermore, two English literature professionals first translated each of the 20 statements from English to Greek and each of the translated statements was then translated back from Greek to English, in accordance to, Weeks Swerissen & Belfrage's (2007) back translation approach. This allowed for correction of translation inconsistencies in the scale.

The final page presented 3 objective direct nominal descriptive questions. A single category dichotomous response was required for the questions related to gender (male or female) operational pattern (year-round or seasonal) while the third question asks to declare the period in which participants were born (generational cohorts). At the end of the page participants were encouraged to provide additional comments and further insights relevant to the study. Directions were also given about where to place the completed questionnaire.

4.6.6 Ethical considerations

While designing and implementing the research instrument emphasis was put on engaging in an appropriate ethical path of research conduct by protecting the interests of the institution, and of participating hotels and personnel. The first step was to adhere to the code of research ethics of the university. In addition, all hotel organisations as explained earlier were clearly informed about the purpose of the study, the manner in which the study will be conducted, and the usage of the results before providing access. Further reassurance was provided that corporate reputation will be treated with most respect and that full confidentiality would ensure that hotel identity remains anonymous. Participants were guaranteed that the questionnaire was designed to fully protect their anonymity and that collected information will be treated with confidentiality. Both the participating hotels, and the employees were given the opportunity of requesting the results upon completion.

4.7 Research analysis

A two-step factor analytic approach was undertaken to test the hypothesis 1 & 2 (see figure 4.2). This procedure addressed the first research objective which sought to determine the structure of work values in Greek hotel sector workforce. In particular, the data scores from the survey into seasonal hotels (n=303) were analysed using exploratory factor analysis and then the derived factor structure was subjected to confirmatory factor analysis based on data scores from the survey into year-round hotels (n=304).

Both samples were deemed sufficient in size, considering the sensitivity of the analytic procedures to sample size (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). For instance, the ratio of participants to measured variables to each sample, exceed 10 to 1, satisfying thus Everitt's (1975) and Nunally's (1978) recommendations, a view that is commonly shared in most statistical texts (e.g., Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). Furthermore, Fabrigar, Wegener, MacCallum & Strahan (1999) argued that the required sample size for performing factor analysis preferably should be above 200 participants.

Prior to testing the structure of the work values domain, two steps were taken to evaluate the sufficiency of the covariance matrix to be factor analyzed. First, inter-correlations among work value items were screened using Barlett's (1950) test of sphericity. The significant test statistic justified the exploration of latent factors value (chi-square=6.273,2 df=190, $p < 0.0001$). Second, Kaiser's (1970) measure of sampling adequacy was used to assess the variance attributable to the unique factors relative to that of the common factors. Using the criteria established by Kaiser (1970), the entire matrix produced a "marvelous" value of .926.

Once the data were deemed suitable for analysis, common factor analysis with principal axis factoring method, as applied in SPSS 17 platform, was used for extracting the work value factors from the first sub-sample, since it has the advantage of entailing no distributional assumptions (Fabrigar, Wegener, MacCallum & Strahan, 1999). The optimal number of factors was determined by applying Kaiser's (1970) criterion of eigenvalues greater than 1.0 and by examining the scree plot (Cattell, 1966). Oblique rotation (Direct oblimin, Delta=0) was applied, as the work values were expected to be inter-correlated (Fabrigar, Wegener, MacCallum and Strahan, 1999).

Following, Anderson & Gerbing's, (1988) two-step approach, the factor structure produced from the exploratory factor analysis, was subsequently used to generate two models of confirmatory factor analysis (measurement and structural). In the measurement model, the hypothesized relationships between the 16 work aspects and the derived first-order factors were examined to determine how well the relationships fitted the data (hypothesis 1). In the structural model, the focus was on the relationship between the first-order latent factors and one second-order latent factor—work values (hypothesis 2). The data scores from the second sub-sample were analyzed using maximum likelihood structural equation modelling (Bollen, 1989) in AMOS software. The goodness of fit of both models was assessed and compared against two theory-driven alternative models:

(1) The intrinsic/extrinsic distinction of work values, which was recently validated in tourism and hospitality research (i.e Wong & Liu, 2009) and further documented in Furnham, Petrides, Tsaousis, Pappas, & Garrod's (2005) study, the one extant research of work values within the Greek context.

(2) Elizur's (1984) trichotomous classification of cognitive, instrumental, and affective work values, which was validated within a multidisciplinary field of disciplines such as organisational behaviour (i.e., Elizur, Borg, Hunt & Berg, 1991), applied psychology (i.e., Elizur & Sagie, 1999) and managerial psychology (i.e., van Vianen et al, 2007).

Due to the sensitivity of the analysis to the sample size (Bollen, 1989), the relative chi-square statistic (χ^2/df ; Hoelter, 1983) was computed. The following absolute measures of fit were also employed: the Root Mean square Residual (RMR; Arbuckle & Wothke, 1999), the Goodness of Fit Index (GFI; Jöreskog & Sörbom, 1984) and the Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA; Browne & Cudeck, 1993). The fit of each model was compared to the null model (i.e. the model that assumes that the covariation among the indicators is due to chance), using two relative fit indices, namely the Non-Normed Fit Index (NNFI; Bentler & Bonett, 1980) and the Comparative Fit Index (CFI; Bentler, 1990). In addition, the models were compared against two information criteria, namely the Akaike Information Criterion (AIC; Akaike, 1974) and the Bayesian Information Criterion (BIC, Schwarz, 1978). Both criteria assess the information loss of the adopted model in relation to the true structure.

A one-way multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) was conducted to test the hypothesis that there are significant generational differences in work values (hypothesis 3, c.f., figure 4.2). The selection of MANOVA is based on the ability of this technique to analyze a dependence relationship represented as the differences in a set of dependent measures (in this case work values) across a series of groups formed by one or more categorical independent measures (in this case age-based cohorts) (Hair, et al, 2011). A statistical significant effect was obtained using the four most commonly used multivariate tests, Pillai's

criterion, Wilk's lambda, Hotelling' T^2 , and Roy's greatest characteristic root (see Hair, et al., 2011). A series of univariate (ANOVA) and follow-up post-hoc tests were undertaken to examine pair-wise differences between generational cohorts using Fisher's Least Square Difference test. LSD, uses t tests to perform all pairwise comparisons between group means at an alpha level of 0.05. The advantage of this test is that makes adjustment to the error rate for multiple comparisons (Hair, et al., 2011).

In addition, a one-way multivariate analysis of covariance (MANCOVA) was performed to test the null hypothesis that there are no significant generational differences in work values when the effect of gender and/or operational pattern (covariates) is taken into account (hypothesis 4, c.f., figure 4.2). The selection of MANCOVA was based on the ability of this technique to account for differences in the responses due to unique characteristics of the respondents (in this case gender and seasonality) (Hair, et al., 2011). The statistical significant effect was derived as above. In addition, measures of effect size (partial η^2) were also developed for gender, operational pattern, and generations to assess the respective percentages of the observed variance in work values that was explained by these independent variables.

CHAPTER 5

Results & Discussion

This chapter highlights the results of the analysis that was undertaken to fulfil the purpose of this study, which aimed to investigate the nature of work values across the prevailing generations of current Greek hotel sector workforce. Special attention was given to the underlying structure of work values (research objective 1) by distinguishing the factors that comprise the work values domain (research question 1) as well as the inter-relationships among the factors (research question 2). In addition, emphasis was placed on understanding the relationship between work values and generational identity (research objective 2) by exploring whether there are significant differences in work values that coincide with generational identity (research question 3) and whether this phenomenon is also evident when the effect of gender and/or operational pattern is taken into account (research question 4).

The chapter begins with a description of the sample. The second section addressing the first objective of the study describes the process of testing whether the hypothesized structure of work values (hypothesis 1 & 2, see figure 5.1) could be confirmed by the empirical observations of the sample. The results of the exploratory factor analysis and the subsequent confirmatory factor analysis are presented and relevant findings are further discussed.

The following section addressing the second objective of the study highlights the process of testing whether generational differences in work values do exist among sample members (hypothesis 3, see figure 4.2). The results of a series of multivariate tests (i.e., MANOVA) are provided, accompanied by the outcomes of a series of univariate (i.e., ANOVA) and follow-up post-hoc tests (i.e., LSD). Relevant findings with reference to each work value and in comparison to empirical evidence from the extant literature on work values across generations are subsequently discussed. Each generational cohort is analysed in turn with reference to their ranking order of importance and in comparison to the findings from Chen & Choi (2008) and Gursoy, Chi & Karadag (2013). As noted in chapter 4, these studies are the two extant researches that have documented findings of work values across generations of hospitality workforce.

The final part of this chapter further addressing the second objective of the study, tests the effect of gender and operational pattern on the observed generational differences in work values (hypothesis 4a & 4b, see figure 4.2). The results of a series of multivariate tests (MANCOVA) and independent sample t-tests are presented and relevant findings are further discussed.

5.1 Sample Characteristics

The total sample of this study comprised 607 hotel workers in seasonal and year round hotels at the region of Macedonia, classified at least as four-stars and in excess of 150 rooms. Table 5.1 presents a detailed stratification of the total sample in terms of the demographic (gender) and organisational (operational pattern) attributes of interest. The Divided generational cohort, was represented by 188 (31%) hotel workers whereas 141 hotel workers comprised the Europeanised generation. The most represented cohort in the sample was the Metapolitefsi generation with 278 (46%) hotel workers. Notably, the proportions for the participation of the three prevailing generational cohorts in the Greek hotel sector workforce, as discussed previously, was: members of the

Divided generation 30%, members of the Metapolitefsi generation 46% and members of the Europeanised generation 22%.

The generational composition of the sample was therefore approximately proportionate to the Greek hotel sector workforce. In addition, the participation of males in the hotel worker sample was 52.2 percent whereas 290 participants were women. Taking into consideration that the Greek hotel sector was comprised, at the time of the study⁶, of 56 percent males, males were slightly under-represented in this sample. Nevertheless, the sample was almost evenly divided between seasonal (304) and year round (303) workers.

Table 5.1 Sample profile

	D-ers			M-ers			EU-ers		
	Ma les	Fem ales	Tot al	Mal es	Fem ales	Tot al	Mal es	Fem ales	Tot al
Seasonal	29	69	98	78	56	134	46	26	72
Year Round	32	58	90	87	57	144	45	24	69
Total	61	127	188	165	113	278	91	50	141

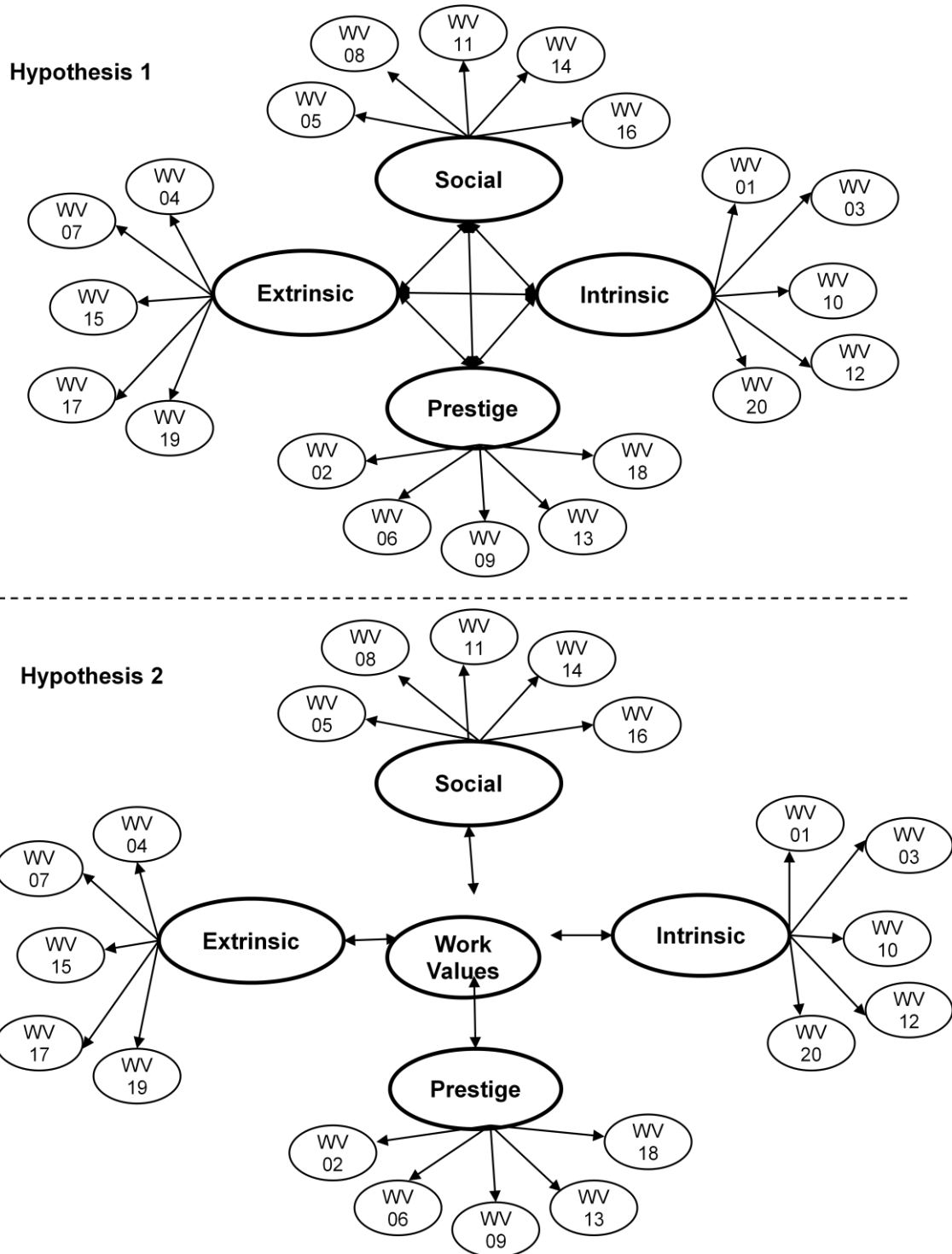
Note: D-ers= members of the Divided generation (born 1946-1966), M-ers= members of the Metapolitefsi generation (born 1967-1981) and EU-ers= members of the Europeanised generation (born 1982-1996).

5.2 Hypothesis (1&2) - The structure of work values

Addressing the first research objective regarding the structure of the work values domain in the Greek hotel sector, this part of the study examines whether or not the hypothesised structure as specified in hypothesis1 and hypothesis 2 (see figure 5.1) would be confirmed by the analysis of the empirical data. To accomplish this task, a two-step factor analytic approach with exploratory and subsequent confirmatory analysis has been adopted.

⁶ Microdata from the Greek Labour Force Survey for the year 2012

Figure 5.1 Hypothesised structure of work values



Note: (1) Intrinsic = (WV01) Advancement, (WV03) Autonomy, (WV10) Innovation, (WV12) Interest, (WV20) Use abilities, (2) Extrinsic = (WV04) Benefits, (WV07) Earnings, (WV15) Schedule, (WV17) Stability, (WV19) Stress avoidance, (3) Prestige = (WV02) Authority, (WV06) Decision making, (WV09) Influence, (WV18) Status and (WV13) Organisation (4) Social = (WV05) Colleagues, (WV11) Interaction, (WV16) Social Contribution, (WV08) Esteem and (WV14) Owner

5.2.1 Exploratory factor analysis

As shown in table 5.2, the exploratory factor analysis of data scores from the first sub-sample (year-round hotel workers) yielded a pattern matrix of five factors that explained more than 55 percent of the total variance. Beyond the fact that a structure of five work value factors, did not support the hypothesised four-factor structure (hypothesis 1, see figure 5.1), the level of some critical psychometric properties of the measured variables (in this case work aspects) indicated that this solution is unsatisfactory.

Table 5.2 Pattern matrix of work values with 20 work aspects (n=303)

Work aspects	Factor					Communalities
	1	2	3	4	5	
(WV08) Esteem	.813					.640
(WV14) Owner	.806					.640
(WV05) Colleagues	.668					.590
(WV11) Interaction	.657					.603
(WV15) Schedule	.432					.319
(WV12) Interest	.398					.388
(WV20) Use abilities		.783				.726
(WV01) Advancement		.768				.644
(WV10) Innovation		.628				.533
(WV03) Autonomy		.613				.524
(WV02) Authority			-.839			.668
(WV06) Decision making			-.837			.750
(WV13) Organisation			-.584			.578
(WV18) Status			-.515			.603
(WV17) Stability				.735		.570
(WV19) Stress avoidance				.639		.593
(WV07) Earnings				.614		.539
(WV04) Benefits				.613		.552
(WV16) Social Contribution					.507	.304
(WV09) Influence					.306	.391
Eigenvalue	8,0	1,8	1,3	1,1	1,0	
% variance	37,92	7,41	4,75	3,55	2,14	

Note: Loadings < .30 are not shown, Extraction Method: Principal Axis Factoring, Rotation method: Oblimin with Kaiser Normalization

For example, the fifth factor is comprised of only two work aspects while it has been suggested that at least 3 to 5 measured variables representing each common factor should be included in a study (see Fabrigar, Wegener, MacCallum & Stahan, 1999; MacCallum, Widaman, Zhang & Hong, 1999; Velicer & Fava, 1998). Moreover, the communalities of both “influence” and “social contribution”, the work aspects that comprised the fifth factor were below .40. This phenomenon was also evident to “schedule” and “interest” two work aspects that loaded substantially lower on the first factor than the threshold value of .50 (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). Because the inclusion of work aspects, with low communalities (i.e., below .40) can substantially distort the results (Fabrigar, Wegener, MacCallum & Stahan, 1999; MacCallum, Widaman, Zhang & Hong, 1999; Velicer & Fava, 1998), the four, above discussed, work aspects were omitted from further analysis. Thus, to achieve a more meaningful and interpretable factor structure a repeated analysis of the work values domain was performed based on the reduced set of work aspects (hereafter referred to as the Sixteen Work Values Scale, SWVS).

Notably, the repeated analysis yielded a four-factor structure, with each aspect loaded substantially on the designated factor (see table 5.3), partially validating hypothesis 1. In particular, the first factor contained four work aspects related to personal growth through work experiences, (i.e., innovation, using one’s abilities, autonomy, attachment), which clearly reflect intrinsic work values. In addition, the second factor was comprised of four work aspects related to tangible work outcomes (i.e., benefits, stress avoidance, earnings, stability), denoting extrinsic work values. Furthermore, the third factor included four work aspects that related to the pursuit of personal superiority and dominance over others in the workplace (i.e., authority, decision making, organization, status), corresponding to prestige work values. Nevertheless, the fourth factor included four work aspects that described emotions, feelings and relations to others in the workplace (i.e., owner, esteem, colleagues, interaction), indicating social work values. Therefore, an equal number of work aspects, comprised each factor of work values, as ideally proposed for multidimensional constructs (Durvasula, Netemeyer, Andrews, & Lysonski, 2006). More importantly, the

four-factor structure explained an improved 60.2 percentage of total variance. Hair et al., (2011) posit that, in social sciences, a solution that accounts for 60 percent of total variance may be considered as satisfactory.

Table 5.3 Pattern matrix of work values with 16 work aspects (n=303)

Work aspects	Factor				Communalities
	1	2	3	4	
Advancement	.801				.657
Use abilities	.782				.711
Innovation	.633				.524
Autonomy	.624				.510
Decision making		-.833			.743
Authority		-.833			.655
Organisation		-.596			.583
Status		-.545			.578
Esteem			.806		.633
Owner			.798		.635
Colleagues			.683		.605
Interaction			.672		.595
Stability				.774	.538
Benefits				.659	.558
Earnings				.656	.552
Stress avoidance				.613	.526
Eigenvalue	6,99	1,84	1,24	1,09	
% variance	41,22	9,03	5,52	4,23	
Cronbach α^*	.860	.821	.862	.873	

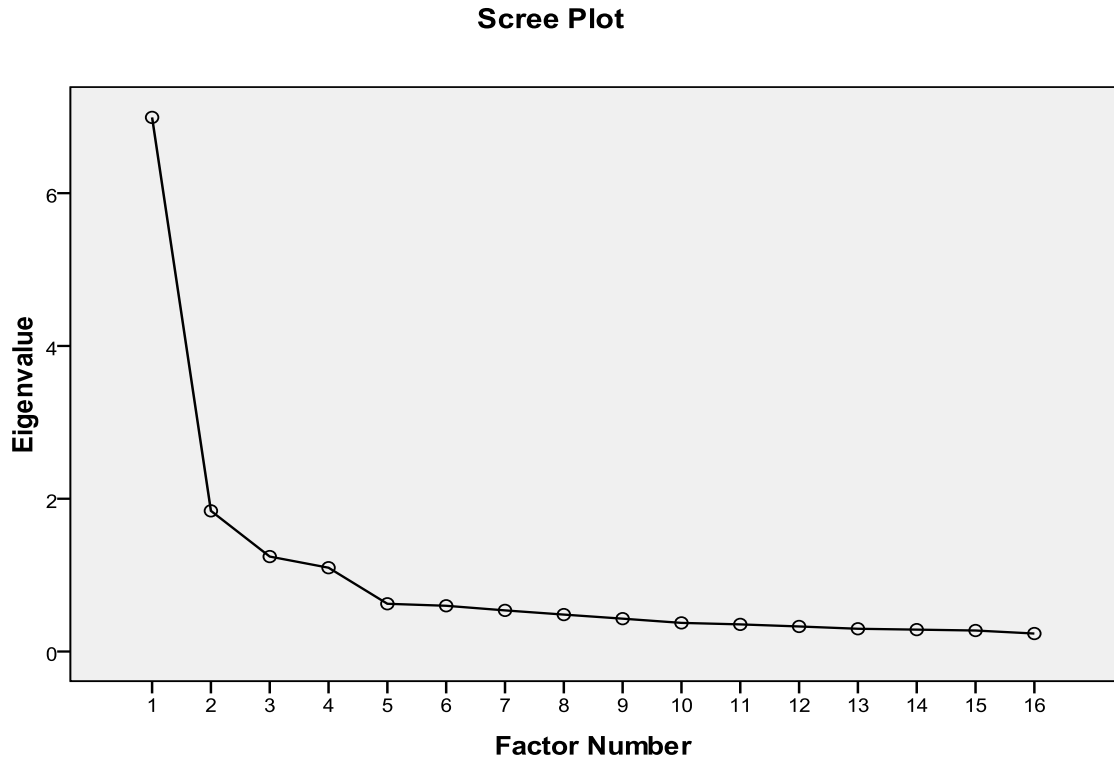
Note: Loadings < .30 are not shown, Extraction Method: Principal Axis Factoring, Rotation method: Oblimin with Kaiser Normalization

*The total scale Cronbach α was .913

The plotting of each factor's eigen values against the number of factors (scree test), a more objective approach, also revealed a breaking point in the fourth factor (figure 5.2). This observation, further suggests an adequate reproduction of the interrelationships among the work aspects in the initial correlation matrix (see table 5.4). Nevertheless, all four factors exhibited high levels of internal consistency, as each produced Cronbach's alpha coefficients exceeding .80. Nevertheless, all work aspects, loaded saliently (above .60) in exactly one factor of work values with their average communality scores exceeding .50,

providing additional evidence of convergent validity (Fabrigar, Wegener, MacCallum, & Stahan, 1999).

Figure 5.2 Scree plot of work values (16 work aspects)



Taking into consideration the above-exhibited psychometric properties, one might conclude that a stable work values factor structure emerged from the sample with work aspects appropriately scaled and free of biases. However, this is only partly true. As noted by Chu (2008), exploratory factor analysis is a data-driven approach for identifying, rather than confirming, an appropriate pattern matrix to explain the covariance among measured variables. Thus, as a means of data and method triangulation (see section 4.4) and an endeavour to substantiate the resultant pattern matrix, the derived factor structure, was further subjected to confirmatory factor analysis using the data-scores from the year-round hotel workers' sample

Table 5.4 Correlation Matrix - Interrelationships among work aspects

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16
1 Innovation																
2 Use abilities	.593**															
3 Advancement	.545**	.693**														
4 Autonomy	.545**	.569**	.560**													
5 Stress avoidance	.396**	.474**	.440**	.379**												
6 Stability	.290**	.359**	.341**	.365**	.470**											
7 Benefits	.438**	.445**	.469**	.400**	.552**	.567**										
8 Earnings	.356**	.466**	.407**	.489**	.575**	.540**	.506**									
9 Authority	.385**	.296**	.210**	.230**	.350**	.228**	.257**	.333**								
10 Decision making	.395**	.404**	.306**	.229**	.332**	.259**	.276**	.325**	.719**							
11 Organisation	.412**	.416**	.365**	.311**	.410**	.360**	.360**	.361**	.570**	.606**						
12 Status	.383**	.460**	.405**	.297**	.302**	.257**	.343**	.331**	.525**	.623**	.639**					
13 Owner	.314**	.417**	.354**	.293**	.307**	.238**	.336**	.325**	.286**	.388**	.354**	.444**				
14 Esteem	.284**	.316**	.248**	.224**	.342**	.278**	.353**	.272**	.325**	.384**	.395**	.397**	.657**			
15 Colleagues	.352**	.428**	.334**	.338**	.344**	.287**	.261**	.328**	.382**	.422**	.486**	.487**	.586**	.588**		
16 Interaction	.277**	.370**	.290**	.299**	.318**	.328**	.272**	.316**	.381**	.490**	.461**	.507**	.571**	.577**	.635**	

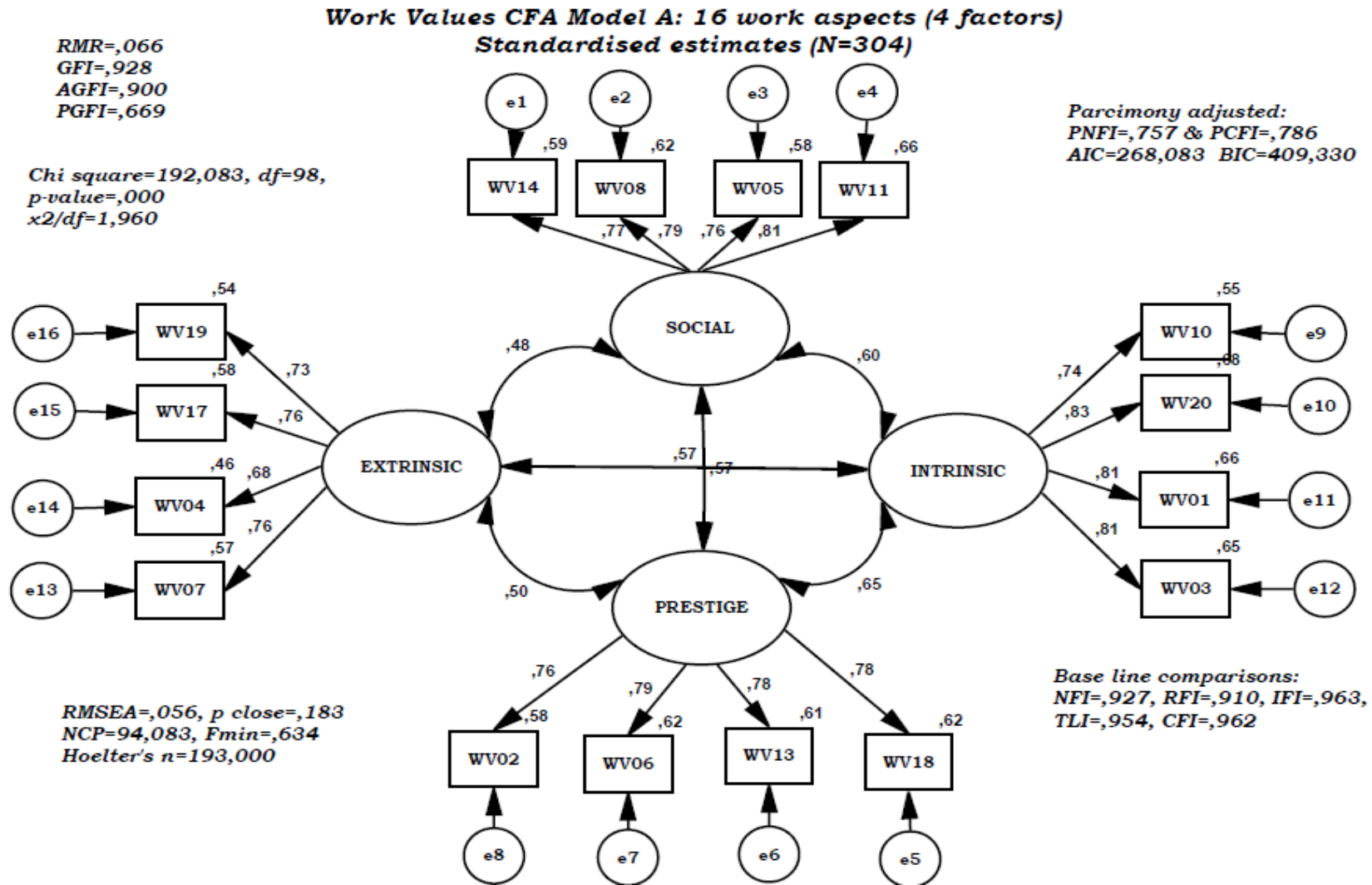
5.2.2 Confirmatory factor analysis

Two models (measurement and hierarchical/structural) were used in confirmatory factor analysis, following Anderson & Gebring's (1988) suggestion. From the one side, the analysis of the measurement model tested the hypothesised relationship between the four-first order factors to determine how well the relationships fitted the empirical observations (hypothesis 1, a graphical representation is presented in figure 5.1, upper side). From the other side, the hierarchical model, was focused on testing the relationship between the four first-order latent factors, intrinsic, extrinsic, prestige, and social, and a second-order latent factor that comprised the work values domain (hypothesis 2, a graphical representation is presented in figure 5.1, lower side).

The measurement model, model A was based on the results of the exploratory factor analysis and represented a four-factor structure of work values, each of which comprised of four work aspects. The results of the analysis, as presented in figure 5.3, indicated a good model fit as the relative chi square ($\chi^2/df= 1,96$) was below the threshold (up to 2.0) for acceptable fit (Hoelter, 1983).

Further absolute fit indices supported the notion of a good model fit. The Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA= 056) which indicates how well the model would fits the populations' covariance matrix (Byrne, 1998) was below the cut-off value of .06 (Hu and Bentler, 1999). In addition, the value of the Root Mean Square Residual (RMR), which reflects the square root difference between the residual of the sample covariance matrix and the hypothesised covariance model, was .066 with values as high as .08 considered as acceptable (Hu & Bentler, 1999). Nevertheless, the value of the GFI, which examines the variances and covariances accounted for by the model and indicates how closely the model comes to replicating the observed covariance matrix (Diamantopoulos & Siguaw, 2000) was .928 whereas the value of the AGFI, which adjusts the GFI based upon degrees of freedom (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007) was .900. It is generally accepted that values of .90 or greater indicate well fitting models (Kelloway, 1998).

Figure 5.3 Model A – The Sixteen Work Values Scale (SWVS)



In a similar vein, the values of both the relative fit indices, which compare the chi-square value of the model to the chi-square value of the null model, NFI=.927 and CFI=.962, where above the cut-off value of .90, providing additional support of good fit (Bentler & Bonnet, 1990). Nevertheless, all sixteen work aspects loaded adequately (above .50) on their designated work value factors and the reliability measures (Cronbach's alpha coefficients) of all four factors exceeded the value of .80 (intrinsic α =.87, extrinsic α =.82, prestige α =.86, social α =.86).

The above results confirm the reliability and the convergent validity of the derived four-factor structure, providing further support for Hypothesis 1. Thus, the relationship between the sixteen work aspects and the four work values factor, intrinsic (innovation, use abilities, advancement, autonomy), extrinsic (stress avoidance, stability, benefits, earnings), prestige (authority, decision making, organisation) and social (status, owner, esteem, colleagues, interaction) were confirmed by the data of the second subsample, proving that the derived structural pattern (from the exploratory factor analysis) was not substantiated by the data.

Table 5.5 Measurement invariance

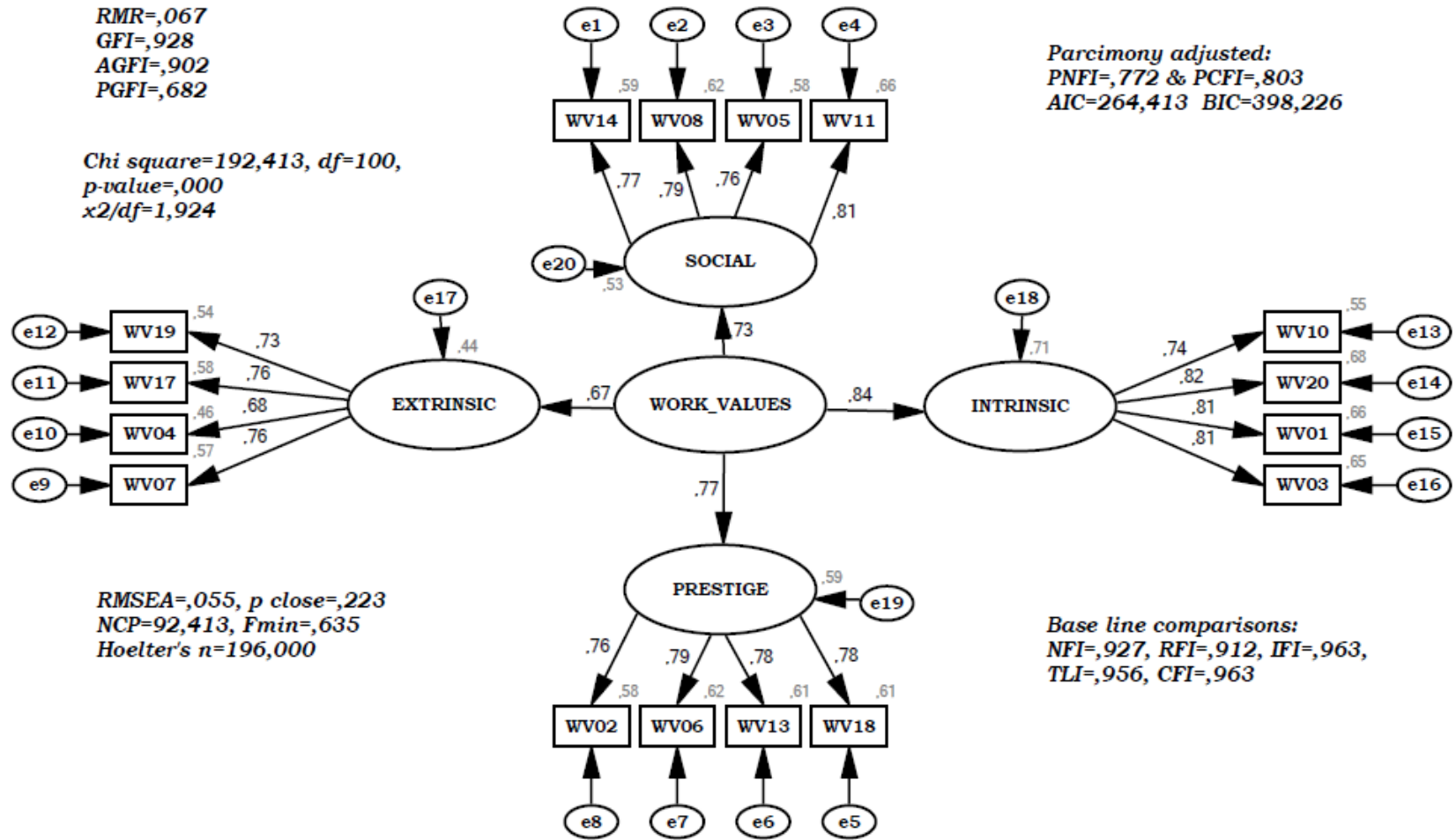
Attributes	Models						
	Constrained (fixed)		Unconstrained (free)		x ² difference		
	x ²	df	x ²	df	x ²	df	p value*
Men vs Women	429,2	196	439,4	208	10,2	12	.598
Seasonal vs year-round workers	417,9	196	423,5	208	5,6	12	.935

*level of significance $p < .05$

Potential measurement variance in the SWVS related to gender and operational pattern was tested using multiple groups confirmatory factor analysis. The fit of two nested models was compared: the model hypothesizing loadings equality among groups and the unconstrained model. The value of the chi square among the competing models, as evident in table 5.5 was not significant for either gender or operational pattern indicating measurement invariance.

Figure 5.4 Model B - A second-order factor structure of the SWVS

Work Values CFA - Model B Second Order: 16 work aspects (4 factors)
Standardised estimates (N=304)



Thus, the SWVS applies equally well to both men and women as well as seasonal and year-round hotel workers.

Keeping in mind that the second part of the first research objective, seeks to determine the relationship among the four work values factors (research question 2) a further analysis was conducted. In particular, the relationship between the four first-order latent factors (intrinsic, extrinsic, prestige, and social), and a second-order latent factor that comprised the work values domain (hypothesis 2), was also tested. The outcome of the analysis (see figure 5.4) revealed, as in the case of the measurement model, a good fit between the new model (Model B – structural) and the data. In particular, the relative chi square ($\chi^2/df= 1,92$) was below the threshold (up to 2.0) for acceptable fit (Hoelter, 1983) whilst the value of the RMSEA was .056 was below the cut-off value of .06 (Hu and Bentler, 1999). In addition, the value of the RMR was .067 with values as high as .08 considered as acceptable (Hu & Bentler, 1999). Furthermore, the values of both the GFI=.928 and the AGFI=.902 were greater than .90 indicating a well fitting model (Kelloway, 1998). In a similar vein, the values of both the relative fit indices, NFI= .927 and CFI=.962, were above the cut-off value of .90, providing additional support of good fit (Bentler & Bonnet, 1990).

However, when compared to the structural model (Model A) the results of Model B (hierarchical model) are slightly improved both in the absolute and relative fit measures as well as in the information criteria (see table 5.7). Thus, hypothesis 2 was also confirmed; the underlying structure of work values within the Greek hotel sector can be meaningfully represented as a high-order construct of intrinsic, extrinsic, social and prestige types of work values.

To ensure that Model B, the second order factor structure of the Sixteen Work values Scale, is the most appropriate model to represent the structure of Greek hotel workers' values domain, it was further compared against two theory-driven models. Table 5.6 provides the correspondence of work aspects to work value factors across the three models.

Table 5.6 Correspondence of work aspects to work values factors across models

Work aspects	Work value factors		
	Model B*	Model C**	Model D***
WV4-Benefits	Extrinsic	Instrumental	Extrinsic
WV7- Earnings	Extrinsic	Instrumental	Extrinsic
WV17-Stability	Extrinsic	Instrumental	Extrinsic
WV19-Stress avoidance	Extrinsic	Instrumental	Extrinsic
WV13-Organisation	Prestige	Cognitive	Extrinsic
WV18-Status	Prestige	Cognitive	Extrinsic
WV2-Authority	Prestige	Cognitive	Intrinsic
WV6-Decision making	Prestige	Cognitive	Intrinsic
WV1-Advancement	Intrinsic	Cognitive	Intrinsic
WV3-Autonomy	Intrinsic	Cognitive	Intrinsic
WV10-Innovation	Intrinsic	Cognitive	Intrinsic
WV20- Use abilities	Intrinsic	Cognitive	Intrinsic
WV5-Colleagues	Social	Affective	Extrinsic
WV8- Esteem	Social	Affective	Extrinsic
WV11-Interaction	Social	Affective	Extrinsic
WV14- Owner	Social	Affective	Extrinsic

* based on the SWVS classification,

** based on Elizur (1984),

*** developed from Furnham et al (2005) and Wong & Liu (2009)

Model C (figure 5.5) dichotomised the domain of work values, as assessed by the Sixteen Work values Scale, into aspects intrinsically and extrinsically related to work. This two-factor structure is theoretically related to the motivator–hygiene distinction (Amabile, Hill, Hennessey, & Tighe 1994; Furnham, Petrides, Tsaousis, Pappas, & Garrod, 2005) and is the most commonly utilised classification in work values research (Elizur, Borg, Hunt & Berg, 1991). The notion of the intrinsic/extrinsic distinction has been recently reinforced within tourism and hospitality research by Wong & Liu (2009) (see section 2.6 and table 2.6). Nevertheless, in the one extant study of work values within the Greek context Furnham, Petrides, Tsaousis, Pappas, & Garrod (2005), documented a factor structure that partially captured the intrinsic/extrinsic distinction (see section 3.5.1).

By contrast, Model D (figure 5.6) categorised the work values domain as assessed by the Sixteen Work Values Scale into three work value factors based on Elizur's (1984) modality facet (see section 2.5.2). Elizur (1984) has challenged the adequacy of the intrinsic/extrinsic classification to cover the breadth of the domain by theoretically developing a facet with three types of work values with cognitive, instrumental, and affective aspects of work. This model has been empirically validated across many countries (i.e., Israel, U.S.A., China, Korea, Taiwan, Germany, Holland, Hungary) and disciplines such as organisational behaviour, applied and managerial psychology (Elizur, Borg, Hunt & Berg, 1991; Elizur & Sagie, 1999; Van Vianen et al, 2007).

As shown in table 5.7, the indices of absolute and relative fit indicated that neither Model C nor Model D adequately fitted the data. The relative chi-square value in both models was above the threshold (up to 2.0) for acceptable fit (Hoelter, 1983). Notably, the values of the RMSEA were also above the cut-off value of .06 (Hu and Bentler, 1999) whereas the RMR index exceeded the limit of .08 considered as acceptable (Hu & Bentler, 1999). In addition, the values of the GFI and the AGFI failed to reach the level of .90, which is generally accepted as indicating well fitting models (Kelloway, 1998).

Figure 5.5 Model C – An intrinsic/extrinsic dichotomy of the SWVS

*Work Values CFA Model C: 16 work aspects (2 factors)
Standardised estimates (N=304)*

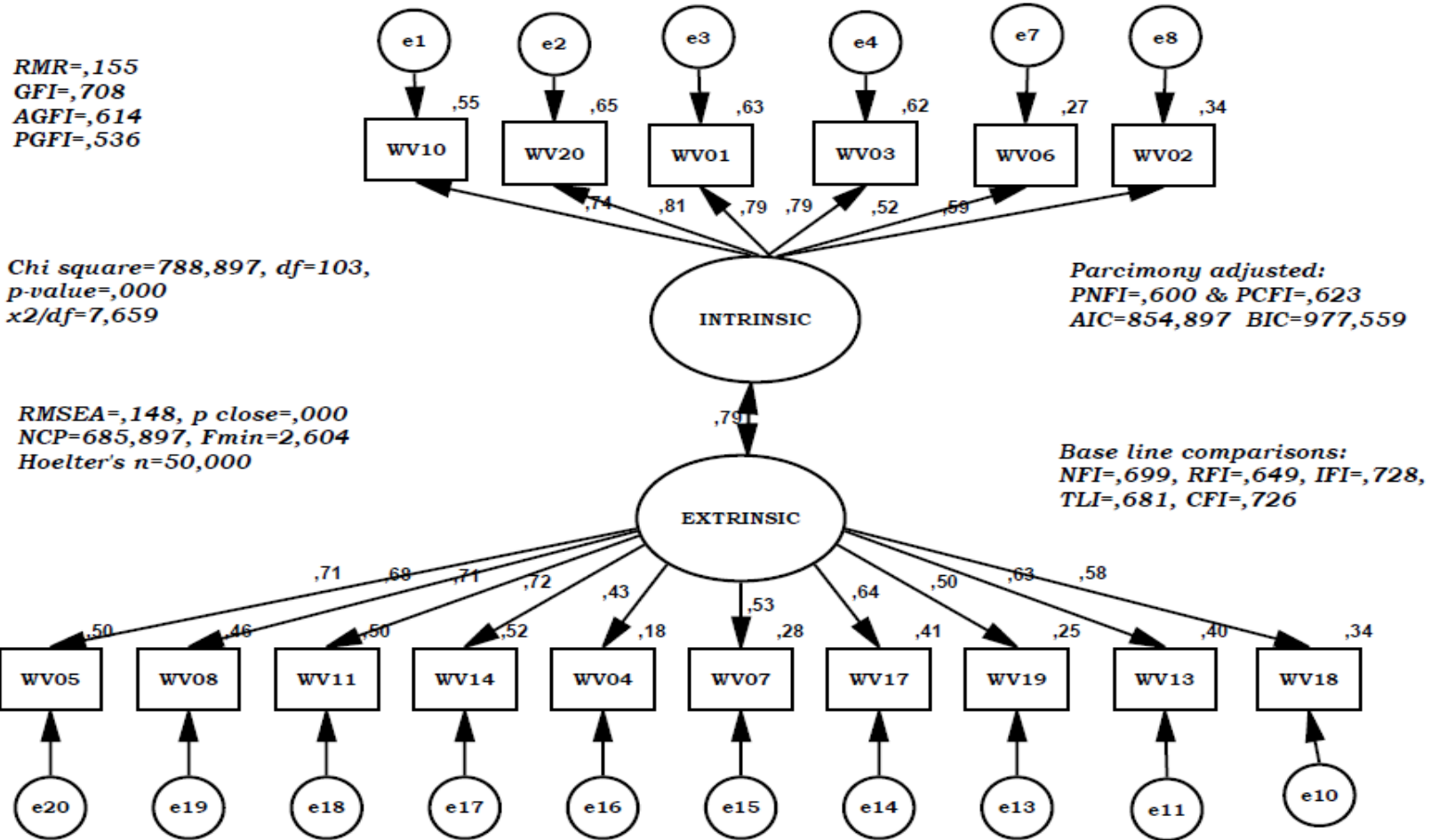


Figure 5.6 Model D – A cognitive, affective, instrumental trichotomy of the SWVS

*Work Values CFA Model D: 16 work aspects (3 factors)
Standardised estimates (N=304)*

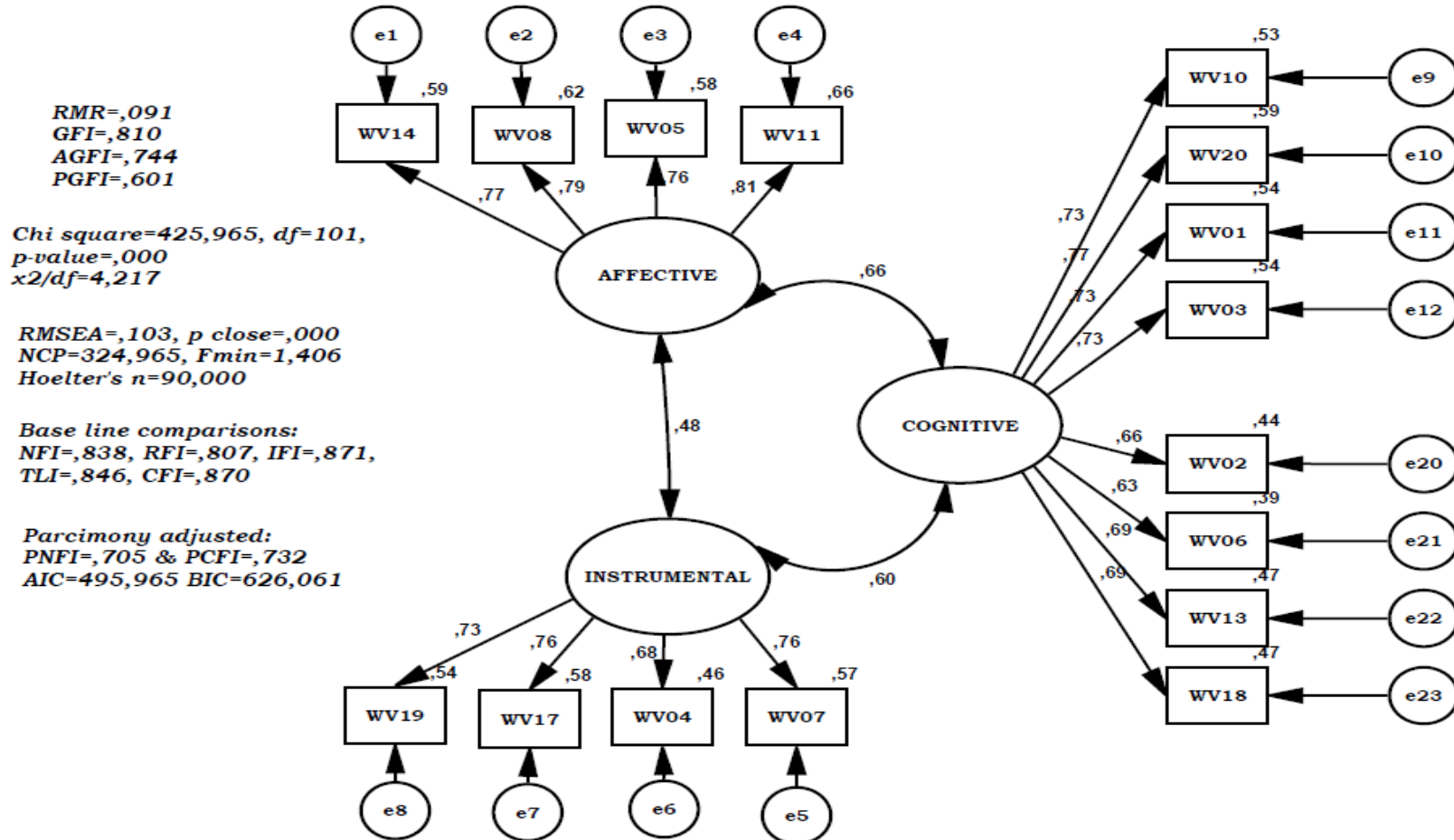


Table 5.7 Comparison of the SWVS against theory driven models of work values

Work Values Models	Absolute fit measures						Relative fit measures		Information criteria		
	χ^2	df	χ^2/df	GFI	AGFI	RMR	RMSEA (p-close*)	NFI	CFI	BIC	AIC
A(SWVS 1 st order)	192,08	98	1,96	.928	.900	.066	.056 (.183)	.927	.962	409,33	268,08
B (SWVS 2 nd order)	192,41	100	1,92	.928	.902	.067	.055 (.223)	.927	.963	398,22	264,413
C – (intrinsic/extrinsic)	788,89	103	7,66	.708	.614	.155	.148 (<0.001)	.699	.726	854,897	977,559
D – (cognitive, affective, instrumental)	425,97	101	4,22	.810	.744	.091	.103 (<0.001)	.838	.870	626,061	495,965

In a similar vein, neither the values of the NFI nor those of the CFI, the relative fit measures, were above the cut-off value .90 (Bentler & Bonnet, 1990). Overall, the model that best described the latent structure of work values, was Model B, which conceptualised the work values domain, assessed by the Sixteen Work Values Scale, as a second-order four-factor construct. Nevertheless, the results of the information criteria, BIC and AIC, which assess the information loss of the adopted model concerning the true structure, is indicative of Model's B superiority. As clearly evidenced, comparing to theory driven alternatives, the values of both the first order (Model A) as well as, the second order (Model B), were lower indicating thus, less information loss and better fit to the data.

5.2.3 Discussion

A difficulty one faces in summarising the research concerning the structure of work values within tourism and hospitality, as well as, across generations is that scholars have employed a variety of measures, all of which capture different subsets of work aspects from within the work values domain. This phenomenon has caused the proliferation of work values typologies, derived largely with inductive data driven approaches, rather than extant value theory and research. Consequently, each study provides only an incomplete picture of the structural composition of the work values concept. Notably, structural analysis requires a thorough knowledge of the theoretical developments regarding the construct under investigation and creative interpretation on the part of the researcher. Therefore, similar factors have been frequently interpreted and named differently, producing a confusing array of conceptualisations to study and/or to compare.

Comparing the dominant paradigm, which solicited the conceptualisation of work values as a class of uncorrelated constructs, to the above results, this study empirically confirmed that work values represent a high-order construct with coherent structure, providing a more meaningful perspective to understand employees' expectation and motivations within tourism and hospitality and

across generations. The four hypothesised work values factors – intrinsic, extrinsic, prestige and social – were found to be related in a clearly identifiable pattern, to the single second-order latent work values construct. This finding is in line with the theory of work adjustment (Dawis & Lofquist, 1984), which considers work values, in the form of work reinforcers, as second-order construct. Thus, the above findings extend the rather vague second order factorial structure of work values, recently reported by Chu (2008) within tourism and hospitality by providing a theoretically developed structure concurrent with conceptualisations from mainstream behavioural and psychological literature (i.e., Jin & Round, 2013; Lyons, Higgins, & Duxbury, 2010).

5.3 Hypothesis 3 – Generational differences in work values

A one-way MANOVA was performed to test the hypothesis of significant mean differences among the members of the three age-based cohorts (the Divided, the Metapolitefsi and the Europeanised generation) and scores on work value factors (intrinsic, extrinsic, prestige and social).

5.3.1 Assumptions

Prior to conducting the MANOVA, the most critical assumptions relating to this type of analysis, independence of observations, homoscedasticity across groups (in this case the three generational cohorts) and correlation and normality of dependent variables (in this case the four work value factors) were addressed. The independence of the participants was as much as possible ensured by the random sampling plan. In addition, the homogeneity of the variance-covariance matrices among the three age-based groups were examined at two levels, univariate and multivariate.

As evidenced in table 5.8, univariate tests (Levene's test) for all four work value factors were non-significant (i.e., $p > .05$; Hair, et al., 2011) and Box' M test for equality of the covariance matrices produced a non-significant value (.147), indicating no significant difference between the three generational cohorts and the four work value factors collectively. Thus, the assumption of

homoscedasticity was met for each work value separately and the four work values collectively.

Furthermore, the Barlett's test for sphericity was used to examine the correlations among all work value factors and assess whether, collectively, significant inter-correlations existed. As shown in table 5.8 a significant degree of inter-correlations existed (significance = .000). Nevertheless, histogram exploration revealed that the distribution of the four work value factors was slightly skewed with the fewest responses occurring at lowest ratings while the largest number of responses observed at rates 5 and 6. This result supports previous indications within the tourism and hospitality literature that work value ratings tend to be most discrete in the top of an individual's hierarchical ordering (i.e., Chen & Choi, 2008; Chen & Tessone, 2009; Wong & Chung, 2003; Wong & Liu, 2009), thus the slight divergent from normality was not judged to be problematic for the analysis.

Table 5.8 Multivariate and Univariate tests for testing homoscedasticity

Multivariate test of Homoscedasticity				
Box's Test of Equality of Covariance matrices				
Box's		26.888		
M				
F		1.330		
<i>df</i>		120		
<i>df</i>		2794356.62		
Sig.		.147		
Univariate Tests of Homoscedasticity				
Levene's Test of Equality of Error Variances				
Work values	F	df1	df2	Sig.
Intrinsic	.709	2	604	.493
Extrinsic	.966	2	604	.381
Prestige	.298	2	604	.742
Social	.765	2	604	.466
Test for correlation among work value factors				
Barlett's Test of Sphericity				
Approx. Square	Chi-	765.542		
<i>df1</i>		6		
Sig.		.000		

5.3.2 Multivariate statistical analysis

To perform the analysis, the maximum allowable Type I error was specified following Hair, et al., (2011) recommendations. In doing so, it was accepted that 5 times out of 100 it might be concluded that generational identity (in this case belonging to one of the three prevailing age-based cohorts) has an impact on the importance people place on work values when in fact it did not. Within this context, table 5.9 exhibits the four most commonly used multivariate tests, Pillai's criterion, Wilk's lambda, Hotelling' T², and Roy's greatest characteristic root (see Hair, et al., 2011). Each of the four measures indicated that the set of work value factors have highly significant differences ($p < .01$) among the three generational cohorts. The association between the main effect of generational identity and the set of work value factors was low, indicating that generational identity explained less than two percent of the variance in the four work value factors. This is probably related to the large sample size ($N=607$) (Pavlopoulos, 2008) because the power for the statistical test was above .90, indicating that the sample sizes and the effect size, were sufficient to ensure that significant differences would be detected if they existed beyond the differences due to sampling error (Hair, et al., 2011). Thus, a series of univariate tests was undertaken on each work value factor with follow up post-hoc tests, using Fisher's LSD to examine the pairwise differences between generational cohorts.

Table 5.9 One-way MANOVA for work values across generations

Statistical Test	Value	F	Hypothesis df	Error df	Sig.	η^2	observed power ^b
Pillai's Trace	.033	2.515	8	1204	.010	.016	.915
Wilks' Lambda	.967	2.521 ^a	8	1202	.010	.016	.916
Hotelling's Trace	.034	2.526	8	1200	.010	.017	.917
Roy's Largest Root	.028	4.232 ^c	4	602	.002	.027	.926

a. Exact statistic, b. Computed using $\alpha = .05$, c. The statistic is an upper bound on F that yields a lower bound on the significance level.

5.3.3 Univariate and post-hoc tests

Table 5.10 illustrates the univariate tests for each of the four work value factors. As evident, two individual tests, those related to intrinsic and social work values, were significant at $p < .01$ level. In addition, the results of the analysis for the prestige work values revealed a significant value at $p < .05$ level. By contrast, the p value associated with extrinsic work values was non-significant ($p > .05$).

Table 5.10 One-way ANOVA's for work values across generations

Work Values	ANOVA's		D-ers (188)		M-ers (278)		EU-ers (141)	
	F(2,604)	Sig	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
Intrinsic	6.506	.002	20.33	3.41	21.13	3.39	19.95	3.45
Extrinsic	2.309	.100	19.44	3.83	20.14	3.55	19.66	3.27
Prestige	3.436	.033	19.27	3.45	19.71	3.41	18.78	3.54
Social	5.952	.003	20.87	3.17	21.35	3.01	20.24	3.31

Note: D-ers= members of the Divided generation (born 1946-1966), M-ers= members of the Metapolitefsi generation (born 1967-1981) and EU-ers= members of the Europeanised generation (born 1982-1996).

Subsequent pairwise multiple comparisons were used to conduct post-hoc analyses. Table 5.11 depicts the mean difference comparisons across the three age-based cohorts and the four work value factors. As evident, there are a number of significantly different work values means across generations. For instance, a significant mean difference revealed in relation to intrinsic work values both between members of the Metapolitefsi generation and those from the Divided ($p < .05$) as well as between members of the Metapolitefsi generation and those from the Europeanised ($p < .01$). In addition, table 5.11 indicates that a significant mean difference exists between members from the Metapolitefsi generation and those from the Europeanised in terms of prestige work values ($p < .01$) and social work values ($p < .001$). Interestingly, although the individual univariate test yielded a non-significant result for extrinsic work values across generations, post-hoc analysis unveiled a significant mean difference between hotel workers from these two generational cohorts ($p < .05$).

Table 5.11 Mean differences in work values across generations

Work Values	M-ers vs. D-ers	M-ers vs. EU-ers	D-ers vs. EU-ers
Intrinsic	.797*	1.18***	.384
Extrinsic	.700*	.480	.219
Prestige	.435	.925**	.435
Social	.482	1.11***	.629

Note: the mean difference was significant at *.05, **.01 & *** .001 level
D-ers= members of the Divided generation (born 1946-1966), M-ers= members of the Metapolitefsi generation (born 1967-1981) and EU-ers= members of the Europeanised generation (born 1982-1996).

5.3.4 Discussion

Overall, there are two patterns suggested by the findings. The first is that no significant differences in work values exist between the youngest (Europeanised) and the oldest generation (Divided) of current Greek hotel sector workforce. The second is that relative to hotel workers from the Europeanised and the Divided generation, those born between 1967 and 1981 (Metapolitefsi generation) tend to place significantly more importance on intrinsic, social and prestige work values. Thus, the findings are supportive of the hypothesised significant generational differences in work values.

This is an important outcome. As noted in the introductory chapter, extant literature of work values across generations is based on observations rather than empirically derived outcomes (Cogin, 2012; Twenge, Campbell, Hoffman, & Lance, 2010). This has led to a proliferation of stereotypes, making it increasingly difficult to establish the facts (Ng, Lyons & Schweitzer, 2012). The above results indicate that substantial generational differences in work values do exist, providing the much needed evidence to evaluate popular beliefs. These findings are discussed below with reference to each work value factor and in comparison to the scant empirical findings from other cultural contexts.

Extrinsic work values. Despite the fact that neither multivariate nor univariate tests revealed a significant difference in work values, post-hoc analyses unveiled that Greek hotel workers born between 1967 and 1981 scored significantly higher (mean=20.14) to this type of work value than the older

cohort of hotel workers (Divided generation, mean=19.44). This finding provides a partial support to Gursoy, Chi & Karadag's (2013) results. In particular, they reported that the youngest generation of workforce in the US hospitality sector, scored their extrinsically related to work, work-life balance factor, significantly higher than the oldest generations.

Social work values. Significant inter-generational differences were also revealed in relation to social work values, which in this study were comprised by the following work aspects; interaction, owner, esteem and colleagues. The results signified that Greek hotel workers, members of the Metapolitefsi generation valued higher (mean=21.35) this type of work value than the incoming generation of Greek hotel workforce (Europeanised generation, mean=20.24). This finding partly supports the significant inter-generational differences in social work values observed by Lyons, Duxbury & Higgins (2005) between Canadian knowledge workers. However, it has to be noted that in this study the youngest generation in the workforce scored social work values significantly higher than the older generations.

Intrinsic work values. Significant inter-generational differences were also found to values intrinsically related to work, which in this study included autonomy, innovation, use of abilities and advancement. In particular, findings indicated that Greek hotel workers born between 1967 and 1981 (Metapolitefsi generation) scored significantly higher to this type of work values (mean=21.13) both than the oldest cohort of Greek hotel workers (Divided generation, mean=20.33) as well as the incoming generation of hotel workforce (Europeanised generation, mean=19.95). This phenomenon is partly supported by previous evidence within the US cultural context. In particular, both Chen & Choi's (2008) and Real, Mitnick & Maloney's (2010) studies documented significant inter-generational differences in values intrinsically related to work. However, a more careful examination of the results reveals that in Chen & Choi's (2008) study, the oldest generation of US hospitality workers scored significantly higher to personal growth than their younger counterparts. In contrast, Real, Mitnick & Maloney's (2010) reported that the youngest

generation of US construction workers, placed significantly higher importance on intrinsic job aspects than the oldest generation.

Prestige work values. Significant differences among the prevailing generations of Greek hotel sector workforce were also observed for work values related to prestige, which in this study were represented by status, decision-making, organisation and/or authority. Specifically, the youngest generation of Greek hotel workforce (Europeanised generation) rated this type of work values significantly (mean=18.78) lower than those hotel workers born between 1967 and 1981 (Metapolitefsi generation, mean=19.71). This finding is partly supported by studies of work values across generations in New Zealand. Specifically, Cennamo & Gardner (2008) documented that the youngest generation in New Zealand's workforce, placed significantly more importance on status work values. This phenomenon was also exhibited in Lyons, Higgins, & Duxbury (2005) study of work values in Canadian knowledge workers.

However, it has to be noted that the incoming generation of Canadian, and New Zealand's workforce contrary to Greek incumbent hotel workers (Europeanised generation) scored significantly higher than the oldest generation on social, prestige and intrinsic work values. Within this context, the popular characterisation of the incoming generation of workforce as intrinsically and/or prestige motivated appears to be less applicable to the youngest cohort of Greek hotel workers. This implies a cultural distinction among the young generation of workforce in N. America and New Zealand and the new Greek hotel workforce incumbents. This observation reinforces the conceptualisation of generational identity as a culture specific construct.

5.4 Generational rankings of work aspects in Greek & US hospitality sector

This part of the analysis seeks to identify in which aspects of work each generational cohort placed the highest importance. Table 5.12 tabulates the ranking order of each work aspect included in the Sixteen Work Values scale based on the mean and standard deviation scores. Nevertheless, the ranking

order of each generational cohort from the Greek hotel workforce is compared to members of the US hospitality sector, born at the same period. The comparative data (table 5.9 and 5.10) were developed from the results documented by Chen & Choi (2008) and Gursoy, Chi & Karadag (2013), the only two studies of work values across generations within hospitality and tourism (see section 3.5.2).

5.4.1 The Divided generation

Hospitality workers born prior to 1966, as noted in section 3.3.1 are generally depicted as “workaholics”, goal-oriented, and frequently seeking success and advancement and therefore their career is of central value and focus in their lives. Recent studies of hospitality workers have shown that this generation tend to prioritise work aspects related to achievement (i.e., Chen & Choi, 2008, table 5.13) and professional development (Gursoy, Chi & Karadag, 2013, see table 5.14). It might, therefore, be expected that Greek hotel workers, born in the same period (members of the Divided generation), would place more importance on aspects intrinsically related to work.

The results indicated that the oldest cohort (born prior to 1966) of workers in Greek hotel sector (Divided generation) placed a high degree of importance on advancement (see table 5.12). In particular, this age-based group of hotel workers ranked this, intrinsically related to work aspect third, partially conforming to the prior expectations. However, a more careful examination of the results indicates that most of the aspects, intrinsically related to work, such as use of abilities, innovation, and autonomy were moderately valued. This suggests that in general, the personal growth pursuits of US hospitality Boomers are unfound among members of the Divided generation in Greek hotel workforce. By contrast, the results denote a tendency by the oldest cohort of Greek hotel workers to place the greatest importance on aspects of social and/or affective nature.

Table 5.12 SWVS ranking for three generations of Greek hotel workers

D-ers (n=188)		M-ers (n=288)		EU-ers (n=141)	
Work aspects	Mean (SD)	Work aspects	Mean (SD)	Work aspects	Mean (SD)
1. Owner	5.35 (0.94)	1. Owner	5.46 (.897)	1. Stability	5.19 (1.021)
2. Esteem	5.22 (0.93)	2. Stability	5.36 (.969)	2. Esteem	5.17 (1.042)
3. Advancement	5.21 (1.01)	3. Esteem	5.36 (.899)	3. Advancement	5.16 (.973)
4. Colleagues	5.16 (0.94)	4. Advancement	5.36 (.987)	4. Use abilities	5.05 (1.084)
5. Interaction	5.15 (0.95)	5. Use abilities	5.33 (.993)	5. Colleagues	5.04 (1.055)
6. Stability	5.12 (1.09)	6. Interaction	5.28 (.834)	6. Owner	5.04 (1.003)
7. Use abilities	5.11 (1.03)	7. Colleagues	5.26 (.932)	7. Interaction	5.00 (.941)
8. Innovation	5.03 (1.03)	8. Innovation	5.26 (1.014)	8. Innovation	4.92 (1.083)
9. Autonomy	4.98 (0.95)	9. Autonomy	5.19 (.902)	9. Stress avoidance	4.86 (1.066)
10. Status	4.96 (1.05)	10. Status	5.00 (1.075)	10. Organisation	4.83 (1.146)
11. Benefits	4.84 (1.25)	11. Organisation	4.98 (.974)	11. Autonomy	4.82 (1.002)
12. Decision making	4.77 (1.06)	12. Benefits	4.97 (1.273)	12. Benefits	4.82 (1.175)
13. Authority	4.77 (0.96)	13. Stress avoidance	4.95 (1.102)	13. Earnings	4.80 (.935)
14. Organisation	4.77 (0.99)	14. Authority	4.88 (1.011)	14. Status	4.72 (1.128)
15. Stress avoidance	4.76 (1.16)	15. Earnings	4.87 (1.058)	15. Decision making	4.63 (.974)
16. Earnings	4.73 (1.12)	16. Decision making	4.85 (.987)	16. Authority	4.60 (1.006)

Note: The rating ranged from 1= extremely unlikely to 6= extremely likely

D-ers= members of the Divided generation (born 1946-1966), M-ers= members of the Metapolitefsi generation (born 1967-1981) and EU-ers= members of the Europeanised generation (born 1982-1996).

Table 5.13 SWVI ranking for three generations of US hospitality workers

Boomers (n=92)		X-ers (n=144)		Millennials (n=112)	
Work aspects	Mean (SD)	Work aspects	Mean (SD)	Work aspects	Mean (SD)
1. Achievement	13.88 (1.25)	1. Way of life	13.67 (1.77)	1. Way of life	13.84 (1.45)
2. Way of life	13.72 (1.39)	2. Achievement	13.45 (1.63)	2. Supervisory relationship	13.57 (1.81)
3. Altruism	13.62 (1.60)	3. Supervisory relationship	13.32 (2.10)	3. Achievement	13.48 (1.68)
4. Intellectual stimulation	13.47 (1.24)	4. Security	13.29 (2.12)	4. Altruism	13.19 (1.75)
5. Supervisory relationship	13.42 (2.14)	5. Independence	13.15 (1.58)	5. economic return	13.00 (1.93)
6. Creativity	13.16 (1.63)	6. Altruism	12.97 (1.77)	6. Security	12.90 (1.86)
7. Independence	13.01 (1.55)	7. Intellectual stimulations	12.85 (1.87)	7. Prestige	12.87 (1.90)
8. Security	12.97 (2.11)	8. Economic return	12.85 (1.50)	8. Independence	12.81 (1.86)
9. Economic return	12.80 (1.64)	9. Creativity	12.80 (1.65)	9. Creativity	12.71 (1.99)
10. Prestige	12.46 (2.08)	10. Prestige	12.52 (2.06)	10. Variety	12.55 (1.56)
11. Variety	12.25 (1.83)	11. Management	12.33 (1.85)	11. Intellectual stimulation	12.50 (2.08)
12. Surrounding	12.25 (1.84)	12. Variety	12.31 (1.61)	12. Surrounding	12.49 (1.94)
13. Management	12.17 (1.89)	13. Surrounding	12.27 (1.83)	13. Associates	12.31 (1.96)
14. Associates	10.88 (2.38)	14. Associates	11.47 (2.30)	14. Management	12.07 (2.09)
15. Aesthetic	10.59 (2.35)	15. Aesthetic	10.65 (2.52)	15. Aesthetic	11.26 (2.56)

Source: *Chen & Choi (2008)*

Note: The rating ranged from 3= least important to 15= most important, *SWVI = Super's (1970) Work Values Inventory*
Boomers = 1946 – 1964, X-ers = 1965 – 1977, Millennials = 1978 and onwards

Table 5.14 Work values mean scores for 3 generations of US hospitality workers

Work Values (work aspects)	Mean (SD)		
	Boomers (n=257)	X-ers (n=260)	Millennials (n=200)
Work centrality (i.e., Job security is very important for me & I take my job and professional development very seriously)	4.03 (.57)	3.83 (.67)	3.76 (.67)
Leadership (i.e., I work best when there is strong leadership & I work best when there is direction)	3.79 (.66)	3.82 (.62)	3.98 (.54)
Work-life balance (i.e., My priorities are with my friends and my family, not the boss & I want to work as many hours as I have to but not a minute longer)	3.09 (.60)	3.26 (.62)	3.37 (.68)
Power (i.e., I strive to be “in command” when I am working in a group & I find myself organizing and directing the activities of others)	2.95 (.85)	3.19 (.76)	3.08 (.81)
Technology challenge (i.e., Technology makes my job harder & I feel like my computer is out to get me)	2.46 (.68)	2.30 (.68)	2.18 (.72)
Non-compliance (i.e., I am likely to challenge workplace norms & I am deeply cynical about management)	2.40 (.77)	2.49 (.76)	2.67 (.89)
Recognition (i.e., They treat younger employees like kids & No one respects younger employees because they are young)	2.20 (.86)	2.31 (.82)	2.65 (1.08)

Source: Gursoy, Chi & Karadag (2013)

Note: The rating ranged from 5 = strongly agree to 1 = strongly disagree

Boomers = 1946 – 1964, X-ers = 1965 – 1977, Millennials = 1978 and onwards

In particular, having a fair and considerate boss was ranked first whereas the feeling of being valued as a person, was ranked third among the sixteen work aspects of the SWVS. This phenomenon is in complete contrast to US hospitality workers, born in the same period. For instance, having a reasonable, considerate boss who gives workers a fair deal (supervisory relationships) was ranked 5th among the 15 work values of Super's (1970) Work Values Inventory, (see table 5.13) and recognition was ranked as the least important value in Gursoy, Chi & Karadag (2013) sample of US hospitality workers (see table 5.14).

Global studies (i.e., House, Hanges, Javidan, Dorfman & Gupta, 2004; Hofstede, 1980) have portrayed Greece as a highly in-group collectivist society. Thus, from a cultural perspective, it was expected for the oldest cohort of Greek hotel workers to exhibit priorities in the life domain of work related to pride and cohesiveness. Particularly the high significance of members of the Divided generation towards being valued as a person (self-esteem) reflects the prominent cultural value of "filotimo" (literally meaning the love of honour) (see Triandis, Vassiliou and Nassiakou, 1968). Papalexandris, (1992) emphasised that this value was commonly utilised by Greek employers to secure loyalty in their business, a phenomenon, which further explains the priority of Greek D-ers on having a fair and considerate hotel owner.

5.4.2 The Metapolitefsi generation

As noted in section 3.3.2, hospitality workers born between 1967 and 1981 are generally portrayed as a cohort that strives to balance work with fun (Chen & Choi, 2008; Gursoy, Chi & Karadag 2013). They have also been characterized as self reliant, realistic, independent and generally tentative of freedom in work (Chen & Choi, 2008). Gursoy, Maier & Chi (2008) emphasise that this generational group expects its work to be recognised through promotions, titles and benefits. Recent studies of work values across generations have documented that this generation tend to place greatest importance on work aspects related to way of life (see table 5.13) and security (see table 5.14). It

might, therefore, be anticipated that Greek hotel workers, born in the same period (members of the Metapoiltefsi generation), would prioritise aspects extrinsically related to work.

The results partially confirmed this anticipation. The cohort of hotel workers situated in the middle of the generational timeline of current workforce do indeed score highly for the work aspect of stability. However, the remaining extrinsically related aspects of work included in the Sixteen Work Values Scale such as stress avoidance, earnings and benefits were of low significance. This suggests, particularly in the case of stress avoidance, that contrary to members from Generation X within the US hospitality workforce, Greek hotel workers born in the same period, are accepting the inclusion of stress in their work routine as what Lancaster & Stillman (2002) calls a “badge of honour”. Nevertheless, it is somewhat surprising that considering the amount of attention given to X-ers’ pursue of independence (see table 5.13) and need to direct the activities (see table 5.14) of others that Greek hotel workers born between 1967 and 1981 placed moderate to low importance on aspects of work such as autonomy and decision making. In particular, autonomy was ranked ninth and decision-making at the bottom of the hierarchical ordering.

The GLOBE study (House et al, 2002) depicts US managers as part of a strong performance oriented culture, which expects leaders to be dedicated to performance improvement. By contrast, managers from countries such as Greece and Kuwait, have been portrayed as of a low performance oriented culture. An illustrative example, as noted by Ali & Al-Kazemi (2005) for Kuwaiti managers, is the unwillingness to shoulder responsibilities. This phenomenon has also been found among Greek managers. Ex-CEO of Olympic Airways R. Doganis, as cited in Joiner (2001) have noted that during the the process of restructuring the Greek airline he encountered resistance due to “efthynofovia”. Literally, the word means fear of responsibility and many senior and middle managers are terrified of making decisions (Bartholomew, 1995, p.15 as cited in Joiner, 2001). Thus, from a cultural perspective the distance in the performance orientation between US and Greek workforce, explains the disregard of the

Greek hotel workers, members of the Metapolitefisi generation to direct the work of others and/or having autonomy in work.

5.4.3 The Europeanised generation

Hospitality workers born after 1981 are commonly characterised as a goal-driven cohort who wishes to have immediate impact and expects rapid promotion and development but at the same time seeks to establish legitimacy with members from older generations in the workforce (see section 3.3.3). Extant studies of hospitality workers have documented that this generational cohort favours aspects related to recognition and power (see table 5.14). It might, therefore, be expected that the youngest cohort in the Greek hotel workforce, born after 1981 (members of the Europeanised generation) would prioritise work aspects of prestige nature.

The results indicated that those Greek hotel workers born after 1981 placed the least degree of importance on prestige work values. As depicted in table 5.12, status, decision making and authority were at the bottom of this age-based cohort's hierarchical ordering of work aspects. This phenomenon is further evident by the high power distance score for Greece in GLOBE findings (see Myloni, Harzing & Mizra, 2004). This dimension denotes the degree to which members of an organisation or society expect and agree that power should be unequally divided. Thus, it is not a surprise that the status-oriented work values profile of US hospitality workers from the Millennial generation is unfound in Greek incumbents to hotel sector workforce (Europeanised generation).

5.5 The effect of gender and operational pattern on work values across generations

The previous analysis has empirically validated that significant generational differences in work values do exist within the Greek hotel workforce. However, research question 4 seeks to determine whether the observed significant generational differences in work values are also evident when the effect of gender and/or operational pattern is taken into account. Therefore, further

analysis has been conducted to determine, initially, the main effect of gender and organisational pattern on work values.

Table 5.15 SWVS ranking for Greek female and male hotel workers

Males (N=317)		Females (N=290)	
Work values	Mean (SD)	Work values	Mean (SD)
1. Social	21.26 (2.94)*	1. Social	20.61 (3.36)
2. Intrinsic	21.05 (3.31)***	2. Intrinsic	20.13 (3.53)
3. Extrinsic	20.05 (3.49)	3. Extrinsic	19.57 (3.69)
4. Prestige	19.79 (3.06)**	4. Prestige	18.90 (3.82)

Males (N=317)		Females (N=290)	
Work Aspects	Mean (SD)	Work Aspects	Mean (SD)
1. Owner	5.40 (0.88)	1. Owner	5.24 (1.01)
2. Advancement	5.38 (0.91)	2. Stability	5.22 (1.07)
3. Esteem	5.38 (0.87)	3. Esteem	5.16 (1.02)
4. Use abilities	5.31 (0.98)	4. Colleagues	5.14 (0.99)
5. Stability	5.27 (0.98)	5. Advancement	5.13 (1.06)
6. Interaction	5.27 (0.84)	6. Interaction	5.08 (0.96)
7. Colleagues	5.21(0.95)	7. Use abilities	5.08 (1.08)
8. Innovation	5.21(1.03)	8. Innovation	5.00 (1.05)
9. Autonomy	5.15 (0.94)	9. Autonomy	4.93 (0.96)
10. Status	5.03 (1.00)	10. Benefits	4.86 (1.21)
11. Organisation	4.98 (0.94)	11. Status	4.81 (1.16)
12. Stress avoidance	4.97 (1.08)	12. Organisation	4.77 (1.10)
13. Benefits	4.92 (1.27)	13. Stress avoidance	4.77 (1.14)
14. Decision making	4.90 (0.93)	14. Earnings	4.73 (1.12)
15. Earnings	4.88 (0.98)	15. Authority	4.68 (1.07)
16. Authority	4.88 (0.92)	16. Decision making	4.64 (1.08)

Note: * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$ & *** $p < .001$

Table 5.15 presents the ranking order of importance on each work aspect included in the Sixteen Work Values Scale, with reference to gender. As shown, both Greek female and male hotel workers prioritise the aspect of “having a fair and considerate hotel owner”. In a similar vein, there is a common disregard for “authority” and “decision making”. In general, as shown in the upper part of table 5.15, both Greek female and male hotel workers consider prestige work values as least important whereas social work values are ranked as a top priority. This observation further reinforces the impact of national culture on Greek hotel workers’ value priorities in the organisational context. Indeed, according to the cultural orientations of the GLOBE project, Greek managers were portrayed as having high scores in power distance and in-group collectivism (see Myloni, Harzing & mirza, 2004), supporting therefore the identified aversion towards prestige related values and the prioritisation of values with affective nature by Greek hotel workforce.

However, subsequent independent t-tests yielded significant gender differences in the work values of the Greek hotel workforce. In particular, Greek male hotel workers, scored higher to all four work values factors. More importantly, with the exception of extrinsic work values, Greek male hotel workers were found to place significantly more importance than their female counterparts did. Thus, while there is a common ranking order of importance on work values between Greek male and female hotel workers, this key demographic variable is able to predict work values as evidenced by the significant gender differences found in the scoring of social, prestige and intrinsic work values.

From a cultural perspective, this finding and particularly the fact that men scored significantly higher suggests that the masculine culture documented by Hofstede’s (1980) study in Greek workforce continues to exist within current Greek hotel workforce. From the one side this outcome is surprising because the changes that occurred after the post dictatorship phase or *Metapolitefsi* as Greeks call the 1974 transition to multiparty democracy, in legislation, social norms, access to higher education and generally the opportunities to work, have resulted in a major demographic shift, in terms of female participation, in the

Greek workforce. Historically, Greek women's work outside of home and marriage had been limited to public sector occupations such as teachers, nurses and administrative personnel along with farm work. However, the percentage of women occupied in the Greek workforce rose from 28 per cent in 1980 (EL.STAT, 1981), the year that Hofstede's study was published, to 41 per cent in 2011 (EL.STAT, 2012).

From the other side, this finding is in line with studies from other cultural contexts. For example, Li, Liu & Wan (2008) reported that compared to Chinese female employees, males gave higher ratings on all of the five work values factors under investigation. In a similar vein, Karakitapoglu et al (2007) documented that among US students men had higher work values (measured by the Protestant Work Ethic scale) scores than women. Berings & Adriaenssens (2012) have also noted that among Belgium students women tend to score significantly lower on "innovation" and "rationality", work value factors intrinsically related to work. More importantly, the gender differences in work values observed among Greek hotel workers reinforce similar findings within hospitality research. In particular, Wong & Chung (2003) have found that male Chinese hotel restaurant managers tend to place significantly more importance than their female counterparts do in "congenial job context" a work value factor of social/affective nature.

In relation to the operational pattern (seasonal vs. year-round hotels) significant differences in the scoring of work values were also evident for Greek hotel workers. Further independent t-test exhibited that Greek workers in year-round hotels placed significant more importance on all four work values factors than their counterparts in seasonal hotels (see table 5.16). This finding suggests that as previously with gender, operational pattern is an attribute that can predict work values.

The examination of the ranking order of importance on each aspect of work included in the Sixteen Work Values Scale, provides better understanding of this phenomenon. As shown, in the lower part of table 5.16, Greek workers in seasonal hotels ranked "owner" and "esteem - having a work where you are

Table 5.16 SWVS ranking for Greek workers in seasonal and year-round hotels

Seasonal (N=304)		Year-round (N=303)	
Work values	Mean (SD)	Work values	Mean (SD)
1. Social	20.60 (3.65)	1. Intrinsic	21.81 (2.40)***
2. Intrinsic	19.41 (3.88)	2. Social	21.30 (2.52)**
3. Extrinsic	18.70 (3.96)	3. Extrinsic	20.93 (2.60)***
4. Prestige	19.67 (3.94)	4. Prestige	20.05 (2.75)***

Seasonal (N=304)		Year-round (N=303)	
Work Aspects	Mean (SD)	Work Aspects	Mean (SD)
1. Owner	5.23 (1.11)	1. Advancement	5.60 (0.73)
2. Esteem	5.20 (1.09)	2. Use abilities	5.53 (0.72)
3. Interaction	5.18 (1.01)	3. Innovation	5.50 (0.71)
4. Stability	5.16 (1.18)	4. Benefits	5.43 (0.79)
5. Colleagues	4.99 (1.12)	5. Owner	5.42 (0.74)
6. Advancement	4.93 (1.09)	6. Colleagues	5.36 (0.73)
7. Autonomy	4.90 (1.11)	7. Esteem	5.35 (0.77)
8. Use abilities	4.87 (1.18)	8. Stability	5.33 (0.82)
9. Organisation	4.77 (1.19)	9. Stress avoidance	5.26 (0.80)
10. Innovation	4.72 (1.17)	10. Autonomy	5.18 (0.73)
11. Authority	4.70 (1.17)	11. Interaction	5.17 (0.77)
12. Earnings	4.70 (1.23)	12. Status	5.16 (0.90)
13. Status	4.69 (1.19)	13. Decision making	5.04 (0.78)
14. Decision making	4.51 (1.13)	14. Organisation	5.00 (0.79)
15. Stress avoidance	4.49 (1.24)	15. Earnings	4.92 (0.81)
16. Benefits	4.36 (1.36)	16. Authority	4.86 (0.77)

Note: **p<.01 & *** p<.001

being recognized and valued for your skills and personality” as work aspects of top priority. By contrast, “having a work that provides you the opportunity to promote your career - advancement” and “having a work that allows you to use the skills and knowledge you have developed through your education and experience – use of abilities” were the two higher ranked work aspects by those employed in year-round hotels. Therefore, findings indicate that Greek hotel workers in seasonal hotels tend to prioritise aspects of work with affective nature whereas those employed in year-round hotels tend to signify aspects intrinsically related to work.

This finding partly supports Matzler & Renzl’s (2007) study, which documented a systematic difference in satisfaction factors between seasonal and non-seasonal workers in the Austrian hotel sector. Indeed, seasonal workers represent an intense workforce employed to provide quality services to tourists for a specific period, which in Greece typically starts shortly before Easter (April to May) and terminates once the seasonal peak has passed, at the end of August or in cases such as Crete, Corfu, Rhodes and Santorini at the end of September. Compared to year-round hotel workers, seasonal workers therefore service a higher volume of tourists and as noted by Matzler & Renzl, (2007) have fewer opportunities for training and bonding with colleagues. The notions of temporariness and intensification of the working experience within seasonal hotels is therefore a plausible reason of why seasonal hotel workers prioritised social work values and also why the pursuit of intrinsically related work values among year-round hotel workers is unfound among this segment of the workforce.

Having established that both gender and operational pattern are significant antecedents of work values, the next step was to test whether the previously observed significant generational differences in work values do exist when the effect of gender and operational pattern is taken into account (research question 4). Accordingly, one-way multivariate analysis of covariance was conducted for testing the relevant null hypotheses 4a and 4b.

Table 5.17 One-way MANCOVA for work values across generations

	Statistical Test	Value	F	Hypothesis df	Error df	Sig.	η^2	observed power ^b
GENERATIONS	Pillai's Trace	.034	2.622	8	1200	.008	.017	.928
	Wilks' Lambda	.966	2.629 ^a	8	1198	.007	.017	.929
	Hotelling's Trace	.035	2.637	8	1196	.007	.017	.929
GENDER	Roy's Largest Root	.030	4.527 ^c	4	600	.001	.029	.943
	Pillai's Trace	.024	3.665 ^a	4	599	.006	.024	.880
	Wilks' Lambda	.976	3.665 ^a	4	599	.006	.024	.880
OPERATION	Hotelling's Trace	.024	3.665 ^a	4	599	.006	.024	.880
	Roy's Largest Root	.024	3.665 ^a	4	599	.006	.024	.880
	Pillai's Trace	.151	26.650 ^a	4	599	.000	.151	1.00
	Wilks' Lambda	.849	26.650 ^a	4	599	.000	.151	1.00
	Hotelling's Trace	.178	26.650 ^a	4	599	.000	.151	1.00
	Roy's Largest Root	.178	26.650 ^a	4	599	.000	.151	1.00

Note: a. Exact statistic, b. Computed using alpha = .05,

c. The statistic is an upper bound on F that yields a lower bound on the significance level.

Hypothesis 4a: *There are no significant differences in work values that coincide with generational identity when the effect of gender is taken into account.*

Hypothesis 4b: *There are no significant differences in work values that coincide with generational identity when the effect of operational pattern is taken into account.*

In particular, the four work values factors, intrinsic, extrinsic, prestige and social, were considered the dependent variables of the test whereas the three age-based cohorts, the Divided, the Metapolitefsi and the Europeanised generation, were the independent variables. Gender and operational pattern specified the covariates. In a similar vein as in the multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA), the four most commonly used multivariate tests, Pillai's criterion, Wilk's lambda, Hotelling' T^2 , and Roy's greatest characteristic root were adopted.

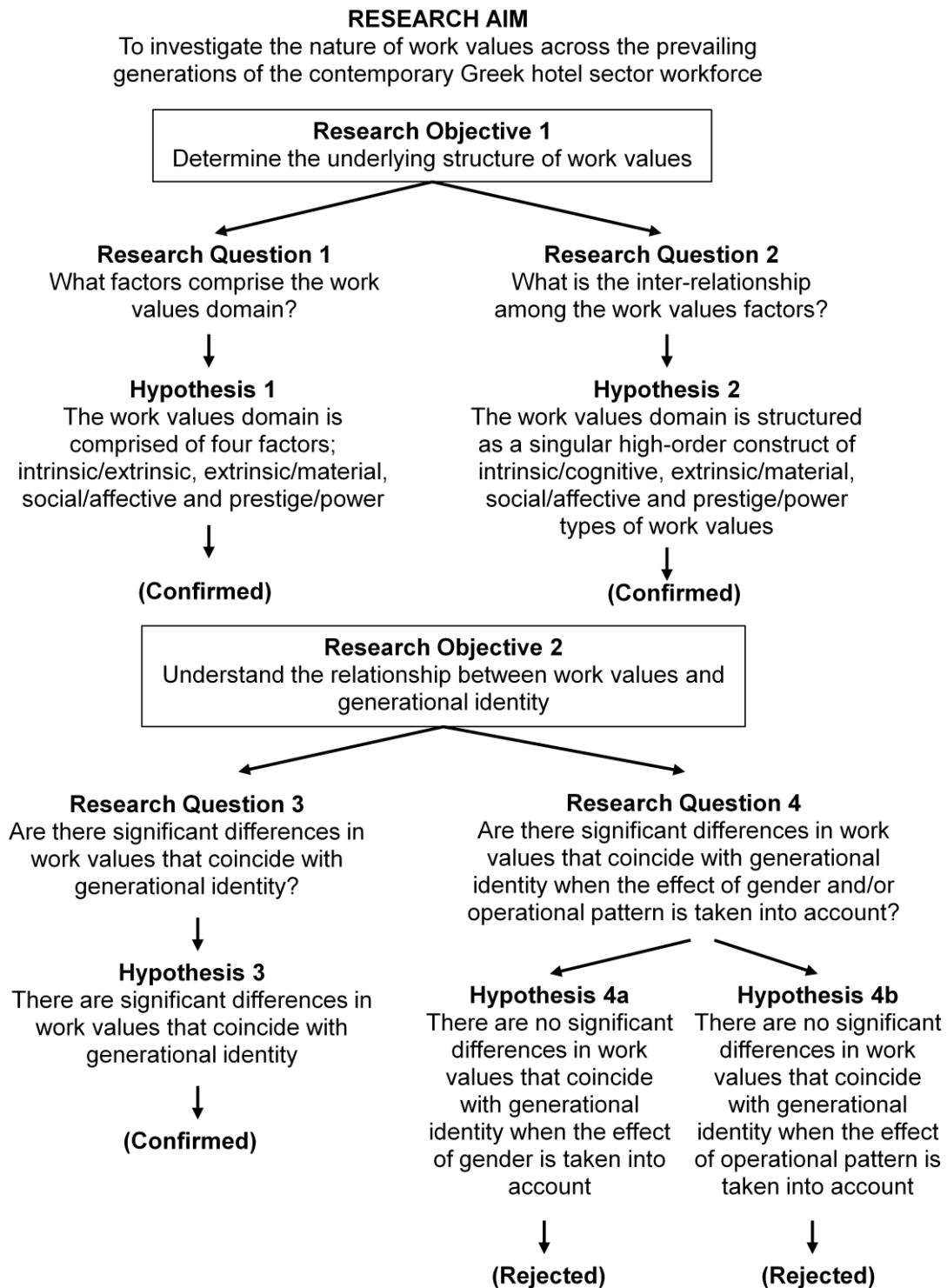
The values of each of the four measures indicated that the set of work values factors have highly significant difference ($p < .01$) among the three prevailing generational cohorts of Greek hotel workforce (see table 5.17). More importantly, the control variables of gender and operational pattern were also significant at the $p < .01$ level. Therefore, based on the above findings the null hypotheses that there will be no significant generational differences in work values when the effect of gender (hypothesis 4a) and operational pattern (hypothesis 4b) is taken into account, are both rejected. Thus, despite the significant main effect of gender and operational pattern on the work values of Greek hotel workers, generational identity continues to predict work values when both these attributes are taken into consideration.

CHAPTER 6

Conclusion

This study sought to examine the nature of work values across the prevailing age-based cohorts, the Divided (1946-1966), the Metapolitefsi (1967-1981) and the Europeanised generation (1982-1996), of current workforce within the Greek hotel sector. In order to fulfil this aim, two specific objectives were identified and examined (see figure 6.1). First, the underlying structure of work values (research objective 1, see figure 6.1) was investigated, to provide insights into (a) the types of work values that comprised the domain within the Greek hotel sector (research question 1, see figure 6.1) and (b) the inter-relationships among these types of work values (research question 2, see figure 6.1). Despite the many labels, methods, and conceptualisations, the literature review (chapter 2) revealed that four types are recurrently mentioned in work values research, intrinsic, extrinsic, social and prestige. Therefore, it was hypothesised that the domain of Greek hotel sector workforce will be comprised by the above types of work values (hypothesis 1, see figure 6.1).

Figure 6.1 Purpose of the study



Source: Author ,

In addition, the literature review (chapter 2) highlighted that the array of values represents a continuum of related motivations grouped into four high-order value types. Therefore, considering work values as a projection of values in the life domain of work, it was further hypothesised that work values will be structured as a singular high-order construct of intrinsic, extrinsic, social and prestige types of values (hypothesis 2, see figure 6.1).

Second, the relationship between work values and generational identity was explored (research objective 2, see figure 6.1) to address the debate of whether measurable and enduring differences in work values of successive generations of employees do exist (research question 3, see figure 6.1). In addition, the effect of gender and operational pattern on the relationship between work values and generational identity was examined (research question 4, see figure 6.1). Generational theory, as discussed in chapter 3, dictates that shared formative influences imbue the members of an age-based cohort with a generational identity, which is actualized by some historical shift or conflict and is embodied in a shared set of values (Joshi, Denker, Frantz & Martocchio, 2010). Therefore, it was expected that the values that are shared among members of a generational cohort to differ significantly from those shared among members of other cohorts. Within this context, it was hypothesised that there will be significant generational differences in work values among Greek hotel workers. (hypothesis 3, see figure 6.1). Furthermore, it was hypothesised that the effect of gender and operational pattern will confound the relationship between work values and generational identity (hypothesis 4a & 4b, see figure 6.1). Thus, the focus of this study was to develop a sound theoretical basis and a rigid methodological approach to test the above hypotheses and generate a valid empirical evidence base about work value across generations in the relatively unexplored cultural context of Greek hotel organisations.

In this final chapter, the two strands of research, values and generational, are integrated with the results from the exploration within the life domain of work (in this case the Greek hotel sector), to highlight the main findings and illustrate the implications of this study. In particular, a summary of the key findings is outlined

followed by a discussion of the research contribution. Finally, the limitations of the methodology employed to undertake this study are outlined and avenues for future research are further recommended.

6.1 Summary of main findings & implications

6.1.1 Research objective one - The structure of work values

This study tested and confirmed, using exploratory and confirmatory factor analysis (within method triangulation), that the value domain of Greek hotel workers has a coherent second-order factorial structure (social, prestige, intrinsic and extrinsic work values). The data were collected by two different samples of seasonal and year-round hotel workers (data triangulation) and were assessed the Sixteen Work Values Scale, a novel measure developed for the purpose of the study.

Compared to theoretical alternatives approaches that conceptualised the domain of work values (a) as a class of intrinsically and extrinsically related to work values and (b) as a continuum of cognitive, affective and instrumental work values, (i.e., intrinsic/extrinsic and/or cognitive, affective instrumental), the second-order factorial structure of social, prestige, intrinsic and extrinsic work values, exhibits better fit to the data scores of Greek hotel workers. In addition, the four derived work value factors (social, prestige, intrinsic and extrinsic work values) have considerable overlap with the factors identified in prior research (i.e., Elizur & Sagie, 1999; Hirschi, 2008; Furnham, Petrides, Tsaousis, Pappas, & Garrod, 2005; Lyons, Higgins, & Duxbury, 2010; Ros, Schwartz & Surkiss, 1999; Wong & Liu, 2009). This confirms that the multi-factor psychological construct of work values observed in other countries including Israel (Elizur, 1984; Elizur & Sagie, 1999, Ros, Schwartz & Surkiss, 1999), China, Korea, Taiwan, Germany, Holland, Hungary (Elizur, Borg, Hunt & Beck, 1991), Canada (Lyons, Higgins, & Duxbury, 2010), USA (Robinson & Bretz, 2010), applies to the Greek hotel workers. This is an important finding because it provides confidence that Greek hotel workers do indeed conceptualise work values in the

same way as general populations in other cultures, allowing us to make meaningful inter-cultural comparisons on this construct.

6.1.2 Objective two – The relationship between work values and generations

This study also tested and confirmed using one-way multivariate analysis of variance that significant mean differences among the three prevailing age-based cohorts (Divided, Metapolitefsi and Europeanised) and scores on work value factors (intrinsic, extrinsic, prestige and social) do exist. Overall, two distinguishable patterns of significant work values differences were found among generational groups within the Greek hotel sector. The first is that relative to members of the Divided generation, Greek hotel workers from the Metapolitefsi cohort exhibit a tendency to place significantly more importance on intrinsic work values. The second pattern is that relative to the incoming generation of hotel workforce (Europeanised) the members of the Metapolitefsi generation have also placed significantly more importance on prestige work values.

This tendency may be related to the shift in the generational dominance of workforce that is currently occurring in the Greek hotel sector. A large number of members of the Divided generation, as noted in the introductory part, are currently exiting the workforce and a comparable number of workers born after 1982 (Europeanised) dramatically entering. While the exit of the workforce of those born prior to 1966 provides an opportunity for members of the Metapolitefsi generation to claim the hierarchy in their hotel organisations, the influx of those born prior to 1982 challenges the status of their career.

Within this context, it seems logical to place higher importance on intrinsic work values, which in this study included aspects of work linked to advancement, autonomy, achievement and use of abilities. Intrinsic work values are related to personal growth and their attainment has the potentials to improve their skills and abilities while they are trying to occupy the leadership positions from the impending retirement of those born prior to 1966 (Divided). In the same vein, it

appears logical to place higher importance on prestige work values, which in this study involved, authority, decision making, status and organisation. The attainment of prestige related work values has the potentials to help them retain what they have already accomplished in their career and/or their involvement in the direction of the organisation against the influx of the technological savvy and highly educated Europeanised cohort.

Real, Mitnick & Maloney (2010) has also documented significant inter-generational differences in values intrinsically related to work. Their study found that the incoming workers within the US construction industry, relative to the older cohorts, placed significantly more importance on intrinsic work values. In addition, Cennamo & Gardner (2008) as well as Lyons, Duxbury & Higgins (2005) have also documented inter-generational differences in prestige related work values. In both cases, the incoming generation of workforce within the New Zealand and Canadian workforce respectively have placed, relative to older cohorts, significantly more importance on prestige related work values.

The findings of the study reinforce the notion of significant inter-generational differences in intrinsic and prestige related work values, found in studies across different cultural contexts (US, New Zealand and Canada) and occupations (construction, pharmaceutical distribution, information technology, recruitment, media and law firms). However, a closer examination reveals that the status and intrinsically driven new generation of workforce implied by the findings of these studies was unfound in the Greek members of the Europeanised generation. This distinction relates to the impact of national cultural on generational identity.

For instance, the members of the Greek incoming generation of workforce appear to be more willing to “wait their turn” for the attainment of personal growth than their counterparts in Western societies influenced by the highly in group/ collectivist cultural orientation of the Greek society. Papalexandris, Chalikias & Panayotopoulou (2002) emphasise that strong family bonds is a prominent characteristic of the Greek society. The reflection of this norm in the organisational context is that when a need for personnel appears, frequently

owners-managers prefer to make an internal transfer than to trust even more skilled “out-group” individuals (Makridakis et al, 1997). Myloni, Harzing & Mirza (2004) further, notes that out-group individuals, and particularly those achieving individual roles are commonly treated in Greek society with suspicion and mistrust. In addition, a by-product of this in-group and out-group distinction is Greek “anti-authoritarianism”, which is a characteristic feature of Greek management culture (Bourantas & Papadakis, 1996). The reflection of this norm is evident in the incoming generation of Greek workforce who contrary to their counterparts in Western countries is showing a warm acceptance to people with authority and is less willing to participate in decision-making and shoulder responsibilities.

This finding has further implications because as recently argued by Edmunds and Turner (2005) the formative influences that shape post-80’s generational identity, such as technology, economics and cultural trends, now transcend borders, perhaps making Millennials the first “global generation”. Reinforcing the notion of global generations, researchers and commentators from around the world, have applied Millennials characteristics (largely based on N. American accounts) to describe the youth cohorts in various cultures. These cultural contexts include, Australia (Taylor, 2012; Wong et al., 2008), New Zealand (Cenammo & Gardner, 2008), the UK (Terjesen et al., 2007), Belgium (DeCooman & Dries, 2012), Germany (Breitsohl & Ruhle, 2012), South Africa (Martins & Martins, 2012), China (Porschitz, Guo & Alves, 2012), Pakistan (Khilji, 2004), Turkey (Inelmen, Zeytinoglu & Uyger, 2012) and Cyprus (Zopiatis, Krambia-Kapardis, & Varnavas, 2012). However, the degree to which the attributes of North American Millennials can be exported to various cultures is a matter of debate.

The findings of this study provide therefore the opportunity to tourism and hospitality research to engage with wider debates within mainstream management literature and particularly that of the “global youth identity”. In particular, the findings discussed above indicate that there are prominent cultural norms, which in the case of work values create marked distinctions

among the incoming generation of workforce in the Greek organisational context and the incoming generation of workforce within countries from the Anglo cultural cluster (US, Canada and New Zealand). Thus, contrary to the above scholars that advocate the notion of global generations, the findings of the study provide support to the stream of research (i.e., Vincent, 2005) that considers generational identity as a product of one's specific cultural context.

Furthermore, the findings of the study revealed that although both gender (male vs. female) and operational pattern (seasonal vs. year-round hotels) have significant effect on the work values of hotel workers, they are not capable of confounding the relationship established between work values and generational identity. This means that generational identity remains a predictor of work values even when the effect of gender and operational pattern is taken into account. While the effect of operational pattern has not previously been taken into consideration on this topic, the findings regarding the effect of gender is in line to previous evidence documented by Lyons, Higgins, & Duxbury, (2005) who found that gender was a significant predictor of generational differences in work values, among Canadian workers.

The above findings provide scarce evidence regarding the effect of demographic and organisational attributes on work values across generations and thus extend research on this topic. As Parry & Urwin (2011; p.94) note, consideration of attributes such as gender in work values across generations is a "way forward for an academic literature which would be aligned with the theoretical foundations identified in sociology (where generations have to be socially 'close' to events) and the modern-day focus on empirical validation, with reference to work values (where we must operationalize less heterogeneous groups)". Nevertheless, the findings of the study extend research on the topic of work values across generations by adding evidence from the relatively unexplored organisational context of hotel sector workforce. Moreover, the findings of the study add first time evidence from the cultural context of Greek organisations further extending therefore cross-cultural research on this topic.

6.2 Key contributions

In this study, a first step has been undertaken towards understanding the nature of work values and particularly how work values maybe assessed and structured and what types of work values are likely within the organisational context of tourism and hospitality. This study has argued that the multiple perspectives and approaches to studying values in the general life domain are a fertile ground for developing a conceptual framework to studying values within the life domain of work. To date, these multidisciplinary perspectives (i.e., organisational behaviour, applied psychology) have received scarce attention in tourism and hospitality literature.

First, current tourism and hospitality research on this topic is predominately based on a single work values assessment namely Super's (1970) Work Values Inventory. Work values inventories measure the relative importance of the work aspects conceptualised to comprise the domain of participants' work values. Therefore, the content of the inventory has important implications for the conceptualisation that may emerge. Although the content of Super's (1970) Work Values Inventory was contemporary at the time first adopted within tourism and hospitality by Pizam and his colleagues (Neuman, Pizam, & Reichel, 1980; Pizam & Lewis, 1979; Pizam, Reichel, & Neumann, 1980) its adequacy to cover the breadth of the 21st century organisational context is questionable.

As a case in point, Super & Nevill, (1986) and Zytowski (2006) have introduced the Value Scale and Super's Work Values Inventory Revised respectively. The introduction of these measures as noted by the above scholars, was imposed by the need to cover the values that have emerged since its development and to improve the reliability of the scales by increasing their length⁷. Yet Super's (1970) Work Values Inventory is at the heart of tourism and hospitality

⁷ The Values Scale includes 21 work values each assessed by 5 items and Super's Work Values Inventory Revised comprises of 12 work values each assessed by 3 items

scholarship on the concept of work values. Consequently, most conceptualisations of work values within tourism and hospitality literature are deficient because a) they attempt to conceptualise isolated classifications of work values as constructs intrinsically and/or extrinsically related to work and b) they lack inclusion of other aspects that are likely important in current organisational context such as innovation, interaction with customer and stress avoidance. The latter is clearly evidenced in White's (2006) multinational study of work values where his analysis of data scores assessed by Super's (1970) Work Values Inventory did not conform to the 15 work values sub-scales as proposed by Super (1970). In terms of the former, with the exception of Wong & Liu's (2009) findings, no other published study within tourism and hospitality research help us understand how the intrinsic/extrinsic classification inherent in Super's (1970) Work Values Inventory is manifested in the derived conceptualisations (see table 2.6).

The fact that extant tourism and hospitality work values research is based on a single inventory, is endemic of the larger issue that assessment of work values within the wider social science has until recently relied on a narrow conception of the work values domain. Indeed, current discussions within the organisational context (i.e., Berings, de Fruyt & Bouwen, 2004; Leuty & Hansen, 2012; Lyons, Duxbury & Higgins, 2010; Rounds & Armstrong, 2005) emphasise the similarity of work aspects covered by many of the existing inventories. Closer examination of the content of five popular work values inventories - the Minnesota Importance Questionnaire (Rounds, Henley, Dawis, Lofquist, & Weiss, 1981), Super's (1970) Work Values Inventory, Manhardt's (1972) Work Values Inventory, Pryor's (1981) Work Aspects Preference Scale and Nevil & Super's (1986) Values Scale – has also revealed considerable similarity despite the varying conceptualisations that directed the design of the measures (c.f., section 4.6). Leuty & Hansen's (2012) study of construct validity across a set of popular work value inventories revealed that neither of the inventories under investigation (i.e., MIQ, SWVI-R, MWVI) was able to adequately capture the breadth of the domain. Thus, they call for the exploration of aspects of work

beyond those covered by traditional inventories, a challenge taken up by this study.

The Sixteen Work Values Scale, the measure developed to assess work values for the purpose of this study, contributes to hospitality and tourism research by showing an alternative approach for measuring the construct. The design of the scale draws attention to the theoretically and empirically established conceptualisation of values as a higher-order construct and highlights the assessment of values within the organisational context of the hotel sector that results from measuring the underlying patterns of hotel workers' priorities for a set of 16 work aspects. Notably, each of the four factors conceptualised to structure the domain of values within the organisational context of the hotel sector, comprises of an equal number of work aspects, as ideally proposed for multidimensional constructs (Durvasula, Netemeyer, Andrews, & Lysonski, 2006).

Emphasis has also been placed on the content of the scale which captures a number of distinctive aspects of work within the construct of work values (i.e., esteem – having a work where you are being recognised and valued for your skills and personality, organisation – having a work in an organisation that you feel proud to work for). In addition, the scale integrates a set of modernised features of the most widely accepted aspects of work within the construct of work values (i.e., stability – having a work that provides you with stability and continuity, schedule – having a work with convenient hours, decision making – having a work where you actively participate in the organisation's decision making process). Moreover, the scale incorporates some contemporary aspects of work within the construct of work values (i.e., innovation – having a work in an organisation preoccupied with innovation and change, stress avoidance – having a work with relaxed atmosphere that causes little pressure or stress, interaction – having a work that provides you with the opportunity to daily interact with customers). Within this context, the Sixteen Work Values Scale extends hospitality and tourism research on work values by offering a more

contemporary, parsimonious and balanced approach that aims to update the assessment of work values within the field of study.

Second, extant research regarding the conceptualisation of work values within tourism and hospitality is mostly based on inductive approaches that have no a priori theoretical standpoints and that reinforce simplistic operationally driven views of work values. Although there is a growing volume of scholarship on the conceptualisation of work values as direct manifestations of values in the life domain of work, it has not gained ground within tourism and hospitality research. Instead, each relevant study within tourism and hospitality proposes a unique conceptualisation of work values, often as a class of unrelated constructs. As a result, extant literature offers an amalgam of work value typologies and structures that have no relevance neither to the motivational content of values nor its high-order coherent structure. Thus, future researchers are placed in an unsatisfactory situation of dealing with an empirical base with findings difficult to compare and/or to combine and more importantly without linkage to relevant theoretical background.

The derived conceptualisation of work values as a coherent, high-order construct contributes to hospitality and tourism by providing some of the missing framework for understanding the structure of work values. The strength of the approach lies in the theoretical basis of the conceptualisation, which initially treats values as a high-order construct, following Schwartz's (1992) universal theory of basic values (see section 2.3) and accordingly considers work values structured in a high-order manner as manifestations of values in the life domain of work (see section 2.5). Grounding the theoretical framework into the broader development of values research provides a more meaningful pattern of conceptualising the domain of work values comparing to formats soliciting constructs from the isolated work values literature.

Furthermore, the derived types of work values namely social, prestige, intrinsic and extrinsic broadly corroborate Ros, Schwartz & Surkiss's (1999) model of work values. This model, as noted in section 2.5.3, reflects work-specific expression of Schwartz's (1992), widely accepted across societies, types of

values (openness to change, conservation, self-transcendence and self-enhancement). Within this context, intrinsic work values are seen as direct expressions of openness to change values; the pursuit of advancement, autonomy, innovation and use of abilities within the life domain of work. In addition, extrinsic work values are considered as parallel to conservation values; stress avoidance, benefits, earnings and stability provide workers with the conditions needed for maintenance of order in their lives. Furthermore, social work values reflect the pursuit of self-transcendence values; work is considered as a means for esteem, friendship with co-workers, and interaction with customer. Nevertheless, prestige work values denote self-enhancement values; work is seen as a vehicle for having authority and influence over people as well as gaining power and status.

The derived conceptualisation contributes to hospitality and tourism research by providing an approach, which directs in a more readily and contemporary way the operationalisation of the work values domain, and leads to a more theoretical interpretation of empirical observations of work aspects pertaining to this domain of work values. It is also in line with previous studies (i.e., Elizur & Sagie, 1996; Jin & Round, 2012; Lyons, Higgins, & Duxbury, 2010; Ros, Schwartz & Surkiss, 1999), which consider work values as projections of values in the life domain of work, facilitating therefore the comparison and the combination of findings. Thus, the derived model of work values provides the opportunity to field researchers to engage with wider debates about the conceptualisation of work values within mainstream behavioural research.

This study has also taken a first step towards understanding the formation of generational identity within the organisational context of tourism and hospitality. It has been argued that the socio-psychological approaches to studying generations are a fertile ground for developing a conceptual framework to studying the topic within the organisational context of Greek hotel organisations. To date, these approaches have received scarce attention in tourism and hospitality research.

Current tourism and hospitality research on the topic mostly relies on popular practitioners' beliefs of age-based cohorts that were derived by non empirical sources and that reinforce North American definitions of generations as globally appropriate. Although there is a rich tradition of scholarship on the concept of generations as a cultural specific phenomenon, it has not gained ground within tourism and hospitality research. Further, this research does not help us understand how the raise in post World War II births in North America, the assassination of Kennedy, the Vietnam War and/or the civil rights movement impacted the formative years of people outside the North American cultural context in order to constitute events that marked their generational timeline. Yet the North American generational timeline is at the heart of the tourism and hospitality scholarship on the concept of generational identity.

This study contributes to tourism and hospitality research by showing that considering generational identity as a culture specific phenomenon is critical for understanding multigenerational symbiosis within the multinational organisational context of tourism and hospitality organisations. As noted, most of the studies fail to take into consideration the specific historical and cultural circumstances in which the different generational conceptualisations emerged in different national contexts. In doing so, none of them build on the central assumption of generational theory: *"the social distance represented by the "generational gap" ... is local and specific and emergent from personal biography and family and community situation"* (Vincent, 2005, p.583). Thus, defining a generation of Greeks using the historical and cultural circumstances of North Americans is unhelpful. In contrast, the conceptual framework of this study determines the unique generational boundaries of Greek hotel workers using revolutionary events that came to occupy the Greek socio-political stage of post World War II history. The specific case study of Greece can therefore provide learning for researchers and practitioners in different national contexts. By drawing attention to the chronological succession as a key aspect of generational formation and by determining generational boundaries using revolutionary events that are contingent on the specific cultural context (depending on the nation of interest) in which they became meaningful, scholars

and practitioners can explore and establish empirically generational groups unique to the that national culture.

Portugal represents an indicative case as this country shares post World War II historical similarities to Greece including (a) the transition from dictatorship to democracy during the mid 1970's (b) the EU accession in the 1980's (c) the replacement of their national currencies by euro in 2002 (European Monetary Union) and (d) the debt crisis that faces the past five years. Using the proposed conceptual framework to demarcate the generational timeline of Portuguese workforce a four-fold legacy of events could be distinguished. Oliveira Salazar's 1949 institution of the first of the two five-year fiscal schemes that aimed to develop his corporatist "*Estado Novo*" (New State) which was first established in 1933 and the 1968 succession of Salazar by Marcello Caetano. In addition, catalytic role to the modern Portuguese history has played the 1986 accession in the E.E.C, which caused a paradigm shift towards westernized standards. Furthermore, the 2002 accession into the Euro-zone facilitated a wider integration for Portugal into the European Union structures. Within this context, there are three generational age-based cohorts prevalent in current Portuguese workforce:

(a) the Estado Novo's (1947-1968). The members of this generation were raised in authoritarian and colonial context.

(b) the Carnation's (1969-1986). The members were marked by the Carnation revolution in 1974 which put an end both to Portugal's colonial remnants and the half century authoritarian regime inaugurated by Salazar.

(c) the Europeanised generation (1987-2002). Contrary to the previous age-based cohorts, members of this generation have only experienced democratic governance which has mainly concentrated on the integration into the wider structures of the European Union.

The location in a chronological order is assumed to provide each of the above age-based cohorts with a distinctive set of values that emerged as a product of

a living through experience from the successive entry into adulthood and endure as cohorts travelling through time together.

6.3 Practical considerations

The theory of work adjustment (Dawis & Lofquist, 1984) suggests that when workers perceive a job or employers to provide them with psychological benefits and good opportunities for social interaction, they will perceive a strong fit with their personal values, encouraging them to choose a job with that employer, to be engaged in their work and to choose to stay in that job. The findings of this study suggest that employers seeking to attract, engage and retain Greek hotel workers should emphasize the intellectual and social benefits of the job and organization. It is good news to Greek employers that, in the midst of an economic rebuilding period, hotel workers are not as focused on pay and benefits as their counterparts in other countries. Employers should endeavor to create jobs and work environments that provide intangible benefits such as variety, creative expression, intellectual stimulation, social interaction and strong work relationships. These are all elements of organizational culture that will attract, engage and retain hotel workers, even in the absence of pay and prestige.

In addition, the cyclical employment environment imposed by seasonality, as noted by Joliffe & Farnsworth (2003), demands from human resource professionals to devote extraordinary resources in personnel recruitment, selection, training and ultimately retention. In particular, HR professionals employed in the Greek hotel sector, one of the few sectors that continue to grow, due to ever-increasing rates of unemployment are faced with the daunting task of selecting potential employees from a vast pile of applications. Knowing that job applicants have a preference for specific aspects of work but also knowledge of their deeper work value patterns allows them to select those that best fit the values reinforced in the specific work environment and thus reduce costs associated with employee turnover (Hansen & Leuty, 2012; Lyons, Higgins, & Duxbury, 2010) .

Furthermore, generational identity has been established by the study findings as a pertinent basis for categorising members of the workforce. Understanding the underlying structure of generations' work values and knowing which aspects of work are of greatest importance to the various generations is an important first step but the application of this knowledge to managerial practices is the pragmatic challenge.

An innovative and cost-effective professional development practise that may capitalise by this knowledge is reverse mentoring. It is an inverted type of mentoring relationship, whereby younger, junior employees are paired-up with older, senior colleagues to help them acquire new learning (Chaudhuri & Ghosh, 2012; Allen, McManus, & Russell, 1999; Kram & Hall, 1996). Murhpy (2012, p.550) emphasise that this type of developmental tool holds promise "for building the leadership pipeline, fostering better intergenerational relationships, enhancing diversity initiatives, and driving innovation". It is also a creative way to engage the incoming generation of workforce and a forum for young cohorts to have immediate impact and develop strong work relationships with members holding leadership positions (Hewlett, Sherbin & Sumberg, 2009). Taking into consideration the ever-increasing reliance of the hotel sector on younger workers to cover the labour-intensive positions, field researchers and academics might need to redirect their focus on the opportunities offered by reverse mentorship for attracting, engaging and ultimately retaining young talents. Understanding the underlying structure of generations' work values and knowing which aspects of work are of greatest importance to the various generations could facilitate the building a foundation for integrating reverse mentorships relationships within tourism and hospitality organisations.

6.4 Limitations

The findings revealed and the inferences drawn from this study should be considered in light of the limitations inherited from the adopted research design. For example, this study utilised a two-step factor analytic technique (exploratory and confirmatory) for exploring the structure underlying the work values domain

(research objective 1). As noted in the literature review (Chapter 2 & 3), factor analysis is the most commonly adopted technique utilised by scholars aimed at uncovering the structure of work values. However, as further discussed in the literature review (Chapter 2) a number of studies have also provided theoretically and statistically rigorous findings using different analytic techniques such as cluster analysis (i.e., Wong & Liu, 2009) and Smallest Space Analysis (i.e., Lyons, Duxbury & Higgins, 2010). Exploring, therefore, the structure observed here using different analytic techniques would provide additional confidence regarding the validity and the generalizability of the proposed conceptualisation of work values.

In addition, the cross sectional character of the study has inevitably prevented the estimation of time variables effects and thus determining definitive conclusions about independent and dependent causality over time. Longitudinal designs can provide a solution to overcome this kind of limitation. In particular, a study, which begins the assessment of workers value priorities at a young age and follows several age-based cohorts longitudinally as they move through their working lives, would have been an ideal design for studying the topic.

Furthermore, this study was constrained to a specific geographical area and this may well limit the national representativeness of the sample. Despite the fact that the sample was proportional to the generational composition of the Greek hotel sector future studies should strive to capture a wider geographical area with further emphasis on insular regions. In addition, the sample used here was limited to hotels of four- to five-star rating and more than 150 rooms. More research would need to be conducted to examine the degree to which these results generalise to other classes of hotel. Nevertheless, the focus on the hotel sector delimited the generalisability of the findings to other tourism activities due to the unique characteristics of the sector. Therefore, the potential to make inference about other business activities of tourism is limited but in this manner the researcher neutralised the industry effect in the findings which in turn can be considered tailored to luxury hotel organisations.

6.5 Directions for future research

Notably the study of values within the organisational context offers a number of worthwhile avenues to conduct investigations that can assist stakeholders in developing practices to enhance multigenerational symbiosis within tourism and hospitality. Recently, our understanding of work values has been enhanced by looking at the phenomenon as a manifestation of values in the life domain of work. Yet a comprehensive model for understanding work values within tourism and hospitality has not been forthcoming. Taking into consideration that work values is an important predictor of satisfaction in the workplace, it is a topic that is ripe for exploring further theoretical and empirical developments. The model derived in this study is a first step in this direction. The conceptual framework provides detailed heuristics on how work values may be assessed, how they can be structured and what types of work values might ensue within the organisational context of hotel sector. It is the author's intention this conceptual framework to offer directions that can facilitate the development of further lines of inquiry on this topic within the field of tourism and hospitality.

For example, future research may also seek to validate the applicability of the proposed work values conceptualisation across different organisational contexts within tourism and hospitality. This study developed a theoretical framework that specified the content and the structure of the work values domain within the hotel sector. Exploratory and confirmatory factor analysis of data derived by both seasonal and year-round hotel workers empirically validated the hypothesised structure. Thus, an interesting extension would be to compare the work related values of hotel workers to other related sectors (i.e., airlines, tour operators and restaurants) and thus enhance a better understanding of work values within the field of study.

Future research should also explore the proposed conceptualization in different cultural environments to generalize their applicability. The conceptualisation of the study provides a reasonable basis for anticipating that the four work value factors, like Schwartz's (1992) types of basic values of which they represent

work-specific projections, are likely to be found in further cultural contexts. Nonetheless, cross-cultural research on societal cultural values indicates that Greece does not represent a unique structure. Specifically, the findings of the GLOBE project (House, et al., 1999) describe Greece as part of the Eastern European cluster that consists of countries such as Slovenia, Russia, Poland, Hungary, Kazakhstan, Georgia and Albania (Javidan, Stahl, Brodbeck, & Wilderom, 2005). Generally, countries from this cluster tend to tolerate more uncertainty and seem to practice more gender egalitarianism than the rest of the participating countries as a whole (Bakaksi, Sandor, Andras, & Victor, 2002).

In addition, the proposed multidimensional scale of extrinsic, intrinsic, social and prestige work values can be considered as a contextual backdrop into which additional work aspects can be integrated, offering a more articulate perspective for classifying individuals according to their work values priorities. As Lyons, Higgins and Duxbury (2010) noted, each adding aspect can eventually provide a more detail picture of the overall landscape of the domain.

Moreover, future scholars within the wider realm of organisational studies may consider to meaningfully exploring the concept of global youth identity in the workplace using the concept of work values. This type of research has the potentials to provide invaluable evidence whether post 80's generational identity is a culture specific or a global phenomenon, a critical debate in mainstream organisational research. In addition, it provides the opportunity to answer Joshi, Dencker, Franz and Martocchio's (2010) call in the *Academy of Management Review*, for developing a perceptual measure of various components of generational identity within the organisational context. Values, as trans-situational goals with variable importance that guide the life of a person and/or a group (Schwartz, 1992) represent an integral component of generational identity. Many sociologists (i.e., Edmunds & Turner, 2005; Vincent, 2005), taking their lead from Mannheim's (1952/1928) seminal work on generations, posit that generational identity is shaped by a unique and collective set of values that emerge as a "coming of age ritual" influenced by historical

circumstances of that period. The findings of this study revealed that age-based cohorts within the Greek workforce have distinct work values reinforcing thus the notion of generational identity as a set of distinct values within the organisational context. Hence, based on the conceptual framework of this study researchers may explore whether the intrinsic, extrinsic, prestige and/or social aspects of an organisational context predict identification with youth's generational identity across various cultural contexts (i.e., within and across the GLOBE cultural clusters).

Finally, given the infancy of this research area, it has to be acknowledged that the conceptual framework developed for the purpose of this study and the findings unveiled is a first step in building a basis for future generational and work values research within the tourism and hospitality organisational context.

Appendix A List of luxury hotels in Macedonia

	Name	Type	Rooms	Beds	Operation	Class	Location
1	MELITON BEACH	Hotel	486	1203	May-October	5*****	Neos Marmaras
2	PALLINI BEACH	Hotel	485	999	April-October	4****	Kallithea
3	SITHONIA BEACH	Hotel	485	1135	April-October	5*****	Neos Marmaras
4	SANI BEACH	Hotel	467	903	April-October	4****	Sani
5	ATHOS PALACE	Hotel	414	863	April-October	4****	Kallithea
6	CAPSIS	Hotel	407	708	Year-round	4****	Thessaloniki
7	SIMANDRO BEACH	Hotel	367	734	April-October	5*****	Sani
8	OCEANIA CLUB	Hotel & Hotel Apartments	346	649	Year-round	5*****	Nea Moudania
9	KASSANDRA PALACE	Hotel	334	691	Year-round	5*****	Kriopigi
10	ARISTOTELES	Hotel	332	606	May-October	4****	Ouranopolis
11	MAKEDONIA PALACE	Hotel	287	530	Year-round	5*****	Thessaloniki
12	OLYMPIAN BAY	Hotel	272	524	May-October	4****	Leptokaria
13	GRAND HOTEL PALACE	Hotel	267	451	Year-round	5*****	Thessaloniki
14	POSEIDON PALACE	Hotel	254	524	Year-round	4****	Leptokaria
15	ALEXANDRA BEACH	Hotel	222	571	May-October	4****	Potos
16	ALEXANDROS	Hotel	219	436	May-October	5*****	Nea Roda
17	ALEXANDER THE GREAT BEACH	Hotel	216	410	April-October	4****	Kriopigi
18	ANTHEMUS SEA	Hotel	214	457	April-October	5*****	Nikiti
19	THE MET	Hotel	213	398	Year-round	5*****	Thessaloniki
20	MAKRYAMMOS	Hotel	206	402	April-October	4****	Makryamos
21	PORTO SANI	Hotel Apartments	196	299	April-October	5*****	Sani
22	HYATT REGENCY	Hotel	196	312	Year-round	5*****	Thessaloniki
23	POTIDEA PALACE	Hotel	193	464	April-October	4****	Agios Mamas
24	DION PALACE RESORT	Hotel	190	356	Year-round	4****	Gritsa
25	SANI BEACH CLUB	Hotel	186	391	April-October	5*****	Sani
26	PORTES BEACH	Hotel	179	350	May-October	4****	Agios Mamas
27	ATHENA PALACE VILLAGE	Hotel	179	388	Year-round	4****	Nikiti
28	PORTO PALACE	Traditional hotel	178	362	Year-round	L'CLASS	Thessaloniki
29	HOLIDAY INN THESSALONIKI	Hotel	178	335	Year-round	5*****	Thessaloniki
30	MEDITERRANEAN VILLAGE	Hotel	177	388	Year-round	5*****	Paralia Kallitheas
31	PLATAMON PALACE	Hotel	177	338	Year-round	5*****	Platamonas

32	EAGLES PALACE	Hotel	176	364	April-October	5*****	Ouranopolis
33	THEOXENIA	Hotel	176	314	April-October	4****	Ouranopolis
34	BLUE DOLPHIN-SARGANI	Hotel	167	317	April-October	4****	Metamorfossi
35	PORTES MELATHRON	Hotel	164	300	April-October	4****	Agios Mamas
36	MENDI	Hotel	163	322	April-October	4****	Kalandra
37	THEOPHANO IMPERIAL PALACE	Hotel	155	355	Year-round	5*****	Kassandria
38	AEGEAN MELATHRON	Hotel	151	318	April-October	5*****	Kallithea
39	LUCY	Hotel	149	299	Year-round	5*****	Kavala
40	GALAXY	Hotel	149	207	Year-round	4****	Kavala
41	ISTION CLUB	Hotel	146	324	May-October	5*****	Agios Mamas
42	ELECTRA PALACE	Hotel	138	258	Year-round	5*****	Thessaloniki
43	ILIO MARE	Hotel	137	276	April-October	5*****	Skala Prinou
44	POSSIDI HOLIDAYS	Hotel	135	287	April-October	5*****	Kalandra
45	METAMORFOSSI	Hotel	133	294	May-October	4****	Metamorfossi
46	CITY	Hotel	133	178	Year-round	4****	Thessaloniki
47	AMMON ZEUS	Hotel	126	248	May-October	4****	Kallithea
48	SUN BEACH	Hotel	126	238	Year-round	4****	Agia Triada
49	MEDITERRANEAN PALACE	Hotel	125	225	Year-round	5*****	Thessaloniki
50	HANIOTI GRANDOTEL	Hotel	121	181	Year-round	4****	Haniotis
51	KOUROS	Hotel	117	248	Year-round	4****	Drama
52	NIKOPOLIS THESSALONIKI	Hotel	116	221	Year-round	5*****	Pylea
53	ANASTASIA RESORT	Hotel	114	224	Year-round	5*****	Nea Skioni
54	MELATHRON RESORT	Hotel	104	235	April-October	5*****	Kriopigi
55	ALEA	Hotel	104	255	May-October	4****	Skala Prinou
56	ELPIDA RESORT	Hotel	104	225	Year-round	4****	Seres
57	TOSCA BEACH	Hotel	100	199	May-October	4****	Kavala
58	HANIOTI PALACE	Hotel	92	172	April-October	4****	Haniotis
59	GERANION	Hotel	90	168	Year-round	4****	Nikiti
60	XENIA	Hotel	88	176	May-October	4****	Ouranopolis
61	ALIA PALACE	Hotel	88	168	Year-round	5*****	Pefkohori
62	ELINOTEL APOLAMARE	Hotel	87	175	April-October	5*****	Haniotis
63	PHILIPPION	Hotel	87	159	Year-round	4****	Thessaloniki
64	GRAND PLATON	Hotel	86	178	Year-round	4****	Olymbiaki Akti
65	SIRIS	Hotel	82	205	Not provided	4****	Lefkonas
66	FLEGRA PALACE	Hotel	80	105	April-October	4****	Pefkohori
67	ASTERIAS	Hotel	79	100	April-October	5*****	Sani

68	LESSE	Hotel	79	156	May-October	4****	Haniotis
69	ROYAL PARADISE BEACH RESORT	Hotel	78	176	May-October	5*****	Theologos
70	SANTA	Hotel	78	120	Year-round	4****	Agia Triada
71	EKIES	Hotel	75	152	April-October	4****	Vourvourou
72	LES LAZARISTES	Hotel	74	147	Year-round	5*****	Thessaloniki
73	AD IMPERIAL PALACE	Traditional Hotel	74	129	Year-round	A'CLASS	Thessaloniki
74	NEPHELI	Hotel	70	130	Year-round	4****	Panorama
75	AGIONISSI RESORT	Hotel	68	137	April-October	4****	Amouliani
76	MEDITERRANEAN RESORT	Hotel	68	136	Year-round	4****	Paralia Katerinis
77	ANATOLIA	Hotel	68	99	Year-round	4****	Thessaloniki
78	RENAISSANCE HANIOTI RESORT	Hotel Apartments	65	130	Year-round	4****	Haniotis
79	POSSIDI PARADISE	Hotel	63	124	March-December	4****	Possidi
80	ATRIUM	Hotel	61	118	May-October	4****	Potos
81	AEGEAN BLUE	Hotel	60	120	Year-round	4****	Nea Kalikratia
82	ROYAL HOTEL	Hotel	60	124	Year-round	4****	Plagiari
83	OLYMPION SUNSET	Hotel	59	100	Year-round	5*****	Fourka
84	FILIPPOS XENIA	Hotel	59	98	Year-round	4****	Seres
85	ALCYON	Hotel Apartments	59	119	Not provided	4****	Kriopigi
86	AIGES	Hotel	58	112	Year-round	4****	Veria
87	BLUE BAY	Hotel	57	117	April-October	4****	Afitos
88	THE TOBACCO HOTEL	Traditional Hotel	57	102	Year-round	A'CLASS	Thessaloniki
89	ESPEROS PALACE	Hotel	55	127	Year-round	4****	Kastoria
90	BLUE DREAM PALACE	Hotel	54	108	April-October	4****	Limenaria
91	DANAI BEACH	Hotel	54	145	Year-round	5*****	Nikiti
92	KINISSI PALACE	Hotel	52	110	Year-round	4****	Thessaloniki
93	LIMNEON GOLDEN	Hotel	51	116	Year-round	4****	Dispilio
94	MARANTON BEACH	Hotel	50	136	April-October	4****	Kinira
95	MARTHA'S HAUS	Hotel	50	103	May-October	4****	Gerakini
96	KORNILIOS PALAN	Hotel	50	104	Year-round	4****	Anhialos
97	THEA DIMITRA	Hotel Apartments	50	100	Year-round	4****	Mouries
98	PANORAMA	Hotel	50	85	Year-round	4****	Panorama
99	DAIOS HOTEL	Hotel	49	199	Year-round	5*****	Thessaloniki
100	CAVO OLYMPO	Hotel	49	114	Not provided	5*****	Litohoro
101	ANTIGONE	Hotel	48	100	May-October	4****	Livrohi
102	GOLDEN ALEXANDRA	Hotel	47	122	May-October	5*****	Skala Panagias
103	DANAE	Hotel	47	99	Year-round	4****	Olymbiaki Akti

104	AFKOS GRAMMOS	Hotel	46	99	Not provided	4****	Nestorio
105	EGNATIA	Hotel	45	84	Year-round	4****	Kavala
106	AEOLIS THASSOS PALACE	Hotel	45	97	Not provided	4****	Astrida
107	GOLDEN STAR	Hotel	44	82	Year-round	4****	Perea
108	ANDROMEDA	Traditional Hotel	44	64	Year-round	A'CLASS	Thessaloniki
109	EGNATIA PALACE	Traditional Hotel	43	93	Year-round	A'CLASS	Thessaloniki
110	AMFIPOLIS	Hotel	42	78	May-October	4****	Limenas Thassou
111	TROPICAL	Hotel Apartments	42	72	May-October	4****	Kalandra
112	ESAI	Hotel	41	93	April-October	5*****	Nea Roda
113	GEORGE	Hotel Apartments	40	68	May-October	4****	Kriopigi
114	KAIMAK INN RESORT	Hotel	40	80	October-April	4****	Paleos Agios Athanassios
115	XENIA	Hotel	40	74	Year-round	4****	Edessa
116	ELANI BAY RESORT	Hotel	39	72	May-October	4****	Siviri
117	LIMNEON RESORT HOTEL	Hotel	38	86	Year-round	5*****	Dispilio
118	KROTIRI RESORT	Hotel	36	96	June-September	4****	Agios Nikolaos
119	EUROPA	Hotel	36	68	Year-round	4****	Kastoria
120	MINERVA	Traditional hotel	36	73	Year-round	A'CLASS	Thessaloniki
121	ST.GEORGE ASPROVALTA	Hotel	35	68	Year-round	4****	Asprovalta
122	EXCELSIOR	Traditional hotel	34	67	Year-round	L'CLASS	Thessaloniki
123	MIRAMONTE CHALET	Hotel	31	63	October-April	4****	Paleos Agios Athanassios
124	ACHILLION	Hotel	31	63	Year-round	4****	Kalambaki
125	LITOHORO RESORT	Hotel	31	71	Year-round	4****	Plaka
126	OCEANOS	Hotel	30	64	April-October	4****	Skala Potamias
127	MARGARITA	Hotel	30	56	May-September	4****	Kallithea
128	IMARET	Traditional hotel	30	60	Year-round	L'CLASS	Kavala
129	NOTOS	Hotel	29	51	April-October	4****	Potos
130	ACROPOL	Hotel	29	65	Year-round	4****	Lefkonas
131	OLYMPIC STAR	Hotel	28	70	April-October	4****	Nei Pori
132	VASSILITSA RESORT	Hotel	28	56	Year-round	4****	Panorama
133	IOANNOU RESORT HOTEL	Hotel	28	56	Year-round	4****	Perdikas
134	KA-LA	Hotel Apartments	27	54	May-September	4****	Kriopigi
135	SAMARINA RESORT	Hotel	27	48	Not provided	4****	Samarina
136	VILLA GALINI	Hotel	25	74	April-October	5*****	Neos Marmaras
137	NEVE MOUNTAIN RESORT	Hotel	25	56	October-April	4****	Agios Athanassios
138	GRAND CHALET	Hotel	25	54	Year-round	4****	Granitis
139	COSMOPOLITAN	Hotel	24	54	Year-round	4****	Kallithea

140	AIGAI	Hotel	24	49	Year-round	4****	Edessa
141	OLYMPUS MEDITERRANEAN	Hotel	23	50	Year-round	4****	Litohoro
142	DI TANIA	Hotel	23	46	Year-round	4****	Oreokastro
143	AGAPI	Hotel	22	46	Not provided	4****	Loutraki
144	ZALIKI	Traditional Hotel	21	50	Year-round	A'CLASS	Thessaloniki
145	CAPSIS-BRISTOL	Traditional hotel	20	48	Year-round	L'CLASS	Thessaloniki
146	NYMFES	Hotel	19	43	Year-round	4****	Loutraki
147	P.R.	Hotel	19	35	Year-round	4****	Platamonas
148	NOSTOS	Hotel	18	40	Year-round	4****	Nea Lefki
149	POLYASTRON PLACE	Hotel	16	24	Not provided	4****	Sani
150	AKONTISMA	Traditional Hotel	15	46	Year-round	A'CLASS	Nea Karvali
151	DIAMOND RIVER	Hotel	14	34	Year-round	4****	Maniaki
152	ERMIONIO	Traditional hotel	14	32	Year-round	L'CLASS	Kozani
153	AIOLIS	Traditional Hotel	14	29	Year-round	A'CLASS	Kastoria
154	CHATEAU DE L' OLYMPE	Hotel	12	24	Year-round	4****	Litohoro
155	ARCHONTIKO ALEXIOU VERGOULA	Traditional Hotel	12	24	Year-round	A'CLASS	Kastoria
156	PARTHENONAS	Traditional Hotel	11	21	Year-round	A'CLASS	Neos Marmaras
157	VILLA SEVASTI	Hotel	10	23	Year-round	4****	Sevasti
158	AGHIOS GERMANOS	Traditional Hotel	10	21	Year-round	A'CLASS	Agios Germanos Prespon
159	HAGIATI ANASTASSIOU	Traditional Hotel	10	20	Year-round	A'CLASS	Naoussa
160	ANDROMEDA	Traditional Hotel	10	16	Year-round	A'CLASS	Kastoria
161	DOLTSO	Traditional Hotel	10	20	Not provided	A'CLASS	Kastoria
162	OLD CITY	Traditional Hotel	9	23	Year-round	A'CLASS	Naoussa
163	ARCHONTIKO BOZIKI	Traditional Hotel	9	17	Year-round	A'CLASS	Alistrati
164	IKIA ALEXANDROU	Traditional Hotel	8	19	Year-round	A'CLASS	Arnea
165	IKIA ALEXANDROU-2	Traditional Hotel	6	12	Year-round	A'CLASS	Arnea
166	MARELIA	Traditional Hotel	5	11	Year-round	A'CLASS	Poligiros

Appendix B Questionnaire

Work values across generations.



The Exeter University Business School is currently undertaking a project which explores the work values across generations. We are particularly interested to luxury hotels employees, like you.

The survey takes approximately 10 minutes to complete. It will be time well spent as the outcome will also benefit hotel organisations and employees.

Participation in this research project is entirely voluntary and confidential/anonymous. The name of the participant does not appear anywhere in the questionnaire. Moreover, the final published report will be based on a very large group of people from the broad region of Macedonia, so individual responses will not be identifiable.

By completing the questionnaire, you are indicating that you have understood the conditions of participation and agreed voluntarily to participate.

Having worked in the Greek hospitality industry myself (2004-2008) I appreciate your profession and hope for your support, as not only will this research be helpful to hotel employees and hotel organizations in the future, but it will assist my doctoral research project.

I have administered 700 questionnaires and for every fully completed and returned questionnaire I will donate an additional 0.20 € to the foundation below.



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UNIVERSITY OF
EXETER

Section 1 - Prioritisation of Work Values

Work values are important criteria that individuals use in making decisions about their jobs and careers. Although many values may be important to us, we are often required to make choices between competing values when making work-related decisions.

Carefully read each of the statements listed below and indicate how likely each item is to be **TOP PRIORITY** for you in deciding whether to accept a job or remain in a job by ticking ✓ the appropriate number from 1 to 6 as shown below. **There are no right or wrong answers.**

EXTREMELY UNLIKELY	SOMEWHAT UNLIKELY	VERY UNLIKELY	SOMEWHAT LIKELY	VERY LIKELY	EXTREMELY LIKELY
1	2	3	4	5	6

1. ADVANCEMENT Having a work that provides you the opportunity to promote your career.	1 2 3 4 5 6
2. AUTHORITY Having a work where you organize and direct the work of others.	1 2 3 4 5 6
3. AUTONOMY Having a work that permits you to determine which aspects of your job are more or less important.	1 2 3 4 5 6
4. BENEFITS Having a work that provides you the opportunity to have special rewards that meet your personal needs (car lease, rent, child tuition fees, etc).	1 2 3 4 5 6
5. COLLEAGUES Having a work where colleagues are keen in developing interpersonal relationships, friendships.	1 2 3 4 5 6
6. DECISION MAKING Having a work where you actively participate in the decision making process of the organization.	1 2 3 4 5 6
7. EARNINGS Having a work that provides you the opportunity to earn a substantial income.	1 2 3 4 5 6
8. ESTEEM Having a work where you are being recognized and valued for your skills and personality.	1 2 3 4 5 6
9. INFLUENCE Having a work where your opinion affects organizational outcomes.	1 2 3 4 5 6
10. INNOVATION Having a work in an organization preoccupied with innovation and change.	1 2 3 4 5 6
11. INTERACTION Having a work that provides you with the opportunity to daily interact with customers.	1 2 3 4 5 6
12. INTEREST Having a work that you find interesting, exciting and engaging.	1 2 3 4 5 6
13. ORGANISATION Having a work in an organization that you feel proud to work for.	1 2 3 4 5 6
14. OWNER Having a work where the boss creates and maintains an atmosphere of mutual respect and personal investment among employees.	1 2 3 4 5 6
15. SCHEDULE Having a work with convenient working hours.	1 2 3 4 5 6
16. SOCIAL CONTRIBUTION Having a work that enables you to help others and make a contribution to society.	1 2 3 4 5 6
17. STABILITY Having a work that provides you with stability and continuity.	1 2 3 4 5 6
18. STATUS Having a job title that is looked up by others in the organization and society.	1 2 3 4 5 6
19. STRESS AVOIDANCE Having a work with relaxed atmosphere that causes little pressure or stress.	1 2 3 4 5 6
20. USE OF ABILITIES Having a work that allows you to use the skills and knowledge you have developed through your education and experience.	1 2 3 4 5 6

Section 2 - Personal Information

We need some information about you to help us interpret this questionnaire. To answer the following questions, please tick ✓ the number that best describes you. Please be as accurate and honest as possible, remembering that all responses are held in the strictest confidence.

1. What is your gender?

1 Male

2 Female

2. In which period did you born?

1 Prior to 1946

2 1946-1966

3 1967-1981

4 1982-1996

3. Which is the operational pattern of your hotel?

1 Year-round

2 Seasonal

Section 3 - Comments

Your comments are particularly valuable therefore do not hesitate to use the space below.

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Please do not forget to place the completed questionnaire in the special box situated at the reception desk.

We appreciate and thank you for your participation!

Results of the study can be provided upon request.

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