



**THE INFLUENCE OF JOB CHARACTERISTICS ON THE MOTIVATION OF
MILLENNIAL HOSPITALITY EMPLOYEES**

**By
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DECLARATION OF INDEPENDENT WORK

I, Mothepane Seqhobane, passport number _____ and student number _____, do hereby declare that this research project submitted to the Central University of Technology, Free State, for the degree MASTER OF MANAGEMENT SCIENCES IN HUMAN RESOURCE MANAGEMENT is my own independent work and complies with the Code of Academic Integrity, as well as with other relevant policies, procedures, rules and regulations of the Central University of Technology, Free State; and has not been submitted before to any institution by myself or any other person in fulfilment (or partial fulfilment) of the requirements for the attainment of any qualification.



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SUMMARY

Increased digitalisation has not only transformed the world of work, but also impacted numerous organisational factors such as organisational structure and culture, and job satisfaction and motivation. Various industries, none so than the hospitality industry, must continuously search for and implement new ways of operating to meet both employee and customer expectations. Customers in the hospitality industry are increasingly expecting exceptional service and convenient processes.

The hospitality industry is characterised by numerous challenges, for example, long working hours, often poor compensation and a lack of job flexibility, all of which make the retention of staff a major issue in this labour-intensive industry. As millennials currently constitute more than 50% of the global employment rate they can be regarded as the future leaders of business and industry. It is thus paramount to retain millennial hospitality employees. To address this challenge, the study investigated the influence of job characteristics on the motivation of millennial hospitality employees.

A structured questionnaire was administered through QuestionPro and 96 millennial hospitality employees responded to the survey questions. Due to the nation-wide impact of Covid-19, snowball sampling was used as a way of attracting and reaching out to respondents. The questionnaire included two sections: (1) items measuring job characteristics, based on the job characteristics model of Oldham and Hackman; and (2) items measuring motivation, based on Herzberg's two-factor theory.

Partial least squares structured equation modelling (PLS-SEM) was used to analyse the relationship between the variables of job characteristics and motivation. The results revealed significant positive relationships between skills variety, task significance, and feedback towards motivation. However, no significant relationships were found between autonomy and task identity towards motivation.

Due to the labour-intensive nature of the industry the study proposes that prospective employees including hospitality management students need to have realistic expectations about working in this industry. Areas of further research and limitations of the study are also indicated.

Keywords: Job characteristics, motivation, millennials, baby boomers, generation X, generation Z, hospitality industry, Herzberg's two-factor theory, job characteristics model, QuestionPro.

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LIST OF ACRONYMS

AI	Artificial Intelligence
AIDS	Acquired Immunodeficiency Syndrome
AVE	Average Variance Extracted
CR	Composite Reliability
DIY	Do It Yourself
ERG	Existence, Relatedness and Growth
HR	Human Resource
HRM	Human Resource Management
ICT	Information Communication Technology
IoT	Internet of Things
JCM	Job Characteristics Model
JDS	Job Diagnostic Survey
MTV	Music, Television, Videos
OTA	Online Travel Agent
PLS	Practical Least Squares
SA	South Africa
SEM	Structured Equation Modelling

CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background to the study

With the inception of the 21st century, the world of work has experienced drastic changes, mainly due to the advances of all forms of information communication technology (ICT) and the internet (FadTech4U Admin, 2018; Natter, 2018; Zappa, 2014). Advances in digital technology, together with increased globalisation, have created a highly competitive work environment that is increasingly becoming digital and virtual (Orange, 2018; Padhye, 2018).

Digitalisation has introduced an influx of new job opportunities (e.g., social media managers, digital marketers, data specialists, application developers) and the demand for new competencies. In turn, increased virtualisation and digitalisation have created a new world of work that emphasises both technical skills (e.g., data analysis, technical writing) and soft skills (e.g., communication, intercultural understanding). Sourcing skilled talent is one of the pertinent challenges in the new world of work and, as a result, organisations increasingly use open-source talent. Open-source talent is an online community where employers can access different candidates with applicable and relevant skills and capabilities. Open-source talent has the potential to accommodate and provide proficient individuals in the raising demand for skilled employees (Deloitte, 2016).

Increased digitalisation and virtualisation also have implications for organisational structure and culture because the various forms of digital technology allow individuals to work from anywhere, any time. This not only affects organisational structure, but also leadership and the notion of authority within organisations (Deloitte, 2017).

Apart from the challenges posed by increased digitalisation and virtualisation, another defining characteristic of the new world of work is increased workforce diversity. Workforce diversity implies that individuals with different characteristics such as gender, age, language, sexuality, education and employment background are employed in organisations (Samuels, 2018).

Contemporary organisations also consist of individuals from different generational cohorts, notably baby boomers (individuals born roughly between 1945 and 1965), generation X (born roughly between 1964 and 1980), millennials (born roughly between 1980 and 1995), and generation Z (born roughly between 1996 and 2010) (Francis & Hoefel, 2018).

Currently, there is an influx of millennials into the workplace and they constitute more than 50% of the global workforce (Deloitte, 2018). Due to the growing importance of millennials as future leaders and managers, they were the focus of this investigation. Millennial employees have brought a new dynamic to the workplace (Kane, 2018). Millennials are comfortable using various forms of digital technology and they generally expect good work–life balance, good pay and benefits, opportunities for advancement, meaningful work experiences, and a nurturing work environment. They are often impatient when it comes to waiting for promotion and they want jobs that offer fulfilment and meaning (Eddy, Schweitzer, & Lyons, 2010). An organisation’s mission, vision and values are important to them, as they want to know where they fit into the bigger picture. Monetary compensation is not the only reward that millennials seek. They generally value good working relations, a flexible working environment and recognition from supervisors and/or managers. Millennials are usually peer oriented and need to be treated as individuals (Hewlett, Sherbin, & Sumberg, 2009).

The focus of the study was on the hospitality industry as one of the largest industries in the world. Hospitality is the largest sector within the tourism industry and the term ‘tourism and hospitality industry’ applies widely. Due to its potential for economic growth and job creation, the hospitality industry forms a crucial part of any economy (Fredericks, 2018). The Covid-19 pandemic has, however, had a devastating impact on the hospitality industry globally, as countries closed their borders and all forms of travel and tourism ceased.

Before the outbreak of the pandemic the hospitality industry accounted for one out of every ten jobs worldwide, while, in South Africa, the industry provided for about 740 000 direct jobs and over 1.5 million jobs across the economy (VoyagesAfrica, 2020). It might take some time for the industry to reach this size and impact in a post-Covid world. The industry has, nevertheless, an important role to play in growing an economy, especially in a developing country like South Africa. Millennial employees constitute around 74% of the workforce in the hospitality industry (Hendricks, 2018; Montgomery & Spragg, 2017).

Although many students pursue careers in the hospitality industry, they typically leave within a period of six years (Giang, 2013). Therefore, the industry faces persistent turnover and retention challenges. The hospitality industry covers an extensive group of fields within the service industry including accommodation and lodging (e.g., hotels and guest houses); food and beverage (e.g., restaurants and bars); adventure and recreation (e.g., mountain hiking and abseiling); events (e.g., festivals); entertainment (e.g., casinos and theme parks); and sightseeing and travelling.

Due to the devastating impact of Covid-19 and the closing down/temporary closure of numerous hospitality establishments, this study had numerous difficulties pertaining to data gathering (Mbane, 2017). A notable challenge was the retrenchment of staff and the refusal of many hospitality establishments to grant permission for staff to be targeted for data gathering. The researcher thus resorted to snowball sampling and social media to target millennial hospitality employees across all sectors of the industry (Ali & Clarissa, 2017).

1.2 Previous research

Ruiz (2017) confirms that employee turnover is a pressing challenge for the hospitality industry. Some of the reasons for the high turnover in the hospitality industry are long hours, challenges in work–life balance, and poor compensation (Van Zyl, 2011). Mbane (2017) found a strong correlation between fair compensation and employee retention in the hospitality industry. In their research, Mbane (2017) and Ali and Clarissa (2017) revealed that job satisfaction factors in the hospitality industry, like relationships with

colleagues, meaningful work, professional development, work engagement, fair working hours and health care, have a positive impact on millennial employees' intentions to quit. Further research by Ruiz (2017) and Montgomery and Spragg (2017) emphasises the pressing labour shortage in the hospitality industry and that millennials have a higher turnover rate compared to other generational groups. Their research additionally revealed that millennials are the least satisfied with their jobs.

According to Matthewman (2015), millennials are generally motivated by challenging work, career advancement opportunities, leadership development programmes, and job security. Hannus (2016) noted that, unlike previous generations, millennials want to have strong and solid relationships with their managers. For them, these relationships influence their long-term satisfaction with the organisation. Moreover, millennials seek high transparency within the workplace and want to make a difference in either their own life or others' lives (Jopling, 2014). Millennial employees expect their managers to be clear and honest, and they require trusted guidance from their supervisors and managers (Brown, Carter, Gallerson, Giffin, Greer, Griffith, Johnson, & Richardson, 2018).

Ruiz (2017) further found that millennials in full-service restaurants require engaged learning, positive working conditions – including managers who can encourage good working relationships – and growth opportunities. Similarly, Elsbury (2018) argues that millennials can be retained by providing a positive company culture, showing trust in them, and offering them professional development opportunities. Kane (2018) and Deloitte (2018) add that 38% of millennials are likely to stay with the organisation if their employer supports the local community and is involved in projects such as recycling programmes, volunteer opportunities, and community outreaches. This finding is supported by Jacobs (2016) who indicated that 78% of millennials require their employers to have a positive impact on society.

According to Kim, Knight, and Crustsinger (2009), millennials in the retail environment are active job crafters rather than passive recipients in the conventional job design model. Van Hoek (2016) found that millennials in the mining industry require work–life balance

and have a need to take responsibility. Diamandis (2015) conducted a study involving 4 000 millennial graduates which revealed that they were motivated by continuous training and development, as well as a flexible work environment.

A study done on Greek millennials in the hospitality industry confirms that millennials require employers to know and understand their personal needs (Dimitriou & Blum, 2015). Sylvester (2015) agrees, stating that good communication attracts and retains the right individuals in organisations. This is supported by Rizzo (2016) whose findings also revealed that millennials in the hospitality industry prefer a culture of communication and recognition of good performance. Wallis (2017) adds that millennials are more likely to choose career development opportunities over job satisfaction.

King and Tang (2018) investigated casino hotels as part of the hospitality industry. They found that, while strategies exist for these establishments, the effective retention of employees remains a huge challenge to effectively retain employees. Thomas, Brown, and Thomas (2016) indicated a need for job-specific training across all departments of casino hotels. According to Naidoo (2020), casino hotels uplift each country's economy and contribute greatly to the tax revenue. For instance, in South Africa, casinos are one of the highest contributors to the country's revenue, with an increase of more than R3 billion annually (Burke, 2019). Research by Legg (2019) found that casinos are facing tough competition due to the expansion of legalised casinos across the world.

Kane (2018) indicated that millennial employees place high emphasis on doing meaningful work and maintaining good relationships with managers and supervisors. They also require continuous training and development opportunities, thus seeking career advancement.

Richard Hackman and Grey Oldham introduced the Job Characteristics Model (JCM) in 1976 with the accompanying Job Diagnostic Survey (JDS). The JCM emphasises the following five dimensions: skills variety (the challenges of the job on a person's skills and abilities); task identity (the completion of a whole or identifiable piece of work, not just a

small part); task significance (the perceivable impact of the job on the lives of other people); autonomy (the extent of the job holder's independence and freedom in scheduling work and decisions on how work will be done); and feedback (information about job performance). Combined, these job characteristics lead to three psychological states namely, meaningfulness, responsibility, and knowledge of results which, in turn, lead to increased organisational performance (Luenendonk, 2017; Ali, Said, Yunus, Kader, Latif, & Munap, 2014; Buys, Olckers, & Schaap, 2007).

The JCM purports that job demands (e.g., workload) and job resources (e.g., organisational support) can result in either positive or negative outcomes for the organisation (Mutasa, 2016). The JCM was therefore found to be applicable to the study. An investigation by Morris and Venkatesh (2010) suggested that managers consider both jobs characteristics and technology in finding ways to retain millennials.

1.3 Problem statement

The new world of work, which is characterised by increased digitalisation and virtualisation, places additional pressure on organisations to attract and retain the right calibre of employees. This applies especially to the hospitality industry with its persistent challenges of staff retention (Naim, 2018; Ruiz, 2017; Koko & Ramarumo, 2015; Feuillherade, 2010). Apart from being highly demanding, working in the hospitality industry requires a continuous customer-oriented and service-intensive focus (Feuillherade, 2010). As millennials constitute around 50% of the global workforce (Deloitte, 2017) and around 74% of the workforce in the hospitality industry, the retention of millennials within the hospitality industry is critical (Montgomery & Spragg, 2017). As millennials are the future workforce and leaders of hospitality establishments, the main objective of the study was to ascertain the extent to which job characteristics influence the motivation of millennial hospitality employees.

1.3.1 Main research question

What is the influence of job characteristics on the motivation of millennial hospitality employees?

Subsidiary research questions

1. What is the influence of skills variety on the motivation of millennial hospitality employees?
2. What is the influence of task identity on the motivation of millennial hospitality employees?
3. What is the influence of task significance on the motivation of millennial hospitality employees?
4. What is the influence of autonomy on the motivation of millennial hospitality employees?
5. What is the influence of feedback on the motivation of millennial hospitality employees?
6. What recommendations can be made to enhance the motivational levels of millennial hospitality employees?

1.3.2 Main objective

The main objective of the study was to ascertain the extent to which job characteristics influence the motivation of millennial hospitality employees.

Subsidiary objectives

1. To determine the influence of skills variety on the motivation of millennial hospitality employees.
2. To determine the influence of task identity on the motivation of millennial hospitality employees.
3. To determine the influence of task significance on the motivation of millennial hospitality employees.
4. To determine the influence of autonomy on the motivation of millennial hospitality employees.
5. To measure the influence of feedback on the motivation of millennial hospitality employees.
6. To make recommendations on enhancing the motivational levels of millennial hospitality employees.

1.3.3 Aim

The aim of the study was to contribute both theoretically and empirically to the body of literature on retention, specifically the retention of millennials in the hospitality industry.

1.4 Research methodology

According to Kowalczyk and Scalia (2013), research is a detailed study in which scientific methods are used to address a specific problem. Research aims to inform the reader, develop theory, and/or contribute to knowledge generation (Zarah, 2020). McCombes (2019) defines a research methodology as a specific technique used in a study to identify, select, process, and analyse information about a topic. Research methodology allows the reader to evaluate the study's validity and reliability.

Owing to the nature of this study, the quantitative method was employed to address the research problem. Quantitative research can be defined as a type of research that aims to establish the socially constructed nature of reality and to stress the relationship between the researcher and the object of study by using numerical data and mathematical methods (Welman, Kruger, & Mitchell, 2007). The research methodology will be fully explained in Chapter 5.

1.5 Ethical considerations

Ethics is crucial in research as it has the potential to affect every individual involved. A researcher who acts with integrity adheres to the ethical principles and professional standards essential for practising research in a responsible way (Du Plooy-Cilliers, Davis, & Bezuidenhout, 2014). Ethics is concerned with whether behaviour conforms to a set of principles (Cheung, 2019).

In this study, the following ethical considerations were adhered to:

- Participants were formally informed that they were taking part in a research study. They were provided with a clear explanation as to what would be required of them during their participation and how results would be used.

- Privacy was maintained at all times, all information gathered was treated as confidential, and the identities of the subjects were protected.
- The questionnaire was completed anonymously.
- Participation in the study was voluntary and was explained as such.
- Participants were not deceived in anyway and the researcher was honest about all related aspects of the questionnaire.

1.6 Significance of the study

The study may indicate whether the selected job characteristics do contribute to the motivation of millennial hospitality employees.

1.7 Limitations of the study

A major limitation was the Covid-19 pandemic and its devastating effect on both the hospitality industry and the researcher's ability to collect data. This impacted the willingness of hospitality establishments to participate in the study.

1.8 Layout of the study

The study is set out in the following chapters:

Chapter 1: Introduction

This chapter provides the background to the study and gives insight into how Covid-19 affected the study. It details the aims, objectives and research questions, and outlines the research methodology, including ethical considerations, adopted in the study.

Chapter 2: Job characteristics and generational cohorts

This chapter deals with the literature pertaining to job characteristics, the JCM, and the four generational cohorts. It discusses how to apply the JCM, and reflects on and details the relevant literature on the generational cohorts, namely baby boomers, generation x, millennials, and generation z, with specific reference to the millennial generation.

Chapter 3: Contextualising employee motivation

Chapter 3 focuses on explaining motivation, the issues and challenges to motivation, and some of the reasons why employees become demotivated. The chapter discusses how to keep employees challenged and motivated, including incentive plans, and mentions characteristics of demotivated employees.

Chapter 4: Profiling the hospitality industry

Chapter 4 reflects on the tourism and hospitality industry in South Africa. The challenges facing the industry are discussed.

Chapter 5: Research methodology

Chapter 5 presents the methodology adopted in the study. The discussion includes the research design, research philosophy, research approach, the data-gathering instrument, the population, and the sample demographics.

Chapter 6: Data analysis and presentation of findings

Chapter 6 analyses and discusses the findings of the study.

Chapter 7: Conclusions and recommendations

Chapter 7 presents the conclusions based on the analysis of the findings and provides recommendations that the hospitality industry could apply.

1.9 Summary

This chapter provided an overview of the study which included the background to the study, problem statement, as well as the objectives and aims of the study. It also reflected on previous research which motivated the need for this investigation. The chapter further gave an overview of the research methodology, ethical considerations, significance, and limitations of the study. The layout of the study was also provided.

CHAPTER 2: JOB CHARACTERISTICS AND GENERATIONAL COHORTS

2.1 Introduction

Human capital forms the backbone of all organisations in the new world of work. The recruitment and retention of millennials challenge both governments and private sector institutions in their ongoing quest to secure suitably skilled human capital (Hussein, 2018). Millennials are the future managers and business leaders; therefore, it is imperative to attract and retain them in the hospitality industry. Research by Brown *et al.* (2018) emphasises the importance of understanding the cognitive processes of millennials and the way they view the world.

Diamandis (2015) reckons that, irrespective of the sector, millennials are the most important demographic group to consider in the workforce today. Currently, organisations mostly employ four generational cohorts, namely baby boomers, generation X, millennials, and generation Z. Each of these cohorts have different perspectives of work and life in general shaped by the environments and historical timeframes they were exposed to when growing up. For example, baby boomers may find it difficult to adapt to change, while millennials and generation Z may find it easier to adapt to change. Different generational cohorts are motivated by different factors and job characteristics. Due to these different perspectives, the JCM of Hackman and Oldham provides insight into job design and its impact on individual employees (1976, in Hussein, 2018).

The aim of this chapter is to explain the importance of job characteristics and discuss the insights of the JCM, which serves as the theoretical framework for the job characteristics section of the study. The chapter also explains the characteristics of the four generational cohorts, with emphasis on millennials.

2.2 The importance of job characteristics

It is crucial for employers to understand the importance of job characteristics as they have the potential to either reduce or enhance the motivation and morale of staff (Renier & Vawda, 2014). There are many change factors, notably new technology, that can

potentially demotivate employees and reduce their morale. Organisations can adapt either through activities aimed at job enrichment or job design. Job enrichment is a job redesign technique that allows employees more control on how they perform their tasks and take on more responsibility. It includes activities such as teamwork and an increase in skills variety or job redesign. In job redesign, tasks and responsibilities are rearranged to effectively align roles with the changing environment of the organisation – both inside and outside. Job redesign is also undertaken to increase task satisfaction for employees (Nel, Werner, Botha, Du Plessis, Mey, Ngalo, Poisat, & Van Hoek, 2014).

Job design is one of the most important functions of human resource management, whose focus is on the job specifications that will satisfy the person holding the job. Job design integrates tasks and relationships to achieve certain organisational goals. Overall, job design is about outlining the tasks, duties, responsibilities, methods, and relationships necessary to carry out a given job (Westerman, 2007). The aim of job design is to arrange work in a manner that reduces boredom and dissatisfaction among employees. Organisations should therefore continuously redesign jobs in line with changes.

However, jobs cannot be redesigned overnight and a great deal of planning and strategising are required. Job redesign can help enhance the motivation levels of employees and make the job more meaningful. Designing or redesigning effective jobs requires management to consider some of the job design principles. These principles must interact with each other for effective job design results. The principles of job design include total job responsibility, job significance, challenge, and opportunity (Young, 2018). These principles are discussed below:

Total job responsibility: Employees who are given total responsibility to complete tasks are likely to have increased job satisfaction.

Job significance: Employees experience job significance when they are satisfied that their work will benefit others. For job significance to occur, employees need information on how

their jobs fit into the bigger picture. In this way, employees feel involved and valued. This, in turn, means there is a greater chance of high motivation levels (Janicek, 2016).

Challenge and opportunity: When employees are given challenging tasks and opportunities, their sense of empowerment and satisfaction might be lifted (Paige, 2019).

Job characteristics are aspects of a specific job such as knowledge and skills, mental and physical demands, including working conditions that can be recognised, defined and assessed. Hackman and Oldham noted that, job characteristics namely, skills variety, task identity, task significance, autonomy, and feedback can help motivate employees on the job. These characteristics have a high probability of improving employee satisfaction and commitment. If employees experience low job satisfaction, jobs should be evaluated and redesigned if necessary. Several approaches can be followed to ensure that changes within the organisation are successfully implemented. One of the most popular and acknowledged approaches is the JCM (1976, in Luenendonk, 2017).

2.3 Theoretical framework

The workplace of the 1960s was characterised by repetitive processes that often resulted in demotivation and monotony among employees (Young, 2018). It is for this reason that Hackman and Oldham developed and introduced the JCM. Their model was based on the idea that the key to maintaining motivation is the job itself (Luenendonk, 2017). JCM was verified and tested on 658 employees who worked in 62 different jobs in seven organisations, with reliable and conclusive results. The researchers found that less interesting jobs reduced the motivation and productivity of employees. They further noted that varied tasks seemed to help improve employee motivation and increase productivity. According to them, with meaningful tasks and effective communication, employees are likely to be more engaged with their roles and have an increased sense of responsibility of their work outcomes (Hackman & Oldham, 1976). Because JCM has been scientifically validated, even in the South African context (Renier & Vawda, 2014), its five job characteristics could be used as a checklist for job creation or job review. This model has universal applicability and could be applied to any role (Westerman, 2007).

The model illustrates that five core dimensions (task variety, task significance, task identity, autonomy, and feedback) influence three critical psychological states (meaningfulness, responsibility, and knowledge of results). These states, in turn, influence some personal and work outcomes (motivation, job satisfaction, growth satisfaction, lower absenteeism, lower turnover, and work effectiveness) (Jed, Li, & Brokkshire, 2007). These are reflected in figure 2.1 below:

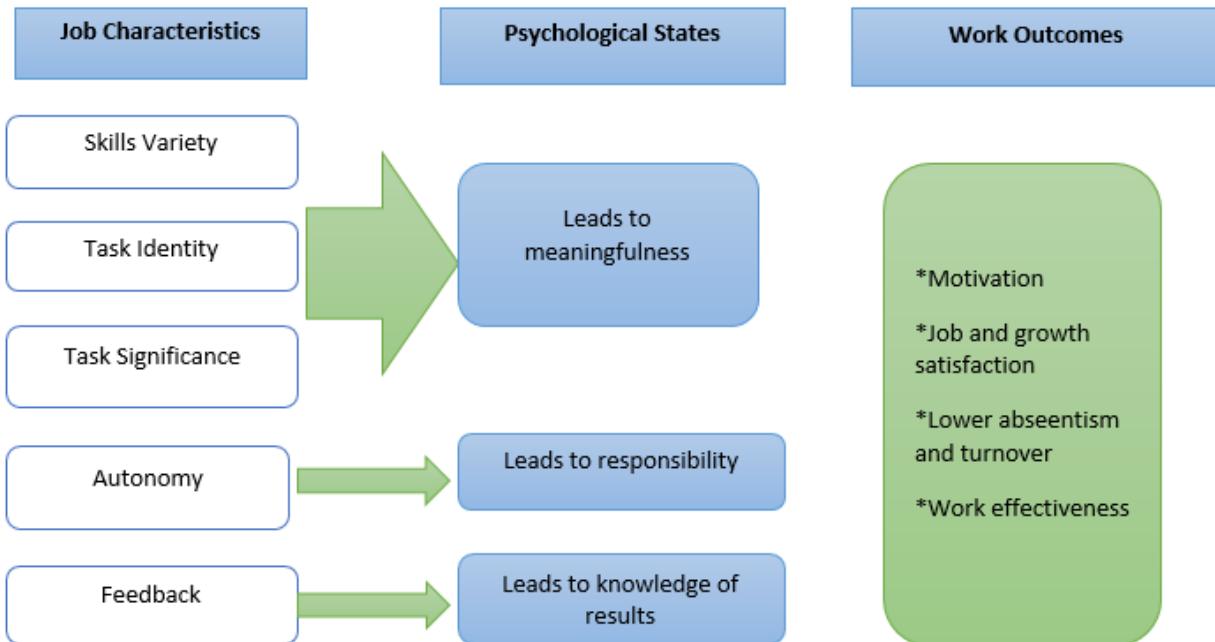


Figure 2.1: The job characteristics model (JCM)

2.3.1 Core job characteristics

The core characteristics are skills variety, task identity, task significance, autonomy, and feedback, which are discussed below:

Skills variety: Skills variety refers to the extent to which a job requires use of multiple skills to perform various tasks (Nel *et al.*, 2014). With skills variety, an individual is required to develop a variety of talents and skills. Skills variety entails the number of skills that a job requires from the person doing it. A simple assessment to determine skills variety would be to look at whether the job is repetitive or whether it requires the worker to do several

different tasks (Luenendonk, 2017). Skills variety maintains that a job should be challenging for employees at all times (Young, 2018).

Task identity: Task identity refers to a job completed from beginning to end with a visible outcome. Robbins, Judge, Odendaal, and Roodt (2016) state that, without task identity, it could be difficult for an employee to experience satisfaction with an achieved goal. They maintain that employees tend to find more meaning in their jobs when they can identify with a completed outcome.

Task significance: Task significance refers to the degree to which the job has an impact on individuals both internally and externally (Nel *et al.*, 2014). The task and the job are significant especially if they can affect other people's lives. For many people, the job has more meaning if it can improve the holder's well-being, as well as the lives of those outside. These improvements can be physically, psychologically or emotionally. In other words, if an employee knows that their job has a positive impact on others, they will more likely be motivated to do better. Individuals who value significance always want to know whether their job matters to other people, because, for them, recognition comes from other people (Luenendonk, 2017).

Autonomy: Autonomy refers to the freedom and control that a job offers. Autonomy is often applicable to supervisory and managerial positions, for example, managers, team leaders, supervising officers, division and department heads, and senior management. Autonomy can enhance greater personal responsibility and meaningfulness on an individual level (Nel *et al.*, 2014). Westerman (2007) notes that autonomy is not necessarily limited to people in managerial positions, but that every employee can have a strong sense of responsibility if allowed to perform tasks using their own ideas, efforts and decision making.

Feedback: Feedback refers to the process of providing individuals with clear information about the effectiveness of the task or job completed. Employees simply want to know about their performance on the job or task through ongoing dialogue. This does not only

motivate them, but also boosts their self-esteem and increases engagement. The words 'well done' from managers motivate them to do even better (Luenendonk, 2017).

2.3.2 Critical psychological states

Critical psychological states play a mediating role between task attributes and outcomes (Westerman, 2007). Luenendonk (2017) argues that employees should experience all three psychological states to achieve desired outcomes, while they need to possess the core job characteristics to experience all three states. When employees obtain a high score on all five job characteristics, they are likely to be more intrinsically motivated and experience all three psychological states namely, meaningfulness, responsibility, and knowledge of results – which are discussed below.

Meaningfulness: Meaningfulness refers to when employees feel that what they are doing is worthwhile and valuable. Meaningfulness is characterised by the three job characteristics of skills variety, task identity, and task significance (Robbins *et al.*, 2016).

Responsibility: Responsibility refers to the personal accountability that employee's experience. An individual's autonomy in their job is the single determinant of experienced responsibility (Westerman, 2007).

Knowledge of results: Knowledge of results refers to an individual's knowledge of how successful their performance on the job has been (Robbins *et al.*, 2016).

2.3.3 Outcomes

Outcomes are the results likely to be obtained from motivated employees. The JCM suggests that employees should obtain internal rewards when they perform well on a task (Robbins *et al.*, 2016). In other words, the higher the experience of the mentioned psychological states, the greater the employee's motivation, job and growth satisfaction, and work effectiveness, and the lower the absenteeism and turnover (Luenendonk, 2017). These outcomes namely, employee motivation, job satisfaction, and work effectiveness, are discussed below:

Employee motivation: Employees might be motivated by external sources such as monetary rewards, but valuable motivation often comes from within. Intrinsic motivation is achieved through valuable, responsible and autonomous work.

Job satisfaction: Job satisfaction means the level of satisfaction employees experience in their jobs. If employees are satisfied with what they do daily, they are likely to be motivated to stay with the organisation.

Work effectiveness: Good employee performance consists of high quality, as well as high-quantity work. Productivity increases when employees experience the three psychological states (Luenendonk, 2017).

2.4 Explaining generational cohorts

A generational cohort is defined as the entire population of a certain group of people. A generation is refers to a group of people within a specific range of birth years. Each generation has its own set of characteristics and differences which influence their work values (Villa & Dorsey, 2016). Generational cohorts are differentiated by historical events that have influenced their worldly perceptions and values (Nisen, 2013).

Each generation's range of birth years defines nearly 20 years of attitudes, motivations, experiences, and historical events, all of which establish a generational personality that is further shaped by upbringing. Generational personality also develops from the events that a generation has experienced when growing up. These events shape values which that specific generation will later carry into the workplace (Tanner, 2019). Multiple generations make up an entire workforce, which necessitates an understanding of the values and behaviour of the different generations (Nisen, 2013).

Generational diversity lies at the core of the development of any social and entrepreneurial organisation. Mirza (2018) mentions, for example, the multi-generational houses, built all over Germany, where people come together, regardless of their age group, to benefit from generational gaps. Similarly, the workplace is like an

entrepreneurial society that houses different generations under one roof. In most organisations, employees of different age groups work together towards the same goals and objectives. However, with regard to core values like work ethics, ideologies, and thinking patterns, these generations hold many contradictory views, which are likely to result in conflict (Mirza, 2018). Conflict in organisations, as well as poor communication and low productivity, can also be caused by managers' misunderstanding the different generational perceptions, values, and beliefs (Wong, Gardiner, Lang, & Coulon, 2008).

The generational cohorts mostly employed in contemporary organisations are baby boomers, generation X, millennials, and generation Z (Wallop, 2014), the latter gradually entering the workforce in small numbers (Francis & Hoefel, 2018). These four generations bring unique perspectives to the workplace based on shared experiences and characteristics that can either enhance or detract from the organisation (Crawford, 2017). The above-mentioned generations are discussed in detail below.

2.5 Baby boomers

According to Tanner (2019), baby boomers grew up in the aftermath of World War II. After the war, soldiers came home, settled in, and started building families. Birth rates shot up, causing the 'boom' in the number of children being born. Baby boomers in their teenage years experienced a decade of war, protests, and drugs. They were influenced and shaped by events like the civil rights movement (1954 to 1968), the first nuclear power plant (1957), Kennedy elected as president (1960), the Cuban missile crisis (1962), the founding of the national organisation for women (1966), Martin Luther King's assassination (1968), the first moon landing (1969) and the Kent University shootings (1970). This generation laid the foundation of the business world. Some researchers like Johnstone (2018), Moss (2016), and Wallop (2014) claim that the inclinations of baby boomers were further shaped by the Vietnam War, Watergate, the space race, the sexual revolution, and Woodstock.

Against this historical backdrop, baby boomers strove towards independence and control of their destiny. They challenged authority and felt entitled to future rewards. On the other

hand, they espoused teamwork, optimism, ambition, and diligence. The early baby boomers (those who started their careers before 1972) had the habit of saving like prior generations (e.g., the silent generation, born between 1929 and 1945) and they were able to save money and build wealth. However, this was not the same for the late boomers (who began their careers in 1973 and later) who were not able to save as much and had to work longer to amass the money they needed to secure retirement (Tanner, 2019).

Jopling (2014) adds that baby boomers believe that hard work precedes success. Baby boomers are referred to as the 'show me generation' because they regard body language as important. Ellisa (2018) explains that many years ago, if one employee within a specific department carried specific knowledge, that employee became a critical asset to the organisation. This has been the case for the baby boomer generation.

2.5.1 Characteristics of baby boomers

Baby boomers have a strong work ethic and they are disciplined, self-assured, mentally focused, goal oriented, team oriented, and resistant to change. These characteristics are discussed below:

Strong work ethic: Baby boomers are not afraid to work hard, and they spend a great deal of time building their careers. Their strong work ethic motivate them to always want to learn and do their best (Kane, 2019a). Baby boomers feel strongly about core values and work ethics such as optimism, team orientation, personal qualification, health and wellness, personal growth, youthfulness, working long hours to establish self-worth, identity and fulfilment, and quality. Baby boomers are satisfied when their values are supported, but become less engaged when any important value is missing (Schawbel, 2015).

Disciplined: Many baby boomers grew up in highly structured and disciplined households which have shaped them into who they are. For this reason, baby boomers appreciate structure in both their professional and private lives (Christopher, 2016).

Self-assured: Baby boomers are self-assured, very independent and not afraid to question authority. This is because they grew up carrying many responsibilities in order to fulfil their roles in society (Abramson, 2018a).

Mentally focused: Unlike more recent generations, baby boomers can maintain focus on tasks that need to be done. They have a strong attention span which enables them to stay focused when engaging with other people (Christopher, 2016).

Goal oriented: Baby boomers emphasise achievement and goal setting. They want to set goals that they can reach in both their personal and professional lives (Kane, 2019b).

Team oriented: Baby boomers have a sense of community and excel in team environments (Christopher, 2016). Baby boomers usually have a strong team work ethic and tend to prefer working as a group of individuals to complete tasks (Diamandis, 2015).

Resistant to change: Baby boomers can be resistant to change and not be willing to learn new skills. They are comfortable with what they know (Diamandis, 2015).

2.6 Generation X

Authors like Tanner (2019); Lee and Loria (2018); Neal and Wellins (2018) and Moss (2016), claim that the perceptions of generation X were shaped by MTV, AIDS, global competition, the collapse of communism, the energy crisis, the rise of personal computers, Watergate, corporate layoffs, stock market decline, and many more. In South Africa, Generation X also witnessed the end of apartheid (Schawbel, 2015). Thus, generation X developed a strong scepticism of existing institutions and became wary of baby boomer values. Because generation X grew up during national emergencies, global transitions and epic endings, they lacked a sense of connection to the world around them as they came to age (Villa & Dorsey, 2016). Furthermore, generation Xers became technologically savvy and entrepreneurial minded amid the rise of the internet. They started their school years without the use of computers and finished them with computers.

This means they were raised during the transformation to the digital age (Mulder, 2018; Baird, 2014).

Generation Xers tend to give their best when their responsibilities in the organisation align with their values, but their performance is likely to suffer if their values are ignored. This generation forms an integral part of organisations, although the number of baby boomers and millennials are significantly higher (Neal & Wellins, 2018).

2.6.1 Characteristics of generation X

Generation X work characteristics are as follows: they tend to be individualistic, they are technologically savvy, and they are flexible and educationally inclined. These characteristics are discussed below:

Individualistic: Generation X came of age in an era of two-income families, rising divorce rates, and faltering economies. Thus, this generation learned how to be resourceful and value freedom and responsibility (Abramson, 2018a; Devorah, 2017).

Technologically savvy: Generation X mentality reflects a shift from a manufacturing economy to a service economy. As the first generation to grow up with computers, technology is woven into their lives. They can be comfortable with smartphones, emails, laptops, tablets and other technologies (Kane, 2019b; Mirza, 2018).

Flexible: Many generation Xers in the 1980s watched their hard-working parents lose their jobs. Because of this, they have become less committed to one employer and are more willing to change jobs to get ahead (Abramson, 2018b).

Educationally inclined: Generation X is one of the best educated generational groups (Abramson, 2018b; Lesonsky, 2016). In South African, six out of 10 (60.5%) generation Xers have completed low-level education and 39.4% have grade 12 or a higher level of education (Statistics South Africa, 2020). This increase in education coincides with the

shift from a manufacturing- to a service-based workforce (Abramson, 2018a; Mulder, 2018; Lesonsky, 2016; McDonald & Hite, 2008).

2.7 Millennials

Dimock (2019) states that millennials grew up in the shadow of the Iraq and Afghanistan wars which contributed to the intense political polarisation that shaped the prevailing political environment. In South Africa, most millennials experienced the 2008 elections where the force of the youth vote became part of the political conversation. Johnstone (2018), Main and Writer (2017), and Jopling (2014) add that millennial representation in the workplace is racially and ethnically diverse. This generation is sometimes referred to as the 'why generation', because they want to know the reason why things happen and why they have to do certain things. Millennials seek advice from peers on 'what is next'.

According to Asghar (2014), millennials work hard and have a good work ethic, but do not appreciate blind orders. They believe that the best person for the job is the one who does it best, not necessarily the most senior person in the workplace. Therefore, they question the 'starting at the bottom' approach that applies in many organisations. Millennials believe respect should be earned and not demanded. Millennials further tend to be impatient and often skip 'steps' in the process of reaching their goals (Jopling, 2014). They believe in a 'the faster, the better' approach and are always driven to find solutions no matter what the situation is (Hannus, 2016).

2.7.1 Characteristics of millennials

Millennials generally possess the following characteristics: they are technologically inclined, they tend to be team oriented, and they seek flexibility and have good intercultural adaptability. These characteristics are explained below.

Technologically inclined: Millennials rely on technology to perform their jobs better and would rather communicate digitally than face to face (Kane, 2018). The level of their technological emersion continuously blurs the line between their work and personal lives. For example, they can take a business call just before dinner and answer e-mails just

before a staff meeting. For them, the line between home and work does not exist. Millennials use social-networking instruments to complete various tasks. Due to their strong technology-oriented skills, they believe they can accomplish tasks quicker than other generations and work more efficiently. Millennials are generally family oriented and enjoy working from home (Walters & Loth, 2019).

Team oriented: Usually, millennials are team oriented and value the inputs of others. In teamwork they prefer to draw on team members' strengths to accomplish individual tasks (Kane, 2018).

Seeks flexibility: Brown *et al.* (2018) indicate that millennials are inclined to change jobs frequently when their work environment is not flexible. Millennials prefer flexibility in their work schedules, as well as the ability to maintain substantial work–life balance. They feel they deserve the freedom to work fewer hours but still perform challenging jobs (Sylvester, 2015).

Intercultural adaptability: Millennials in general show greater intercultural adaptability and acceptance compared to other generations. The presence of multicultural families and alternative lifestyles have always been a part of their lives. As millennials grew up in a more diverse society, they are more tolerant of different races, sexual orientation, religion, culture and economic status (Kane, 2018). Millennials seek a fun and less formal atmosphere and they want management to create an organisational culture that is relaxed, open to communication, with opportunities for development and growth. This would be a good way of keeping them engaged (Bass, 2017).

2.7.2 Attracting, retaining and motivating millennials as the future workforce

Attracting and retaining millennials should be a strategic business priority. There is a misconception that millennials are lazy and incompetent (David, 2018). According to Carmichael (2016), 59% of millennials are likely to feel ashamed to take days off at work. On the other hand, 41% of the older generation employees would take time off from work at any given time (David, 2018). According to Walters and Loth (2019), millennials are

confident and openly ambitious. Therefore, employers should show commitment to helping them grow and develop. Furthermore, employers should provide structured training and opportunities that allow millennial workers to achieve their career goals. It is equally important that employers become aware of factors that are likely to help attract and retain the millennial generation (Walters & Setchell, 2019).

Some important strategies to retain millennials, especially on a professional level, include creating a clear path for career progression, providing personalised training, making office perks available, providing frequent feedback, and providing mentorship. These aspects are discussed below:

A clear path for career progression: Most millennials consider the opportunity for rapid career progression as one of the most crucial aspects of a job. Therefore, employers should have effective strategies and policies in place to facilitate career progression as a way of attracting millennial professionals. These strategies and policies can be communicated during the recruitment process (Walters & Loth, 2019).

Providing personalised training: According to Walters and Setchell (2019), personalised training should be a priority to retain and engage millennials because they stay longer with organisations if they feel they are invested in.

Making office perks available: Office perks do not have to come at a high cost for the employer. They can be, for example, regular coffee breaks, office celebrations for goal achievement, or financial wellness programmes. The idea is to find those things that employees would enjoy without the employer's having to spend too much (Setchell, 2019).

Providing frequent feedback: Millennials want to know how they are performing and want to be accountable. Whether constructive or not, feedback helps employees feel fulfilled in their jobs. In traditional approaches to performance management, feedback is provided

on a six-month or annual basis, which may be counterproductive for millennials (Kurt, 2018).

Providing mentorship: Managers can assist millennials to achieve their goals through mentoring and coaching. Millennials want managers who inspire them and, through such mentorship programmes, they can build a trust-based relationship with their managers (Bass, 2017).

Millennials have particular expectations and are likely to be motivated when these expectations are met. For example, millennial employees expect their managers to be clear and honest and act socially responsible towards society (Jacobs, 2016). Research by Diamandis (2015) revealed that millennials are motivated by continuous training and development, flexibility, and cash bonuses. According to Walters and Ford (2019), some reasons that can influence millennials to change jobs include remuneration, a more fulfilling job, and greater work–life balance. These reasons are discussed below:

Remuneration: Although millennial professionals prioritise a sociable workplace, they are still likely to be motivated by higher salaries or bonus schemes (Walters & Ford, 2019). For millennials, a salary reflects their status and success. According to Walters and Loth (2019), most millennials rate a competitive pay system as important, while others even say it could be the number one reason for changing jobs. This also means that, when the country's economy status increases, millennials will expect their remuneration to be adapted accordingly.

A more fulfilling job: Employers should consider giving millennials an opportunity to move around the business in order to find the best positions for their career paths. In a survey, 70% of millennials said that job rotation within the business is one of the most important aspects of a job (Walters & Ford, 2019).

Greater work–life balance: Because millennials value work–life balance, it can be a good strategy to enhance the job satisfaction of millennials (Walters & Ford, 2019).

2.8 Generation Z

Generation Z are also referred to as 'post-millennials'. They are regarded as true digital natives as they have been exposed to technology from an early age. According to Francis and Hoefel (2018), members of generation Z actively search for the truth and they generally value individual expression. Generation Z mobilise themselves for a variety of causes and believe in solving conflicts and changing the world. They further believe in flexibility, freedom of expression and greater openness towards understanding different kinds of people.

Generation Zs are constantly connected to a seamless cloud-based world of friends, data and entertainment (Renfro, 2012). Social media is very important to them and has made it easy for them to take up social causes. They use social media to look for careers that could help the world and 'crowd source' for solutions on social media. Generation Z are content creators and producers using digital tools. They require multifunctional gadgets and prefer websites and online applications that allow multiple features like videos, pictures, posting and many more (O'Boyle, Atack, & Monahan, 2017).

2.8.1 Characteristics of generation Z

Some characteristics of generation Z include shorter attention span, being truth oriented, and the ability to multitask. These are discussed below:

Shorter attention span: Generation Z process information faster than any other generation. This is because of the applications they use daily, like Snapchat, Instagram, FaceTime, Twitter, YouTube, and Facebook. Their attention span might be significantly lower than that of millennials (Beall, 2017).

Truth oriented: In general, generation Zs do not distinguish between online friends and friends they meet in the physical world. They use mobilisation technology to keep in contact with communities that promote their interests. Generation Z value online communities because they allow people of different economic circumstances to connect and mobilise around shared causes and interests (Francis & Hoefel, 2018).

Multi-tasking: Generation Zs can quickly shift from work to play with multiple distractions going on at the same time. For example, they can create a document on a school computer, do research on the phone, while taking notes on a notepad, then finish the task in front of the television on a laptop while Face Timing a friend (Beall, 2017).

2.9 Summary

The aim of the chapter was to provide an overview of job characteristics by explaining its meaning and importance. The chapter discussed the JCM which served as the theoretical framework for the job characteristics section of the study. The chapter also set out the four generational cohorts that are found in organisations today, with specific emphasis on millennials – the focus of this investigation.

CHAPTER 3: CONTEXTUALISING EMPLOYEE MOTIVATION

3.1 Introduction

Management should have the desire to understand the factors that contribute to increased job performance and workplace productivity because these factors are likely to increase employee engagement levels, motivation, job satisfaction and employee loyalty while reducing the retention rate. Motivation is one of the most widely studied topics in organisations. High motivational levels are generally linked to good job performance and overall organisational productivity. It is important for managers to know what motivates their employees and what makes them want to perform better at their jobs. Motivation and job satisfaction are closely related and are often used with contrasting effect. This means that employees are usually more motivated when they are satisfied in their jobs (Thurston, 2013).

The aim of this chapter is to explain the concept of motivation and its importance in organisations. Intrinsic and extrinsic motivation will be alluded to, as well as the objectives of motivation, characteristics of motivated versus demotivated employees, motivation benefits, incentive plans, and overcoming motivation challenges. Furthermore, the theoretical framework for the motivation section of the study will be discussed.

3.2 Explaining motivation

According to Pakdel (2013), the origin of motivation can be seen as a singular determinant of human thoughts, feelings and actions. However, motivation works with other determinants such as cognition, emotions and habits. Motivation is an extrinsic and intrinsic phenomenon affected by four factors: situation (environmental and external stimulus), temperament (the internal state of an individual), goal (purpose of behaviour and attitude), and tools (tools to reach the target).

The term 'motivation' is derived from the Latin root that means 'stimulate'. Motivation is a term from the word 'motive'. Therefore, motivation causes people to act in a certain way in order to fulfil a specific human need. Behind every human action, there is a motive,

which is why it is important for management to provide incentives for people to work hard and stay with the organisation (Chand, 2018).

Motivation can be defined as a mental construct that makes individuals move towards accomplishing something and behave in a specific way (Hannus, 2016). It can also be defined as the reason why people choose a certain job and stay and work hard in that job. Motivation can energise individuals to perform in their jobs. It is a process that causes an attraction of behaviour to target something and can, as such, be described as that which maintains human behaviour towards achieving specific goals (Pakdel, 2013).

Motivation in the organisational context refers to people who take initiative, apply their skills and put in extra effort into achieving goals (Nel *et al.*, 2014). It can be a process of guiding people in a certain direction to accomplish specific goals. According to Chand (2018), motivation can also be a planned managerial process which stimulates people to work to their best capabilities by providing them with motives based on unfulfilled needs.

Motivation in the workplace relates to one of the most complex resources that need to be managed. Comaford (2018) notes that employee motivation generates the enthusiasm needed for an employee to behave in a way that brings the organisation closer to its goal. Leaders need to understand that the workplace is evolving every day and that this is one of the reasons why managers and leaders need to explore and understand what motivates their employees. Employee motivation is a challenge for leaders and managers because different employees are motivated by different aspects in the workplace. Most employees need motivation to feel good about their jobs and perform well. Some employees are motivated extrinsically, i.e., by monetary rewards, bonuses, gifts, etc., while others are motivated intrinsically, i.e., by praise and prestige, a sense of achievement, meeting both personal and professional goals, etc. Acknowledgement of a job well done makes some employees feel good and encouraged to do more. Additional aspects that can be used to motivate employees can include a positive company culture, setting clear and reasonable expectations, and appropriate leadership styles (Ganta, 2014).

Motivation can further help to increase work productivity and bring out an individual's best potential. Moreover, motivation is likely to reduce labour turnover, recruitment and selection costs, while increasing communication and teamwork, improving customer service, and encouraging self-discipline among employees (Thurston, 2013).

3.3 Intrinsic and extrinsic motivation

Motivation can either be intrinsic or extrinsic. Intrinsic motivation is when an individual is internally motivated about something which then becomes the driving force for achieving goals. Extrinsic motivation is where the driving force for achieving goals is external to the individual, for example, a reward or recognition (Guest, 2017). Advantages and disadvantages of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation are discussed below:

Advantages of intrinsic motivation

- Individuals who are intrinsically motivated have a passion for their work.
- Those who love their jobs feel motivated to keep pushing even when faced with larger tasks.
- They have greater understanding of the purpose of the tasks they are performing. These employees generally understand how and where their work fits into the task or project at hand. Thus, they get a reward by just knowing they are contributing.
- They generally have the desire to improve their knowledge and are more likely to accept any kind of feedback because they continuously want to improve.

Disadvantages of intrinsic motivation

- Intrinsic motivation may help employees achieve a result, but it does not help them define what the result should be.
- Intrinsic motivation is a lengthy process that might require different approaches (Shrestha, 2017).

Advantages of extrinsic motivation

- Extrinsic motivation drives individuals to perform a task even if they are not interested in it.
- Extrinsic motivation allows a person to set goals, simply because they know their sacrifices will be rewarded.
- Extrinsic motivation is a way to survive – individuals may not love their jobs, but they stay to pay bills and wait for better opportunities.

Disadvantages of extrinsic motivation

- Extrinsic motivation is not sustainable – some employees complete tasks because they know they are getting something for the completion of that task.
- Without intrinsic motivation, employees often wonder why they are doing certain tasks.
- Extrinsic motivation provides diminishing returns – when employees are offered the same reward continuously, they may not be motivated any longer.
- Extrinsic motivation makes an activity less enjoyable – if employees are motivated only for the reward, they are likely to lose interest over time (Ayres, 2016).

3.4 Objectives of motivation

Motivation is an important part of providing direction to employees. While directing subordinates, a manager must create and sustain in them the desire to work for specified objectives, including enhanced efficiency, better organisational image, and the facilitation of change and human relations. These objectives are discussed below:

Enhanced efficiency: According to Chand (2018), a good motivation system has the potential to release the untapped reservoirs of physical and mental capabilities among employees. Because motivation is always goal directed, the higher the level of motivation, the greater the degree of goal accomplishment.

Better image: Kanfer and Chen (2016) indicate that an organisation that offers support to its employees both financially and personally has a better image in the employment

market. More people want to work for an organisation that encourages support and provides opportunities for personal development. This image also assists in attracting the right personnel which, consequently, simplifies the staffing function.

Facilitation of change: Effective motivation helps overcome resistance and changes the negative attitude that employees might carry. Motivated employees take interest in new organisational goals. They are more receptive to changes that management might want to introduce to improve the efficiency of operations within the organisations (Pakdel, 2013).

Facilitation of human relations: Effective motivation creates job satisfaction, which results in cordial relations between employees and employers. Issues such as turnover, absenteeism, and industrial disputes are reduced. Without motivation, employees may not put in their best efforts and may seek satisfaction of their needs outside the organisation (Kanfer & Chen, 2016).

3.5 Characteristics of motivated versus demotivated employees

Employee motivation is a central issue for leaders and managers. It is important for managers to treat employees with respect and show them appreciation daily, which is likely to reduce demotivation levels among employees. Managers need to communicate with their team members and become more aware of issues that might reduce motivation in employees and discourage them from doing well in their tasks. Furthermore, managers need to understand why employees work and offer them the rewards they hope to achieve.

Contributors to a lack of motivation may include limited career progression, boredom, a lack of confidence in management decisions, feelings of under-appreciation, an unmanageable workload, micro management by supervisors/managers, unsuitable work environment, and a lack of communication and transparency (Chingnell, 2018). Demotivated employees usually display symptoms such as a lack of focus, increased absence, increased breaks or time away from work, taking more time to start working

after arriving at work, changes in mood towards peers and colleagues, inappropriate comments, and isolation. In this regard, Comaford (2018) states that managers need to invest time and show interest in employees by setting clear goals, giving employees something to strive for, offering flexibility, and building trust by being fair and consistent in their dealings with employees. Demotivated employees in organisations are likely to put no effort into their jobs. They are likely to produce low quality work and exit the organisation at the first opportunity they find (Nel *et al.*, 2014).

Chingnell (2018) points out that motivated employees are likely to show interest, they are positive, full of energy, spend more time in the office, leave later than others, and usually arrive early. Motivated employees furthermore create a positive work atmosphere. They are happy to work hard and are service oriented towards clients. Because of this, better results and higher levels of performance are achieved. Motivated employees have a drive to succeed. While it might not be easy for managers to motivate employees, they can create an environment that supports strong employee motivation (Ganta, 2014).

According to Kurt (2018) and Ganta (2014), feedback is a strong mechanism through which to recognise effort and good work from employees. Therefore, managers should regularly provide feedback which should focus on how employees have improved over time. These authors indicate that acknowledgement from employers to employees is likely to make employees feel good about themselves. Because employees are motivated by different things, employers must carefully balance the use of different strategies to cater for different employees and the enhancement of productivity. Examples of these strategies include positive reinforcement, effective discipline and fair treatment of all employees, satisfaction of employee needs, setting work-related goals, restructuring jobs, and offering rewards based on performance.

Another strategy to improve motivation is through performance management. Performance management is a process which allows employees to work together with their employers to set expectations, review results, and reward performance (Warnich,

Carrell, Elbert, & Hatfield, 2015). Empowerment and motivation often take place when people solve problems and create their own expectations.

A major aim of performance management is to improve quality of work, productivity and other business outcomes. In addition, findings by Comaford (2018) reveal that:

- Only two in 10 employees strongly agree that their performance is managed in a way that motivates them to do outstanding work.
- 30% of employees strongly agree that their managers involve them in goal setting.
- 21% of employees strongly agree that they have performance metrics that are within their control.
- 14% of employees agree that their performance reviews inspire them to improve.
- 26% of employees strongly agree that feedback helps them do their work better.

However, Comaford (2018) states that standardised feedback is not enough for employees to produce maximum performance and that managers must also create intrinsic motivation. In other words, they must try to create meaningful tasks for employees.

3.6 Benefits of motivation

Motivation is highly important to any organisation because of the benefits such as human capital management, meeting personal goals and helping employees stay motivated, greater employee satisfaction, raising employee efficiency, and establishing better team harmony and workplace stability. These benefits are discussed below:

Human capital management: Ganta (2014) states that an organisation can achieve its full potential only by using all its financial, physical and human resources. It is through the availability of these resources that employees are motivated to accomplish their duties.

Meeting personal goals and helping employees stay motivated: Once an employee has met some initial goal (whether personal or professional), they become aware of the clear link between effort and results, which will motivate them to do more (Warnich *et al.*, 2015).

Greater employee satisfaction: Employee satisfaction is crucial and can lead to either progress or regress. If an incentive plan does not exist within the organisation, employees will not feel ready to fulfil their objectives. Therefore, managers should seek to empower employees through promotions and opportunities, including monetary and non-monetary rewards (Ganta, 2014).

Raising employee efficiency: To get the best results, employees need to maintain a balance between ability and willingness. This balance can lead to an increase in productivity, lower operational costs and an overall improvement in efficiency (Warnich *et al.*, 2015).

Better team harmony: A conducive work environment that focuses on good and corporative relationships is a crucial component of organisational success. It does not only increase profits, but also helps employees to adapt more easily to changes implemented within the organisation (Dogra, 2018).

Workforce stability: Employee stability is vital as it encourages employees to stay with the organisation. Employees will stay loyal if they have a sense of participation in management decisions. If the organisation obtains loyal employees, it can develop and have an honest and good public image within the market. This, in turn, will help attract competent and qualified candidates (Warnich *et al.*, 2015).

3.7 Incentive plans to motivate employees

Incentives can have a motivating influence on employees and are usually designed to direct employee behaviour and motivate them to produce quality work. Incentives drive employees because they offer more than just salaries (Ganta, 2014). Motivation levels within the workplace have a direct impact on employee productivity. Therefore, managers use several types of incentives, like bonuses, paid time off, or cash and travel perks to try and increase production numbers. Some employees only feel motivated when they are confident in tasks they perform; therefore, incentives are likely to have no impact on these employees. On the other hand, employees who are excited about their tasks, perform to

the best of their ability. For this reason, incentives are important to maintain the motivated energy that already exists (Warnich *et al.*, 2015). Although employees need to know that they are appreciated and valued, there are some drawbacks to incentive plans which could alienate employees. Advantages and disadvantages of incentive plans are discussed below:

Advantages of incentive plans

Some advantages of incentive plans are as follows: they motivate, put employees in control, increase competition, and contribute to employee retention.

Motivation: While incentives encourage employees to do their best, not all employees need an extra push to do outstanding work. However, some employees with sufficient talent and ability might have no drive, but if they know that goal achievement results in serious rewards, even underachievers can turn into star performers.

Putting employees in control: Employees like feeling in control of their careers. Giving them opportunities to earn more when they achieve more can give them the feeling of being in control. Job satisfaction then increases, which encourages them to stay with the organisation (Dogra, 2018).

Increased competition: Incentives can sometimes create healthy competition among employees. For example, some incentives offer rewards to employees who meet a certain benchmark. This might give employees even more reason to outperform their co-workers. Competition can either be positive or negative.

Employee retention: If there is an effective incentive plan in place, employees who perform well are unlikely to leave the organisation. An incentive plan contributes to reduced costs in hiring and training new employees (Sherman, 2019).

Disadvantages of incentive plans

The section below explains the disadvantages of incentive plans, which include employee resentment, built-in limitations, and potential negative side effects.

Employee resentment: Employees who feel they have performed to their best but have still not received any reward may be resentful of those who have. Some employees who cannot compete see a reward as a disincentive – they give up and their performance suffers (Chingnell, 2018).

Built-in limitations: Incentive programmes are easier to apply in some departments than others. For example, in manufacturing, an incentive can be tied to the amount of the product made or to minimising errors, and a salesperson can be rewarded for sales revenue brought in. Unfortunately with other departments, it is not always easy to come up with a metric that works for the organisation (Dogra, 2018).

Negative side effects: Employees who strongly want to earn incentives can do so even in ways that hurt the organisation. For example, if the factory outcome is the benchmark, workers on the shop floor may prioritise speed and let quality suffer. Or if sales volume is what counts, sales people may offer customers discounts or offers that affect the organisational profits (Sherman, 2019).

3.8 Overcoming motivational challenges

As already mentioned, different employees are motivated by different factors based on their individual needs. Some of the motivational challenges experienced by organisations are unclear expectations, inability to perform, lack of ownership, lack of compensation, rumours, overwork, workforce diversity, organisational restructuring, fewer entry-level employees, and an oversupply of managers.

These issues are discussed below:

Unclear expectations: If employees do not understand a task they have been assigned, they might find it difficult to stay motivated to complete that task (Root, 2019).

Inability to perform: Some employees have neither the skills nor the tools they need to perform their work. This can lead to insecurities about their work and uncertainty on how to meet expectations. A lack of resources can frustrate employees who might start to feel as though the organisation is not invested in their success (Springs, 2017).

Lack of ownership: Employees who feel they are simply following orders are less invested in the result because it does not reflect their ideas and creativity. Also, employees who ask for guidance on everything, including small problems, work less efficiently and are less likely to solve problems on their own (Root, 2019).

Lack of compensation: Employees who feel their compensation is not adequate for their work are unlikely to be motivated to do their job or perform tasks (Erickson, 2019).

Rumours: According to Erickson (2019), some rumours in organisations are not good for employee morale. Employees who hear rumours that they might, for example, be laid off experiences an instant drop in motivation. To avoid rumours and their harmful effect in the workplace, it is important for managers to communicate important information to all employees.

Overwork: Overworked employees are likely to lose motivation regardless of how much overtime pay they receive. Managers must create a schedule that is reasonable for all employees. These schedules must be communicated in advance to allow employees ample time to prepare and balance their time between professional and personal lives. These schedules must allow employees to spend time with family and not be stressed in any way (Root, 2019).

Workforce diversity: Workforce diversity refers to a heterogeneous mix of people regarding gender, race, age, ethnicity and sexual orientation working in an organisation. This diversity complicates the task of motivating employees because managers need to consider many more motivational variables (Nel *et al.*, 2014).

Organisational restructuring: Organisational restructuring is when management makes changes in personnel and departments including how workers and departments report to one another to meet company goals. Some companies reorganise corporate structure to downsize departments and conserve overhead (Springs, 2017). Employees who have seen their colleagues lose their jobs may concentrate more on keeping their own jobs instead of being creative and taking risks which might lead to new products, markets or other advances. Their job insecurities might make it difficult to motivate them to do more (Gallo, 2020).

Fewer entry-level employees: According to Gregory (2019), the marketplace is growing at half the rate of the previous decade and the number of qualified candidates for most entry-level positions is decreasing. Therefore, managers face a challenge in attracting, retaining and motivating qualified entry-level employees. Managers must also find ways to motivate under-qualified candidates. This will help upgrade their education and help them obtain new skills for entry-level tasks.

Oversupply of managers: When the number of senior management positions in organisations are fewer than the deserving number of candidates, individuals who want to climb the hierarchal ladder would likely be demotivated (Andrew, Haris, Zakariah, & Zekaria, 2016).

Gallo (2020) contends that leaders must have the skills and abilities to engage and challenge people working for the organisation. Hiring and managing the right team result in outstanding performance and growth for the organisation. However, failure to motivate employees might lead to high turnover rates. Respecting employees for the talent and skills they bring into the organisation has a motivating effect that can be contagious and build a sense of partnership among co-workers. Challenging employees starts with understanding the different factors that influence each employee's workday.

Some of the ways to overcoming motivation challenges in the workplace include communicating problems and issues that affect the company, asking for suggestions and solutions, and not taking advantage of employees. These strategies are discussed below:

Communicating problems and issues that affect the company: It is vital that management keep employees informed when problems surface because often the best solutions come from employees rather than management. In contrast, withholding important information from employees might have a demoralising effect on them.

Asking for suggestions and solutions: Management should allow employees to give ideas for solving problems within the organisation. They should be allowed to develop new programmes that might help the business survive and grow (Sherman, 2019).

Not taking advantage of employees: Challenging employees without any reward or encouragement might result in their not staying long with the organisation. Non-monetary incentives such as travelling perks can be made available for a job well done. Employees often want an environment that encourages and rewards them for hard work (Gregory, 2019).

3.9 Techniques to motivate employees

Motivation techniques are important for employee career growth. Motivation techniques prepare employees for unexpected situations within the workplace. The three basic techniques to motivate employees are job rotation, job enlargement and job enrichment (Nel *et al.*, 2014), which are discussed below:

Job rotation: Gallo (2020) describes job rotation as regularly moving employees from one job to another. When employees are moved between jobs, less interesting aspects of the job can be relieved. Job rotation is an effective way for employees to acquire new skills. By moving across different jobs, employees are cross-trained to perform different tasks. This allows employees to be placed in different parts of the organisation when needed. Job rotation assists in transferring knowledge between different departments. It further

reduces the chances of employee boredom. For any employee, rotation is beneficial because skills acquired help keep them in the market for long.

Job enlargement: Job enlargement refers to the expanding of tasks performed by employees to add variety. By performing different tasks, employees have less chance of becoming bored, similar to job rotation. Job enlargement may have similar benefits to job rotation because it involves teaching employees multiple tasks. Job enlargement creates positivity and enhances job satisfaction, which are likely to result in high customer service and increased chances of identifying mistakes quickly (Nel *et al.*, 2014).

Job enrichment: Job enrichment can assist in reducing turnover and absenteeism, while increasing productivity (Nel *et al.*, 2014).

3.10 Theoretical framework: Herzberg's two-factor theory

There are various theories that provide an understanding of human motivation. These include:

Maslow's hierarchy of needs theory: This theory indicates that the satisfaction of lower-order needs leads to the satisfaction of higher-order needs (Bhatia, 2018).

Theory X and Theory Y: This theory explains how managers' beliefs about what motivates employees can affect their management style (Boogaard, 2018).

McClelland's achievement motivation theory: The theory distinguishes between three types of needs namely, the need for affiliation, need for power, and need for achievement (Nel *et al.*, 2014).

Alderfer's ERG theory: ERG stands for existence, relatedness and growth. It emphasises that, when one need is frustrated, it is important to focus on other needs (Mulder, 2018).

Goal setting theory: this theory expresses that having measurable goals rather than vague performance standards will result in increased performance and positive reinforcement (Riley, 2018).

Hertzberg's two-factor theory: This theory places emphasis on satisfiers and dissatisfiers that contribute to job satisfaction (Warnich *et al.*, 2015).

Given that the two-factor theory of Hertzberg emphasises satisfiers and dissatisfiers, it was used as the conceptual guide for the study. The theory was developed by Frederick Herzberg in 1966 and states that an individual's relation to work is basic and that attitude towards work can determine success or failure. Herzberg believed that motivation in the workplace consists of two components: hygiene factors (i.e., factors which contribute to job dissatisfaction, or dissatisfiers) and motivators (i.e., factors which contribute to job satisfaction, or satisfiers) (1966, in Mulder, 2018). The hygiene factors (or dissatisfiers) refer to working conditions, policies and administrative practices, salary and benefits, supervision, status and job security, while motivational factors (or satisfiers) refer to recognition, interesting work, growth, responsibilities, on-the- job challenges, job advancement, and learning (Bhatia, 2018). Herzberg explains that the hygiene factors must be present in the job before any motivator can be used to stimulate a person. Therefore, hygiene factors such as salary and benefits, supervision, and job security are essential (1966, in Mulder, 2018).

The motivational factors for the study were grouped into dissatisfiers and satisfiers. Dissatisfiers pertaining to the study included working conditions, salary and benefits, and supervision, while satisfiers included recognition, responsibility, interesting work, growth, challenging work, achievement, and continuous learning. These dissatisfiers and satisfiers were grouped to reveal the relationship and impact that they were likely to have on employee motivation.

3.12 Summary

This chapter explained the role and importance of employee motivation. It provided insight into intrinsic and extrinsic motivation, the objectives of motivation, and the characteristics of motivated and demotivated employees. The chapter discussed the benefits of motivation, incentive plans and overcoming motivational challenges, and presented motivational techniques. The two-factor theory of Herzberg, which served as the theoretical framework for the study, was also explained.

CHAPTER 4: PROFILING THE HOSPITALITY INDUSTRY

4.1 Introduction

As alluded to before, the tourism and hospitality industry is one of the world's largest industries. Revenue is generated by offering tourists experiences and the opportunity to explore a country, region or area and its offerings. Travellers thus expect good hospitality and a positive experience, which is likely to lead to their returning (Wich, 2019).

The challenges of the new world of work have enhanced customer expectations and forced the hospitality industry, like many other industries, to be more innovative and remain current in the market. Innovation has to do with keeping up to date with current trends and organisations by implementing the latest technological measures to meet customer expectation (Baynova, 2020). The innovations and technologies implemented, such as quick online booking systems, have assisted with the developments that have transformed the industry (Mae, 2020).

The aim of this chapter is to explain the tourism and hospitality industry and detail different sectors within the industry. The chapter will outline some challenges facing the hospitality industry and its employees, the influence of disruptive occurrences like the Covid-19 pandemic, and the innovations that can be adopted by the industry. Lastly, the chapter will outline the conceptual framework for the study.

4.2 Understanding the tourism and hospitality industry

Although the terms 'tourism' and 'hospitality' have been grouped together, they represent two different concepts. The term 'hospitality' was commonly used before the term 'tourism' became popular. 'Tourism' broadly refers to tourism offices (an office that supplies information to people visiting a particular place), destination management companies (third-party companies that do planning and implementation of events or meetings taking place out of town) and tour operators (companies or individuals who design tour packages and sell them to tourists), while the term 'tourists' describes individuals travelling both nationally and internationally (Mae, 2020).

'Hospitality' derives from the Latin word *hospice*, meaning 'to take care of travellers'. Thus, hospitality has its roots in nurturing, which has existed since the beginning of time. Hospitality is when guests stay and dine in hotels, restaurants and other places that aspire to excel travellers' or tourists' expectations. Hospitality can also refer to the relationship between a guest and a host (Hendricks, 2017). Because travelling has not always been a common activity, strangers arriving in foreign countries relied on the hospitality of community members to offer shelter and food. Gradually, taverns with lodging facilities came into existence where travellers could get accommodation and food. Tavern accommodation was later replaced by hotels (Otels, 2019).

The Industrial Revolution, which commenced in the 1790s, facilitated the construction of hotels in England, America and Europe. In the 18th century, hotels came into operation and in this time technology progressed rapidly. This means that more reliable modes of transport had become available to the wider public which enabled many people to travel the world. More luxurious hotels were built to accommodate businessmen and officials. These hotels became main centres for businesses and meetings. It was also during this time that travel agencies emerged. However, some travellers still preferred to use guidebooks to plan their trips and relied on word-of-mouth for destination and accommodation recommendations (Hendricks, 2017).

Travelling has inspired many individuals to learn about different cultures and cultural practices around the world. Local economies generate income when tourists spend money directly in hotels, restaurants, entertainment venues, etc. The hospitality industry can also help stimulate the building of infrastructure such as roads and public transport (Wich, 2019), and therefore plays an important role in the world economy.

4.3 Sectors within the hospitality industry

Understanding the sectors in the hospitality industry is important for in-depth understanding of the industry as a whole. Authors like Mae (2020), Reynolds (2019), Novak (2017) and Norvin (2014) list the sectors within the hospitality industry as the accommodation and lodging sector, food and beverage sector, adventure and recreation

sector, events and entertainment sector, and travel and sightseeing sector. These sectors are discussed below:

Accommodation and lodging sector: This sector is about providing guests with a place to stay on a temporary base, commonly for travellers on holiday or business. The sector does not only accommodate travellers, but also local people who may want a short break from their everyday routines. Examples include motels, lodges or serviced apartments (Mae, 2020).

Food and beverage sector: Food and drinks have become a need in the hospitality industry because they are part of the way in which people spend their leisure time and disposable income. This sector thus grants an opportunity for guests and locals to socialise and become acquainted with the food preferences of different cultures. Examples include tea and coffee shops and catering (Reynolds, 2019; Novak, 2017).

Adventure and recreation: Adventure is about doing something new and exciting, which includes activities that might be regarded as dangerous or risky. In tourism, adventure is detailed as an activity that includes cultural exchange or activities in nature, for example, zip lining and skiing. Recreation, on the other hand, refers to what travellers do when they are on holiday, which include having fun and engaging in activities that give them a good time. Examples are spot fishing and golf (Mae, 2020).

Events and entertainment sector: Events refer to the gathering of people on a small or large scale for a private event, for example, conferences and seminars. Entertainment does not only refer to entertainment associated with nightclubs, but includes festivals, concerts and casinos (Norvin, 2014).

Travel and sightseeing sector: Travelling is regarded as the action of moving from your location to a desired destination. Travellers can reach their destinations by travelling either by air, rail, road or water. Sightseeing involves exploring the destination area,

learning more about it, and seeing all interesting things about a particular area. Examples are site attractions, transport, and tour guiding (Mae, 2020).

4.4 Challenges facing hospitality industry and employees

As indicated before, the hospitality industry has been among the hardest hit by the outbreak of Covid-19 at the end of 2019. According to Combs (2020), the Covid-19 outbreak started in Wuhan, China, and quickly spread across the world. To contain the spread of the virus, countries closed their borders and local populations were placed under lockdown, meaning they could only leave their homes for food and medical assistance. Due to the many restrictions imposed by governments, the hospitality industry was severely affected, resulting in massive drops in revenue, supply chains and profits. Hotels, restaurants, bars and cafes either closed down or had to operate under strict limits. Baynova (2020) adds that the greatest loss experienced in the hospitality industry is the loss of millions of jobs both nationally and globally.

Apart from the above, it is necessary to reflect on the unique challenges that the hospitality industry were facing pre-Covid, for instance, client retention, customer reviews, competition, multi-tasking, dealing with unhappy clients, maintaining social media platforms, and keeping up with innovative measures. These issues are divided into 'hospitality industry' and 'employee challenges'. A detailed discussion of some of these challenges is provided below:

Challenges facing the hospitality industry

Client retention: Research by Allasaf (2016) reveals that it is usually easier to sell the business product or service to an existing client than to a new client; thus, many organisations put in every effort to retain existing clientele. Offering exceptional customer service to guests in the hospitality industry is one of the most effective ways to retain clientele. Many times, the quality of service received by clients motivate them to return. It is not always about the price clients must pay. Accommodation and entertainment venues in the hospitality industry that offer a positive experience to clients are likely to receive the benefit of higher client retention rates.

Customer reviews: Many customers search for online reviews before attempting to use a product or service. If a hospitality business offers poor services, customers are likely to leave negative online reviews of that business. This, in turn, is likely to discourage other customers from partaking in the business interests offered by that organisation (Wich, 2019).

Competition: The hospitality industry is large and characterised by intense competition. This means that businesses must always find ways to stand out. A good image in the market, through good service and exceptional packages/offers, is also important to attract customers (Allasaf, 2016).

Challenges facing hospitality employees

Multi-tasking: Skills such as social skills are key in the hospitality industry. The front desk of any hotel or restaurant is the first point of contact for clients. For example, front desk employees must manage all guest bookings or orders while simultaneously coordinating with other departments of the hotel or restaurant (Kumar, 2015).

Handling unhappy clients: Employees in the hospitality industry must be emotionally intelligent and be good listeners. Many times, clients want someone to vent to on a bad day (Rao, 2020).

Maintaining social media platforms: Clients always expect quick responses on social media platforms. This means hotel marketers are expected to engage with clients accordingly and timeously (Salkhordeh, 2009).

Keeping up with new innovative measures: Because clients expect value for money, hotels, bars or restaurants should be innovative and provide easy and improved ways of operating. They should remain as relevant as possible in the market (Mathews, 2019).

4.5 Innovation in the hospitality industry

Organisations need innovative measures by employees to expand their market position and enable them to keep up with the fast pace of technology (Wich, 2019). Zhang (2017) indicates that, with the emergence of the digital age, customer expectations have changed fundamentally within the hospitality industry. For example, hotels have implemented updated software tools to create customer databases for easy guest information access, reservations, housekeeping management systems, and loyalty programmes. With the use of cell phones, laptops and tablets, customers have the ability to book online, compare prices, and review the deals offered by different hotels.

Clearly, technology has made the hotel industry more multifaceted and easier to access. However, the digital age has brought a generation of do-it-yourself (DIY) travellers. These travellers plan, manage and book their own travel destinations. This phenomenon has left the traditional travel agencies with far less to do compared to prior years. On the other hand, the DIY travellers have been beneficial for online travel agencies (OTAs) who use the internet as a channel to reach out to prospective travellers (Otels, 2019).

Some innovative measures that can be employed across the hospitality industry are as follows:

- Technology is forcing industries to move into the digital era. Therefore, technologies like artificial intelligence (AI) and the internet of things (IoT) must be considered (Wich, 2019). Artificial intelligence is the simulation of human intelligence in machines. These machines are trained to think and perform human-like tasks. For example, AI chatbots are used on social media platforms for customers to ask questions and get instant responses at any given time (Frankenfield, 2020). The IoT refers to everything that is connected to the internet. It includes networks, devices and data and is increasingly being used to define objects that can 'talk' to each other to perform a task. For example, clients can unlock their hotel rooms via their mobile devices (Burgess, 2018).

- The hospitality industry can make extensive data available to their guests. In this way, hotels can tailor their offers for different levels of guests, which could lead to more client interaction.
- The introduction of voice recognition software can enable the hospitality industry to automate tasks that are traditionally performed by a human being. For example, being able to adjust room temperature and lighting, would likely impress guests and possibly encourage them to return (Wich, 2019).

It is not only innovative measures that improve hospitality services, but also finding ways to recover from disruptive events in the industry, such as the Covid-19 pandemic. Technology investments across the hospitality industry should be aimed at making a full recovery. Therefore, preparing for the future is vital (Creamer, 2020).

4.6 Conceptual framework for the study

Drawing from the literature review and theoretical framework of the study, the conceptual framework for this study was composed as presented in *Figure 4.1* below:

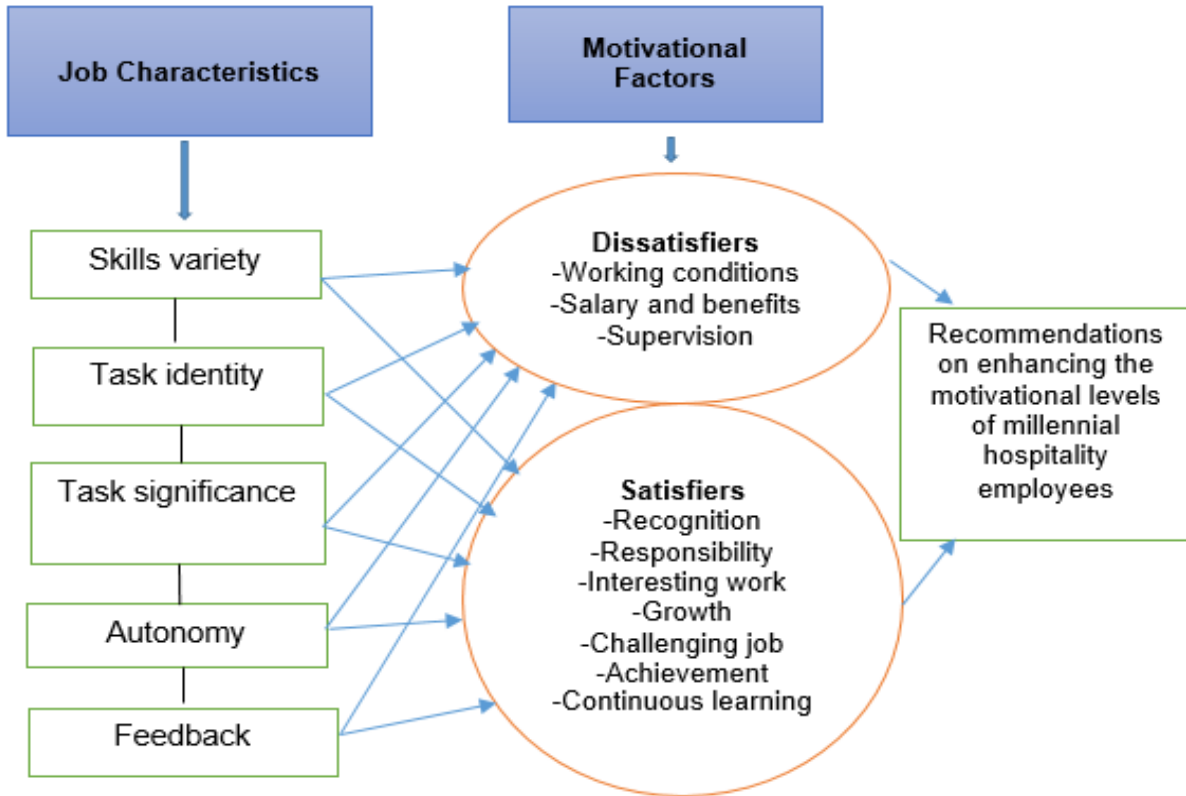


Figure 4.1: Conceptual framework for the study

Figure 4.1 details the job characteristics, namely, skills variety, task identity, task significance, autonomy, and feedback, which are critical in encouraging employees in organisations. The presence of these job characteristics is likely to motivate employees and encourage better work performance (Hackman & Oldham, 1976). Job characteristics can serve as a framework for management to identify how certain job characteristics affect job outcomes. Through these characteristics, management can further identify what makes a job satisfying for different employees (Luenendonk, 2017).

Figure 4.1 also details the employee motivators of dissatisfiers and satisfiers. As mentioned previously, dissatisfiers include working conditions, salary and benefits, and supervision, while satisfiers include recognition, responsibility, interesting work, growth, challenging job, achievement, and continuous learning (1966, in Mulder, 2018).

4.7 Summary

The aim of this chapter was to explain the tourism and hospitality industry and outline the challenges facing the industry and its employees. The chapter explained the impact of disruptive occurrences like the Covid-19 pandemic. The chapter also provided the different sectors within the hospitality industry, including some innovative measures that can be employed by the industry to achieve greater customer satisfaction. The conceptual framework for the study was also presented.

CHAPTER 5: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

5.1 Introduction

Research aims to uncover new knowledge and/or expand existing knowledge by means of scientific enquiry. Research allows researchers to uncover unknown facts to understand the world better. Kowalczyk and Scalia (2013) note that research is a systematic process, and this applies to all stages of the research process – from the reason for the research, the aims and objectives, the design of the research, the methods used to investigate the problem, and the conclusions reached.

The aim of this chapter is to detail the research methodology that applied to the current study. The chapter will allude to the research philosophy, the research approach and design applicable to the study, as well as the study population and the data-gathering instrument.

5.2 Research philosophy

Research philosophy explains the researcher's view about the world and the way they interpret reality. Having a research philosophy helps the researcher to determine the research strategy regarding data collection, processing and analysis. Research philosophy relates to the ontological and epistemological views of the researcher (Žukauskas, Vveinhardt, & Andriukaitienė, 2018). Žukauskas *et al.* (2018) define ontology as an area of philosophy concerned with what exists in the social world, including assumptions about social reality, while epistemology deals with the nature of knowledge and the different ways of knowing. Epistemology interrogates questions such as what constitutes knowledge and the limits of knowledge.

For the purpose of this study, the researcher's ontological position was objectivism seeing that the researcher believes that organisations are tangible constructs that exist in an independent reality. The study also adhered to the epistemological position of positivism because the researcher views the world in an objective way through data collection and interpretation. Positivism asserts that only knowledge confirmed through observation can

be considered as genuine. Positivism provides a clear theoretical focus for research (Cheung, 2019) because it is not based on human interests, but only focuses on facts. Therefore, it is important that researchers find evidence to either support or reject their hypotheses (Bless, Smith, & Sithole, 2016).

5.3 Research approach and design

There are three major approaches in research namely, qualitative, quantitative, and mixed methods (Welman *et al.*, 2007). The qualitative approach focuses, via open-ended questions, on the reasoning behind individual, societal, and cultural behaviours. Qualitative research is generally conducted in natural settings where participants are free to give honest answers to the researcher. This research approach usually takes the form of interviews or focus group discussions, which can be conducted either online or in person (Kumar, 2014).

The quantitative approach is about the numerical or mathematical analyses of collected data. Quantitative data can be collected through surveys, experiments or secondary research. The mixed-methods approach combines advantages of both the quantitative and qualitative approach (Bless *et al.*, 2016).

Consistent with a positivist outlook, a quantitative approach was followed in the study. The emphasis was thus on measurement and statistical analysis (Yilmaz, 2013). A research design is a plan according to which the researcher obtains information or data from participants (Welman *et al.*, 2007). A research design also relates directly to answering the research question (Bless *et al.*, 2016). For this study, a survey design was adopted to collect data. Survey research can be defined as the collection of information from one or more individuals about their characteristics, attitudes, opinions, and previous experiences with the intention of tabulating their responses to questions asked (Yilmaz, 2013).

This type of research allows for a variety of instrumentation and methods to recruit participants and collect data. Survey research can use quantitative strategies (e.g.,

questionnaires with numerically rated items), qualitative research strategies (using open-ended questions), or both strategies (mixed methods). Surveys are frequently used in social and psychological research to explore and describe human behaviour (Kumar, 2014).

5.4 Population

A population can be defined as the study object and consists of groups, organisations, events, and human participants (Welman *et al.*, 2007). A population can refer to a group of people who share one or more characteristics from which data can be gathered and analysed. The population for the current study was millennial hospitality employees. The data gathering for the study was scheduled for October 2020, but as South Africa was still restricted by the lockdown regulations, most employees had either been retrenched or were on temporary leave, or hospitality establishments were not willing to grant the researcher access to gather data.

Faced with this dilemma the researcher used snowball sampling to contact respondents. Snowball sampling is a sampling method applied when the characteristics to be sampled are rare and difficult to find. It is a method in which the primary data source nominates or recruits another potential primary source to be used in data collection (Bobbitt, 2020). With snowball sampling the researcher has the ability to recruit the hidden population and minimise the amount of time spent on collecting data (Dudovskiy, 2021).

In this study, respondents were identified with the help of alumni from the Hotel School of the Central University of Technology and social media. Electronic messages were sent to invite potential respondents working in the hospitality industry to complete the questionnaire. The questionnaire was available as a link on QuestionPro. With all efforts, 96 responses were recorded. Respondents were requested to indicate their age and it was confirmed that all respondents were millennial employees.

5.5 Data-gathering instrument

A structured questionnaire was used to gather data from participants. A structured questionnaire is a primary measuring instrument with which to collect data in survey research. It is a document that consist of standardised questions, specifying the exact wording and order of questions for gathering information from respondents (Cheung, 2019). The questionnaire for this study consisted of two sections:

Section A: Job characteristics

Section A captured the perceived job characteristics of millennials based on the JCM designed by Hackman and Oldham (Luenendonk, 2017; Buys *et al.*, 2007).

Section B: Motivation

Section B measured the level of motivation of millennial employees based on Herzberg's two-factor theory. As indicated, the components were grouped into dissatisfiers and satisfiers (Nel *et al.*, 2014).

5.6 Summary

This chapter explained the study's research methodology and detailed the research approach followed. The chapter described the study population, as well as the data-gathering instrument used to collect the study data.

CHAPTER 6: DATA ANALYSIS AND PRESENTATION OF RESULTS

6.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the analysis of the findings of the investigation. Both descriptive and inferential statistics were applied to interpret the data. Descriptive statistics include graphs and tables, while inferential statistics include partial least squares structured equation modelling (PLS-SEM) to measure the relationships between the variables.

6.2 Descriptive statistics

According to Trochim (2020), descriptive statistics are used to simplify large amounts of data in a sensible way and provide summaries about the sample and the measures. Descriptive statistics help understand what the obtained data have to say about the phenomenon under study. This section provides the descriptive statistics based on the data gathered from the questionnaire. All respondents were millennial hospitality employees born between 1980 and 1995.

6.2.1 Section A: Job characteristics

This section details the respondents' perceptions on the five job characteristics by Hackman and Oldham. It consisted of 20 questions addressing job characteristics in the hospitality industry.

Table 6.1: Job characteristics scores

	Question	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Slightly disagree	Slightly agree	Agree	Strongly agree
6.1	My job requires a variety of technical skills pertaining to the hospitality industry (housekeeping, food beverage, etc.).	4%	4%	10%	12%	30%	40%
6.2	I can use my own judgment in the way I perform tasks.	6%	10%	3%	15%	42%	24%

	Question	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Slightly disagree	Slightly agree	Agree	Strongly agree
6.3	My job requires me to use high-level skills like active listening and customer service.	0%	1%	0%	0%	23%	76%
6.4	Tasks assigned to me are clearly communicated.	2%	5%	4%	14%	45%	30%
6.5	My manager/supervisor provides feedback on my performance.	2%	10%	7%	18%	38%	25%
6.6	My manager/superior allows me to finish work that I started.	0%	6%	2%	10%	43%	39%
6.7	I am allowed to make my own decisions regarding my work schedule.	22%	19%	6%	19%	20%	14%
6.8	My job is important within the organisation.	1%	0%	1%	13%	32%	53%
6.9	My job performance enables colleagues to accomplish their job goals.	0%	5%	5%	14%	40%	36%
6.10	My job is more meaningful when I have full control over the tasks assigned to me.	0%	0%	2%	12%	29%	57%
6.11	My job allows me to enhance my knowledge and skills.	1%	3%	7%	20%	26%	43%
6.12	My job exposes me to different aspects of the business (e.g., dealing with customers, ensuring quality standards, understanding finances).	3%	10%	9%	12%	23%	43%
6.13	I can use my own discretion in executing tasks.	4%	12%	13%	23%	32%	16%
6.14	My job has a positive impact on external stakeholders.	2%	4%	11%	21%	36%	26%
6.15	Completing tasks gives me a sense of accomplishment.	0%	1%	0%	9%	31%	59%
6.16	I am able to use my own discretion in doing my job.	3%	9%	2%	15%	44%	27%

	Question	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Slightly disagree	Slightly agree	Agree	Strongly agree
6.17	I am often absent from work.	67%	19%	3%	6%	4%	1%
6.18	I am unsure of how well I perform my job.	39%	28%	9%	9%	11%	4%
6.19	My work is repetitive and monotonous.	12%	14%	5%	22%	25%	22%
6.20	I receive recognition for the job I do.	4%	11%	5%	25%	33%	22%

According to Table 6.1, 40% (question 6.1) of the respondents strongly agreed that their jobs require a variety of technical skills pertaining to the hospitality industry, and 6% (question 6.2) stated that they could not use their own judgement in the way they perform tasks. Of the 96 respondents, 76% (question 6.3) indicated that their jobs require the use of high-level skills such as active listening. In question 6.4, only 5% of the respondents noted that tasks assigned to them are not clearly communicated, but 45% indicated that they receive clear communication on tasks. According to responses to question 6.5, 38% agreed to receiving feedback on their performance, and 10% (question 6.6) slightly agreed that their managers allow them to finish work they have started. A total of 19% (question 6.7) revealed that they are not allowed to make their own decisions regarding their work schedules. The majority of respondents (53%) on question 6.8 strongly agreed that their jobs are important within the organisation, whereas only 5% (question 6.9) said their job performance does not enable their colleagues to accomplish their goals.

Further responses revealed that 57% found their jobs more meaningful when they have full control over tasks assigned to them (question 6.10). Most respondents (43%) indicated that their jobs allow them to enhance their knowledge and skills (question 6.11), while some respondents (3%) (question 6.12) indicated that their jobs do not expose them to different aspects of the business. In question 6.13, 12% of respondents revealed that they are not allowed to use their own discretion in executing tasks, while others (4%) in question 6.14 thought their jobs do not have an impact on external stakeholders. A total of 59% strongly agreed in question 6.15 that completing tasks gives them a sense of

accomplishment, but 3% said they are not able to use their own judgement in doing their jobs (question 6.16).

Responses to question 6.17 indicated that 67% of the respondents strongly disagreed to often being absent from work, and as little as 4% in question 6.18 were not sure of how well they performed their jobs. In question 6.19, 25% of the respondents revealed that their jobs were repetitive and monotonous, while 33% in question 6.20 agreed to receiving recognition for the jobs they do.

6.2.2 Section B: Employee motivation

This section presents the respondents' level of motivation and consisted of 24 questions focusing on the millennial hospitality employees.

Table 6.2: Employee motivation scores

	Question	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Slightly disagree	Slightly agree	Agree	Strongly agree
7.1	I enjoy the work I do.	3%	3%	4%	18%	29%	43%
7.2	My day-to-day tasks are very stimulating.	1%	9%	6%	26%	37%	21%
7.3	My job gives me a sense of security.	3%	10%	4%	18%	40%	25%
7.4	I am not inspired to do my best at my work.	34%	34%	7%	12%	6%	7%
7.5	I experience personal and professional growth on the job.	3%	6%	8%	10%	39%	34%
7.6	I feel positive about my job.	2%	7%	5%	20%	38%	28%
7.7	My motivation levels at times affect my work performance.	5%	7%	0%	15%	30%	43%
7.8	My manager contributes sufficiently to my motivation levels	9%	3%	6%	23%	32%	27%

	Question	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Slightly disagree	Slightly agree	Agree	Strongly agree
7.9	I would not recommend anyone to work at my place of employment.	34%	38%	5%	6%	8%	9%
7.10	I am most motivated by non-monetary rewards (e.g., gifts).	27%	23%	13%	11%	20%	6%
7.11	The organisation does not provide equal promotional opportunities.	12%	28%	15%	18%	16%	11%
7.12	I am not motivated by performance appraisal activities.	16%	31%	19%	13%	16%	5%
7.13	Understanding the organisation's vision motivates me to produce quality work.	4%	5%	3%	15%	40%	33%
7.14	I am most motivated when my work is appreciated by my superiors.	0%	3%	2%	10%	35	50%
7.15	I am often bored on the job.	27%	33%	4%	28%	2%	6%
7.16	I am being micromanaged and told exactly what to do.	16%	28%	15%	14%	15%	12%
7.17	I am most motivated when my direct superior recognises and acknowledges my work.	5%	3%	4%	15%	36%	37%
7.18	I deliberately arrive late for work.	63%	21%	3%	7%	2%	4%
7.19	Having the necessary resources (e.g., equipment, utensils, material, etc.) contributes to my motivation levels.	2%	2%	3%	6%	28%	59%
7.20	I put good effort into performing my tasks.	1%	3%	1%	1%	36%	58%
7.21	My manager shows genuine interest not only in my work performance but my career goals as well.	15%	18%	5%	22%	15%	25%
7.22	I am motivated when I am included in decision making.	1%	3%	1%	15%	27%	53%

	Question	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Slightly disagree	Slightly agree	Agree	Strongly agree
7.23	I am able to recognise my contribution in the organisation's success.	0%	9%	13%	17%	34%	27%
7.24	My job is an expression of what I love doing and what I am good at.	4%	5%	8%	14%	34%	35%

Table 6.2 reveals that 43% of the respondents do enjoy their work (question 7.1), while only 1% noted that their day-to-day tasks are not very stimulating (question 7.2). On question 7.3, 40% agreed that their jobs offer them a sense of security. A fair number (34%) of respondents on question 7.4 are inspired to do their best at work, and the same number (34%) strongly agreed on question 7.5 that they experience both personal and professional growth on the job. Of the total respondents, 38% felt positive about their jobs (question 7.6) and almost half (43%) on question 7.7 indicated that their motivation levels do affect their work performance at times.

A small number (23%) of respondents on question 7.8 slightly agreed that their managers do contribute sufficiently to their motivation levels. A small number of respondents (9%) would not recommend anyone to work at their place of employment (question 7.9), while 27% of the respondents to question 7.10 were more motivated by money than gifts. Further responses revealed that only 16% of the respondents believed that their organisations do not provide equal promotional opportunities (question 7.11), whereas 28% agreed that there are equal promotional opportunities. In question 7.12, 16% agreed to being motivated by performance appraisal activities.

Related to question 7.13, 40% of respondents confirmed that they are motivated to produce quality work when they understand the organisation's vision. On question 7.14, half (50%) of the respondents indicated to be most motivated when their work is appreciated by their supervisors. Responses to question 7.15 indicated that 33% of the respondents were not often bored on the job, while 15% in question 7.16 believed that they were micromanaged and told exactly what to do. According to responses to question

7.17, 15% slightly agreed to being motivated when their supervisors acknowledge their work. More than half (63%) of the responses to question 7.18 indicated that respondents do not deliberately arrive late for work, and 59% indicated that the availability of resources to perform their work contributed to their motivation levels (question 7.19).

Question 7.20 measured effort in performing tasks and 58% of the respondents strongly agreed that they put good effort into performing their tasks. Only 18% of the respondents to question 7.21 believed that their managers do not show genuine interest in neither their work performance nor personal goals. A significant percentage (53%) in question 7.22 indicated to being motivated when included in decision making, but an insignificant percentage (9%) in question 7.23 were not able to recognise their contribution to the organisation's success. Despite this, 35% of the respondents to question 7.24 indicated that their jobs were an expression of what they love to do and what they are good at.

6.3 Inferential statistics

Before the commencement of the data analysis process, all variables were assessed for normality. The assumption of normality is a prerequisite for parametric statistical analysis. Because some questions were negatively worded, they were reverse coded. These include the following items: FD3, FD4, MOT4, MOT9, MOT11, MOT12, MOT15, MOT16, MOT18, and SV5 (refer to Annexure C).

The Shapiro-Wilk test was performed to assess the normality of the items. If the p-value of the Shapiro-Wilk test is <0.05 , it means that the data significantly deviate from a normal distribution (Laerd Statistics, 2019). Table 6.3 indicates that all data variables significantly deviated from a normal distribution with p values <0.001 .

Table 6.3: Normality assessment – Shapiro-Wilk test

Items	Statistic	df	Sig.
AT1	.824	82	< 0.001
AT2	.891	82	< 0.001
AT3	.811	82	< 0.001
FD1	.806	82	< 0.001

FD2	.859	82	< 0.001
FD3	.629	82	< 0.001
FD4	.809	82	< 0.001
MOT1	.802	82	< 0.001
MOT2	.877	82	< 0.001
MOT3	.840	82	< 0.001
MOT4	.815	82	< 0.001
MOT5	.796	82	< 0.001
MOT6	.849	82	< 0.001
MOT7	.768	82	< 0.001
MOT8	.835	82	< 0.001
MOT9:	.787	82	< 0.001
MOT10	.875	82	< 0.001
MOT11	.908	82	< 0.001
MOT12	.896	82	< 0.001
MOT13	.800	82	< 0.001
MOT14	.748	82	< 0.001
MOT15	.859	82	< 0.001
MOT16	.905	82	< 0.001
MOT17	.795	82	< 0.001
MOT18	.640	82	< 0.001
MOT19	.623	82	< 0.001
MOT20	.614	82	< 0.001
MOT21	.872	82	< 0.001
MOT22	.714	82	< 0.001
MOT23	.864	82	< 0.001
MOT24	.808	82	< 0.001
SV1	.762	82	< 0.001
SV2	.485	82	< 0.001
SV3	.802	82	< 0.001
SV4	.772	82	< 0.001
SV5	.876	82	< 0.001
TI1	.750	82	< 0.001
TI2	.879	82	< 0.001
TI3	.706	82	< 0.001
TI4	.701	82	< 0.001
TS1	.736	82	< 0.001
TS2	.820	82	< 0.001
TS3	.846	82	< 0.001
TS4	.868	82	< 0.001

AT, autonomy; FD, feedback; MOT, motivation; SV, task variety; TI, task identity; TS, task significance.

6.3.1 Partial least squares structured equation modelling (PLS-SEM)

As all data variables significantly deviated from a normal distribution, the use of PLS-SEM was validated, seeing that PLS-SEM does not require data to be normally distributed. The statistical package, SmartPLS version 3.0, was used to conduct the PLS-SEM analysis. PLS-SEM is a second-generation multivariate analysis technique that combines the features of the first-generation principal components and linear regression analysis. PLS-SEM is a regression-based approach that explores the linear relationships between multiple independent variables and a single or multiple dependent variables (Janadari, Subramaniam Ramalu, Wei, & Abdullah, 2016). PLS-SEM is regarded to be highly suitable if the goal of the study is to predict key target constructs and the research is exploratory in nature (Hair, Hult, Ringle, & Sarstedt, 2017). Another consideration for using PLS-SEM in the current study was that the minimum sample size that was required to conduct the analysis was relatively low.

The minimum sample size for PLS-SEM should be equal to the larger of the following: (1) 10 times the largest number of formative indicators used to measure one construct, or (2) 10 times the largest number of structural paths directed at a particular construct in the structural model (Hair *et al.*, 2017). As can be seen from the research model in Figure 6.1, the largest number of structural paths directed at a construct was five. Therefore, the minimum required sample size for the PLS-SEM analysis was 50.

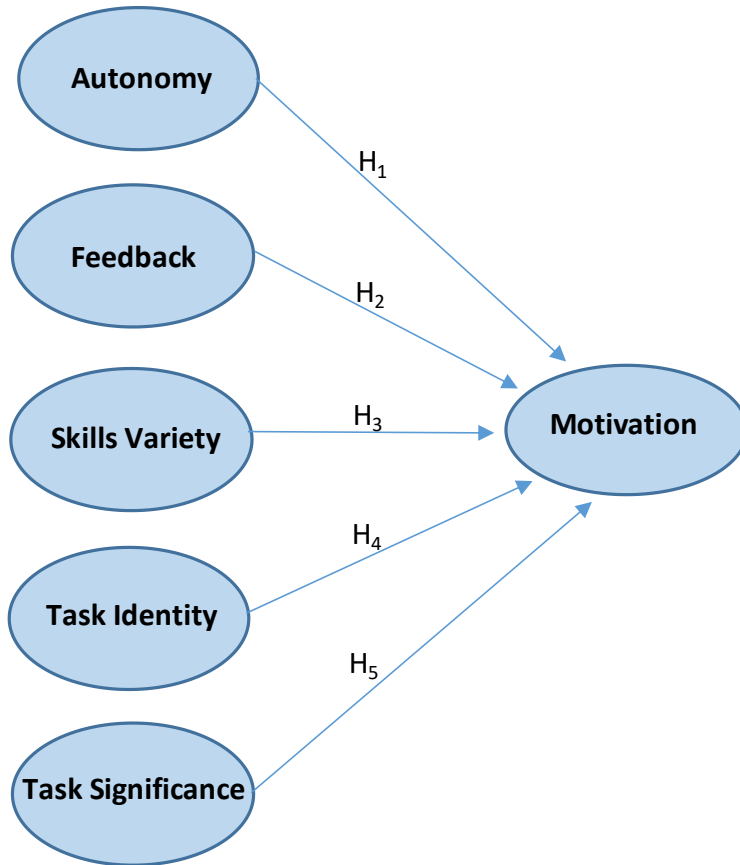


Figure 6.1: Research model

Hypotheses for the research model

The hypotheses for the study were formulated as follows:

- H₁: There is a statistically significant relationship between autonomy and motivation.
- H₂: There is a statistically significant relationship between feedback and motivation.
- H₃: There is a statistically significant relationship between skills variety and motivation.
- H₄: There is a statistically significant relationship between task identity and motivation.
- H₅: There is a statistically significant relationship between task significance and motivation.

Evaluation of the PLS-SEM model

The evaluation of the PLS-SEM model for the study was done in a two-stage process:

- First, the outer model was assessed, as discussed in Section 1.

- Secondly, the inner model was assessed, as discussed in Section 2.

6.3.4 Section 1: Outer model (measuring model) assessment

Before testing for a significant relationship in the structural model, the measurement model must be evaluated first (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). The two main criteria used in PLS analysis to assess the measurement model, or what is alternatively called the outer model, are validity and reliability (Ramayah, Lee, & In, 2011). Reliability tests aim to find stability and the consistency of the measuring instrument, whereas validity tests assess how accurate the instrument measures a particular concept (Janadari *et al.*, 2016). In order to assess the reliability and validity of the measurement model, the following were assessed:

- Indicator reliability;
- Convergent validity;
- Internal consistency reliability; and
- Discriminant validity.

Indicator reliability

According to Hulland (1999), reflective indicator loadings of >0.5 show that the item is a good measurement of a latent construct. However, according to Hair *et al.* (2017), the indicators with outer loadings between 0.40 and 0.70 should be considered for removal only if the deletion leads to an increase in composite reliability (CR) and average variance extracted (AVE) above the suggested threshold value. Moreover, according to Ringle, Sarstedt, and Straub (2012), care should be taken to not remove too many indicators from a construct due to the negative impact it would have on the content validity of a construct. For this reason, a minimum number of three indicators were deemed necessary for the measurement of each construct in order to ensure content validity. Based on guidelines provided by Hair *et al.* (2017), indicators that had loadings lower than 0.70 were removed from the measuring model. These items were: FD3, TI4, TS1, SV2, SV5, MOT3, MOT7, MOT9, MOT10, MOT12, MOT14, MOT15, MOT16, MOT17, MOT18, MOT19, MOT20, and MOT22.

In addition, items with loadings below 0.7 and above 0.5 should be removed from the measurement model only if the removal would increase the CR and AVE values above the threshold values of 0.7 for CR and 0.5 for AVE, except in cases where the application of this principle would result in a number of less than three indicators per construct (Hair *et al.*, 2017). Table 6.4 shows that most indicator loadings were above the prescribed 0.5 threshold (Hulland, 1999). However, item FD4 did not meet the 0.5 threshold, with a value of 0.497. It can therefore be concluded that all constructs exhibited indicator reliability. This is indicated in Table 6.4 below.

Table 6.4: Factor loadings

	Autonomy	Feedback	Motivation	Task Variety	Task Identity	Task Significance
AT1	0.659					
AT2	0.884					
AT3	0.878					
FD1		0.882				
FD2		0.901				
FD4		0.497				
MOT01			0.684			
MOT02			0.668			
MOT04			0.542			
MOT05			0.720			
MOT06			0.710			
MOT08			0.569			
MOT11			0.512			
MOT13			0.580			
MOT21			0.788			
MOT23			0.593			
MOT24			0.657			
SV1				0.623		
SV3				0.745		
SV4				0.823		
TI1					0.615	
TI2					0.816	
TI3					0.540	
TS2						0.723
TS3						0.694
TS4						0.683

AT, autonomy; FD, feedback; MOT, motivation; SV, task variety; TI, task identity; TS, task significance.

Convergent validity

Convergent validity is the extent to which a measure correlates positively with alternative measures of the same construct (Hair *et al.*, 2017). Convergent validity is assessed using the AVE, which is the average variance shared between a construct and its measures (Janadari *et al.*, 2016). According to Bagozzi and Yi (1988) and Fornell and Larcker (1981), AVE should be greater than 0.5. As shown by Table 6.5, the AVEs of three constructs namely, autonomy, feedback, and skills variety, were above the 0.5 threshold, whereas the AVEs of the other three constructs namely, motivation, task identity, and task significance, were only slightly below 0.5.

Table 6.5: Average variance extracted (AVE)

Construct	AVE
Autonomy	0.662
Feedback	0.612
Motivation	0.414
Skills Variety	0.540
Task Identity	0.445
Task Significance	0.490

Internal consistency reliability

Internal consistency reliability can be assessed using the CR of a construct. According to Gefen, Straub, and Boudreau (2000), CR should be greater than 0.7 in order to indicate adequate internal consistency reliability. As reflected in Table 6.6, the CRs of all constructs were above 0.70, indicating the internal consistency reliability of all constructs.

Table 6.6: Measurement model: CR

Construct	CR
Autonomy	0.852
Feedback	0.817
Motivation	0.884
Skills Variety	0.777
Task Identity	0.700
Task Significance	0.742

Discriminant validity

Discriminant validity is the extent to which a construct is truly distinct from other constructs by empirical standards. As Hair *et al.* (2017) explains, '[d]iscriminant validity implies that a construct is unique and captures phenomena not represented by other constructs in the model'. To assess the discriminant validity of the measurement model, the following were investigated:

- Cross-loadings; and
- The Fornell-Larcker criterion.

Cross-loadings are typically the first approach in assessing the discriminant validity of the indicators. Specifically, an indicator's outer loading on the associated construct should be greater than any of its cross-loadings (i.e., its correlation) on other constructs. The best way to assess and report cross-loadings is in a table with rows for the indicators and columns for the latent constructs (Hair *et al.*, 2017). Table 6.7 shows that the indicator loadings of each construct did not load higher on any other construct, which indicates discriminant validity.

Table 6.7: Cross-loadings

Items	Autonomy	Feedback	Motivation	Task Variety	Task Identity	Task Significance
AT1	0.659	0.010	0.223	0.297	0.079	0.195
AT2	0.884	0.377	0.480	0.616	0.427	0.490
AT3	0.878	0.273	0.370	0.230	0.311	0.273
FD1	0.337	0.882	0.438	0.425	0.501	0.333
FD2	0.256	0.901	0.544	0.323	0.508	0.469
FD4	0.113	0.497	0.201	0.118	0.287	0.147
MOT01	0.184	0.335	0.684	0.222	0.379	0.351
MOT02	0.241	0.426	0.668	0.375	0.470	0.383
MOT04	0.266	0.396	0.542	0.263	0.263	0.298
MOT05	0.246	0.325	0.720	0.452	0.195	0.306
MOT06	0.364	0.306	0.710	0.478	0.265	0.302
MOT08	0.134	0.368	0.569	0.274	0.276	0.417
MOT11	0.357	0.338	0.512	0.269	0.160	0.378
MOT13	0.442	0.478	0.580	0.218	0.391	0.334
MOT21	0.381	0.382	0.788	0.500	0.404	0.476
MOT23	0.342	0.182	0.593	0.489	0.412	0.428

MOT24	0.273	0.271	0.657	0.348	0.369	0.246
SV1	0.249	0.159	0.210	0.623	0.197	0.224
SV3	0.249	0.281	0.445	0.745	0.377	0.411
SV4	0.547	0.374	0.498	0.823	0.432	0.362
TI1	0.194	0.593	0.289	0.318	0.615	0.281
TI2	0.332	0.364	0.431	0.416	0.816	0.467
TI3	0.205	0.209	0.289	0.215	0.540	0.292
TS2	0.381	0.335	0.435	0.448	0.529	0.723
TS3	0.364	0.097	0.320	0.396	0.238	0.694
TS4	0.155	0.448	0.408	0.151	0.319	0.683

AT, autonomy; FD, feedback; MOT, motivation; SV, task variety; TI, task identity; TS, task significance.

The Fornell-Larcker criterion is the second approach to assessing discriminant validity. It compares the square root of the AVE values with the latent variable correlations. Specifically, the square root of each construct's AVE should be greater than its highest correlation with any other construct (Janadari *et al.*, 2016). The square root of the AVE of each latent variable is shown diagonally in bold in Table 6.8, along with the correlations of the latent variable with other latent variables. Table 6.8 illustrates that the square root of the AVE of each latent variable was indeed higher than any correlation with any other latent variable, also indicating the discriminant validity of the measurement model.

Table 6.8: Fornell-Larcker

	Autonomy	Feedback	Motivation	Task Variety	Task Identity	Task Significance
Autonomy	0.814					
Feedback	0.317	0.783				
Motivation	0.465	0.541	0.644			
Skills Variety	0.499	0.395	0.562	0.735		
Task Identity	0.377	0.567	0.515	0.487	0.667	
Task Significance	0.423	0.441	0.562	0.470	0.535	0.700

6.3.5 Section 2: Inner model (structural model) assessment

The assessment of the structural model of the study was conducted in three steps namely:

- Step 1: Assess the significance and relevance of the structural model relationships;
- Step 2: Assess the level of R²; and
- Step 3: Assess the effect size (f²).

Step 1: Assess the significance and relevance of the structural model relationship

The direct effects of all the hypothesised relationships were evaluated by making use of bootstrapping analysis. Bootstrapping is a resampling technique that draws a large number of subsamples from the original data (with replacement) and estimates models for each subsample. It is used to determine standard errors of coefficients in order to assess their statistical significance without relying on distributional assumptions (Hair *et al.*, 2017). The standardised beta and t-values were calculated by the bootstrapping procedure with a resample of 5000. The results of the bootstrapping procedure are shown in Table 6.9.

Table 6.9: Path model results of SEM model

Hypothesis		Std Beta	T Statistic	P-Value	Decision
H ₁	Autonomy -> Motivation	0.133	1.048	0.295	Rejected
H ₂	Feedback -> Motivation	0.255	2.008	0.045	Accepted
H ₃	Skills Variety -> Motivation	0.248	2.001	0.045	Accepted
H ₄	Task Identity -> Motivation	0.072	0.617	0.537	Rejected
H ₅	Task Significance -> Motivation	0.238	2.233	0.026	Accepted

Table 6.9 shows that there was a **positive** statistically significant relationship between feedback and motivation ($\beta=0.255$, $p=0.045$). H₂ of the study was therefore supported. Moreover, there was a **positive** statistically significant relationship between skills variety and motivation ($\beta=0.248$, $p=0.045$). H₃ of the study was therefore also supported. Lastly, there was a positive statistically significant relationship between task significance and motivation ($\beta=0.238$, $p=0.026$). H₅ of the study was therefore also supported. In contrast, there was **not** a statistically significant relationship between autonomy and motivation

($\beta=0.133$, $p=0.295$), and task identify and motivation ($\beta=0.072$, $p=0.537$). Therefore, H₁ and H₄ of the study were rejected.

Step 2: Assess the level of R²

R² measures the proportion of variance in a latent endogenous construct that is explained by other exogenous constructs expressed as a percentage (Chin, 1988). Exogenous constructs are independent constructs in all equations in which they appear. On the other hand, endogenous constructs are dependent constructs in at least one equation, although they may be independent variables in other equations in the system. The R² value of the structural model is shown in Table 6.10.

Table 6.10: R-square

	R-square	Adjusted R-square
Motivation	0.510	0.482

Figure 6.10 shows that the R² value of motivation was 0.51. This means that a combination of feedback, skills variety, and task significance constructs can explain 51% of the variance in the motivation of millennial hospitality employees. According to Cohen (1992), R² values of 0.12 or below indicate a low effect size; values between 0.13 to 0.25 indicate medium effect size; and values of 0.26 or above indicate high effect size. From these guidelines, it is evident that a combination of feedback, skills variety, and task significance constructs had a high predictive power towards motivation of millennial hospitality employees.

Step 3: Assess the effect size (f²)

The assessment of the effect size of a construct evaluates whether the omitted construct has a substantive impact on the endogenous construct. This is also known as the effect size of the exogenous latent variable on the model.

The assessment of this effect size follows Cohen's (1992) guidelines, which are as follows:

$0.02 \leq f^2 < 0.15$: weak effect;

$0.15 \leq f^2 < 0.35$: moderate effect;

$f^2 > 0.35$: strong effect.

The effect size of the three constructs which have a statistically significant relationship with motivation is shown in Table 6.11. Table 6.11 shows that the feedback, skills variety, and task significance constructs all have a weak effect size in the prediction of motivation. This means that, in the absence of one of these constructs, the other two constructs will still be able to predict the motivation of millennial hospitality employees.

Table 6.11: f-square

	Motivation
Feedback	0.085
Skills Variety	0.077
Task Significance	0.071

The structural equation model is presented in Figure 6.2 below:

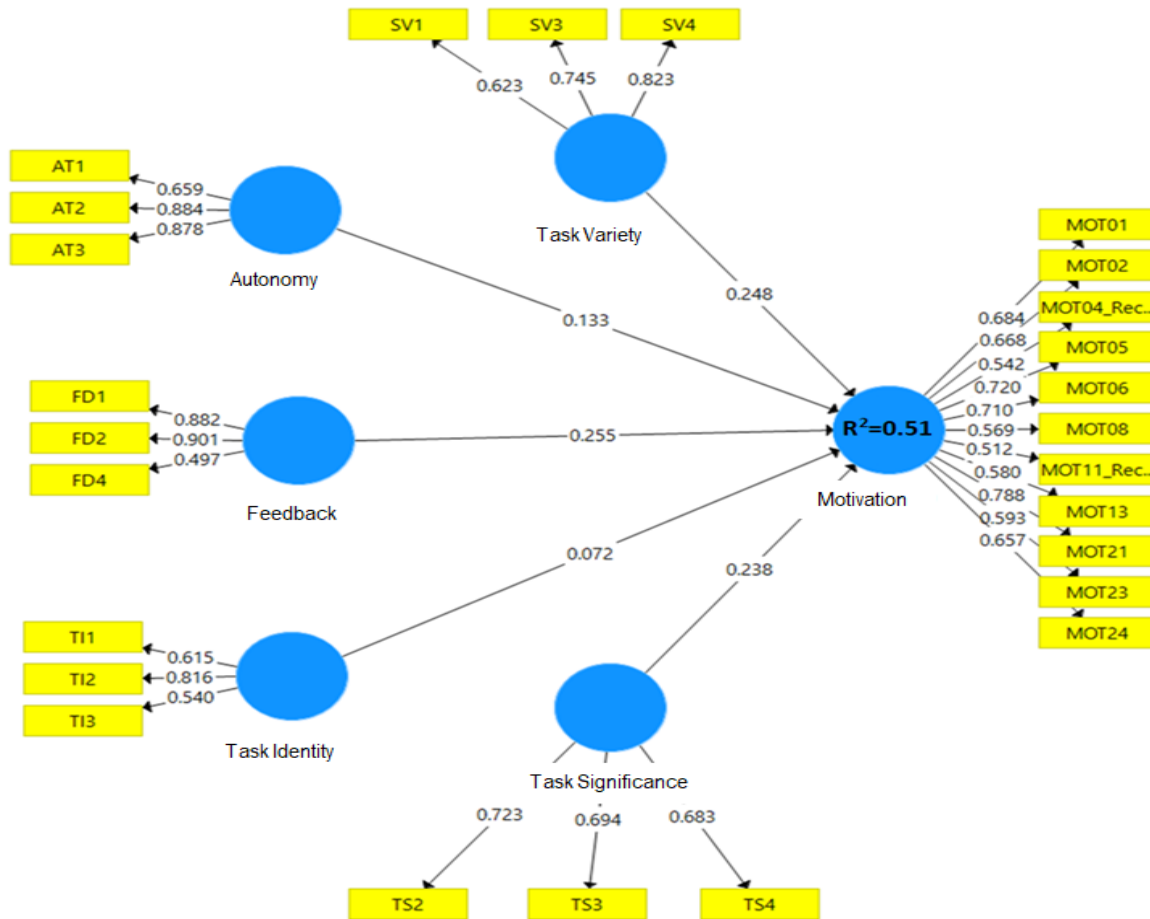


Figure 6.2: The structural equation model showing the relationship between the job characteristics and motivation of millennial hospitality employees

6.4 Discussion of findings

The structural equation model presented in Figure 6.1 shows the following relationships related to the job characteristics and motivation constructs: feedback (0.255, $p=0.045$), task significance (0.238, $p=0.026$), and task variety (0.248, $p=0.045$). These three together have a high predictive power towards motivation. The results also support the H₂, H₃ and H₅ of the PSL-SEM. However, a weak relationship exists with autonomy (0.133, $p=0.295$) and feedback (0.072, $p=0.537$). These variables have a low predictive power towards motivation. Therefore, H₁ and H₄ were rejected.

6.4.1 Job characteristics construct

The five job characteristics indicated in Figure 6.2 show the following findings:

- 1.) Autonomy – Respondents can use their own judgement in performing tasks (0.659), they have discretion in executing tasks (0.884), and can use their own discretion in doing their jobs (0.878).
- 2.) Task identity – Managers do allow employees to finish work they started (0.615), and employees are allowed to make decisions regarding their work schedules (0.816). Findings further revealed that millennial employees experience meaningfulness when they have full control over the tasks they need to perform (0.540).
- 3.) Feedback – Respondents generally receive clear communication on the tasks they need to perform (0.882), they are generally provided with feedback on their performance (0.901), and they are aware of how they perform their jobs (0.497).
- 4.) Task significance – Respondents' performance enable their colleagues to accomplish their goals (0.723), their jobs generally have a positive impact on external stakeholders (0.694), and they receive recognition for the jobs they perform (0.683).
- 5.) Skills variety – Respondents' jobs offer technical skills pertaining to the hospitality industry (0.623), their jobs allow them to enhance their skills and knowledge (0.745), and they are exposed to different aspects of the business (0.823).

6.4.2 Motivation construct

Figure 6.2 indicates that millennial hospitality employees generally enjoy their jobs (0.684) and find their day-to-day tasks stimulating (0.668). The findings further showed that respondents are inspired to do their work (0.542), experience personal and professional growth on the job (0.720), and feel positive about their jobs (0.710). Respondents' managers contribute sufficiently towards their motivation levels (0.569). Respondents also experienced equal promotional opportunities at work (0.512) and, because they understand their organisation's vision and mission, they were motivated to produce quality work (0.580). Moreover, respondents indicated that their managers generally showed interest in both their work performance and career goals (0.788). Respondents can recognise their contribution in the business success (0.593) and their jobs symbolise

what they are good at and what they love doing (0.657). The findings concurred with those of Ganta (2014) and Thurston (2013), who suggested that motivated employees carry positivity and enjoy their work.

6.5 Summary

Chapter 6 presented the research findings from the empirical study. The first part of the chapter presented the descriptive summary on 20 job characteristics questions and 24 motivation questions. This was followed by a detailed discussion of the relationship between job characteristics and motivation, from which the researcher drew conclusions and recommendations (to be presented in the next chapter). The chapter further discussed the construction of the research model, including the relationship found between the job characteristics and motivation.

The following chapter provides the conclusions drawn from the findings, including the PLS-SEM analysis, followed by the contribution of the research to the field of study. Limitations of the research will be detailed, and recommendations will be made.

CHAPTER 7: CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

7.1 Introduction

The previous chapter presented, analysed and discussed the findings from the empirical part of the investigation. This chapter discusses the conclusions and recommendations that have emanated from the investigation. The limitations of the study are briefly referred to and future research directions are suggested.

7.2 Conclusions

The main research objective was to ascertain the impact of job characteristics on the motivation of millennial hospitality employees. PLS-SEM was used to analyse the relationships between the variables.

As mentioned before, challenges pertaining to the hospitality industry include long working hours, work–life balance, poor compensation, etc. (Van Zyl, 2011). Mbane (2017) found a strong relationship between fair compensation and employee retention in the hospitality industry. Montgomery and Spragg (2017) indicated that millennials in this industry had higher turnover rates than other generations because they were least satisfied with their jobs. Research by Matthewman (2015) and Ruiz (2017) found that millennial hospitality employees were motivated by meaningful and challenging work, personal and professional development, feedback on their performance, the knowledge that their jobs have a positive impact on other people’s lives, and being informed on where they fit into the organisation’s vision and mission.

In addition, Rizzo (2016) showed that millennials in the hospitality industry preferred communication and recognition for good performance. Millennials were also noted to be motivated by career opportunities, leadership development programmes and job security (Matthewman, 2015). This study drew from Herzberg’s two-factor theory to help identify employee satisfiers and dissatisfiers on the job. The discussions drawn from Tables 6.1 and 6.2 helped understand the factors which satisfy and dissatisfy millennial hospitality employees, especially in light of the challenges in the hospitality industry.

The findings of this study revealed that the constructs of feedback, skills variety, and task significance have a high predictive power towards the motivation of millennial hospitality employees, whereas autonomy and task identity had a low predictive power towards motivation (see Table 6.9). Table 6.1 shows that the millennial respondents were motivated because tasks assigned to them were clearly communicated (45%), they were aware of how well they performed their tasks (39%), and they received feedback on their performance (38%). The respondents further confirmed that they were motivated because they have a variety of skills pertaining to hospitality-related work (40%), they had opportunities to enhance their knowledge and skills (43%), and they were being exposed to the different aspects of the business (43%). In addition, they indicated that their motivation levels were supported by knowing that their jobs allowed their colleagues to accomplish their goals (40%), being aware that their jobs had a positive impact on external stakeholders (36%), and being recognised for good performance (33%).

However, Figure 6.1 revealed a lack of autonomy (0.133) and task identity (0.072) pertaining to hospitality jobs. Although autonomy and task identity recorded low scores, the relationship was still positive. For example, the millennial employees confirmed that their jobs were more meaningful when they had full control over tasks (57%) (see Table 6.1) which can still contribute to enhanced levels of motivation. The findings from Table 6.9 closely relate with those of Kemboi, Biwott, Chenuos, and Rutto (2013) who determined that skills variety is positively associated to job performance in the health industry.

Similarly, Johari and Yahya (2016) found that task significance and feedback significantly influence the job performance of public servants. On the other hand, research by Sever and Malbašić (2019) revealed that, among Croatian employees aged between 20 and 29, feedback and autonomy were rated lowest in relation to job satisfaction. Sa and Moura Sá (2014), in their research on call centre employees, found that autonomy was also rated lowest. Authors like Renier and Vawda (2014) found that task variety, task significance, task identity, feedback and autonomy correlated positively to job satisfaction among the

South African white-collar workers and that all five job characteristics were weak predictors of perceived stress levels and depression.

Responses (see Table 6.2) agreed with the findings of Jasmi (2012) namely, that motivated employees have a positive impact on organisational performance and business productivity. Al-Madi, Assal, Shrafat, and Zeglat (2017) also concluded that employee motivation has a significant impact on organisational commitment for front line employees at retail stores. Similarly, Nguyen (2017) stated that employee motivation is vital for organisational effectiveness and organisational growth. Jain, Gupta, and Bindal (2019) concluded that employee motivation is important and managers should always try to adjust representative needs to fit organisational targets.

Brooks (2007) showed that communication contributed significantly to workplace motivation and job satisfaction, while other authors like Mensah, Boye, Tawiah, and Kwesi (2016) concluded that mining employees in Ghana were motivated by both extrinsic and intrinsic factors with emphasis on remuneration. Deressa and Zeru (2019) found that both private and public nurses in Hawassa, Ethiopia, needed financial incentives, recognition and encouragement for increased motivation levels, while Zameer, Ali, Nisar, and Amir (2014) confirmed that employees in the beverage industry in Pakistan regarded factors such as job enrichment, job security, and reasonable remuneration important for increasing their motivation levels. Maduka and Okafor (2014) add that employees in manufacturing companies in Nnewi, Nigeria, produced more items when motivated.

The current study argues that job characteristics are highly important for employee motivation. Therefore, employers should continuously engage with their employees to try and understand what their expectations are and what improvements can be made to increase their day-to-day motivation levels. Furthermore, the findings of this study can assist managers in determining which job characteristics are important for their millennial hospitality employees, including the factors that motivate them on the job.

7.3 Recommendations

The following recommendations are proposed for managing millennial hospitality employees:

- Prospective employees, especially students need to be informed about what is expected of them while working in the hospitality industry. It is imperative that they have realistic expectations upon entering the industry. Realistic expectations can be created by means of work-integrated learning and other experimental learning programmes offered by universities and other training centers.
- Due to the nature of the industry good communication skills, teamwork, inter-cultural skills and collective decision-making is required. These personal qualities and skills need to be developed as part of the hospitality management programmes at universities and other training centers.
- Millennial employees should be allowed to have more personal defined outcomes by completing certain tasks on their own, from start to finish where possible. This is likely to increase their job satisfaction. As highlighted earlier, employees tend to find more meaning in their jobs when they can identify a complete outcome (Robbins *et al.*, 2016).

7.4 Limitations

The study focused only on the millennial generation in the hospitality industry. Therefore, the study cannot be generalised to all hospitality employees.

7.5 Suggested future research

Further research can focus on repeating this study using other generational cohorts that are employed in the hospitality industry. There are many other determinants that are likely to motivate hospitality employees. Therefore, future research can also determine what other factors contribute to the motivation levels of hospitality employees besides the job characteristics. Further research can adopt other forms of data gathering such as

interviews to engage with employees in the hospitality industry on a personal level for a deeper understanding of factors that contribute to their motivation.

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Annexure A: Letter to respondents



Study topic:

THE INFLUENCE OF JOB CHARACTERISTICS ON THE MOTIVATION OF MILLENNIAL HOSPITALITY EMPLOYEES

Thank you very much for your time and effort to answer this questionnaire. All information provided is anonymous and will be handled with confidentiality. Your willingness to answer all these questions is very valuable to both the researcher and management involved. Please answer these questions with honesty. All answers received by the researcher will be used solely for research purposes.

Thank you

Miss Seqhobane (Researcher)

Study leader: Prof Kokt

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Annexure B: Questionnaire

Job characteristics and motivation questionnaire



Please answer the following questions by indicating with an (X) where it is most appropriate.

Section A: Job characteristics

1. The undermentioned questions pertain to the extent to which job characteristics motivates you on the job. Please indicate the level of your agreement by marking with an (X) in the appropriate block.

SV – Skills variety; TI – Task identity; TS – Task significance; AT – Autonomy and FD – Feedback.

		Strongly disagree	Disagree	Slightly disagree	Slightly agree	Agree	Strongly agree
1.1	My job requires a variety of technical skills pertaining to the hospitality industry (housekeeping, food beverage, etc.).	1	2	3	4	5	6
1.2	I can use my own judgment in the way I perform tasks.	1	2	3	4	5	6
1.3	My job requires me to use high-level skills like active listening	1	2	3	4	5	6

		Strongly disagree	Disagree	Slightly disagree	Slightly agree	Agree	Strongly agree
	and customer service.						
1.4	Tasks assigned to me are clearly communicated.	1	2	3	4	5	6
1.5	My manager/supervisor provides feedback on my performance.	1	2	3	4	5	6
1.6	My manager/superior allows me to finish work that I started.	1	2	3	4	5	6
1.7	I am allowed to make my own decisions regarding my work schedule.	1	2	3	4	5	6
1.8	My job is important within the organisation.	1	2	3	4	5	6
1.9	My job performance enables colleagues to accomplish their job goals.	1	2	3	4	5	6
1.10	My job is more meaningful when I have full control over the tasks assigned to me.	1	2	3	4	5	6
1.11	My job allows me to enhance my knowledge and skills.	1	2	3	4	5	6

		Strongly disagree	Disagree	Slightly disagree	Slightly agree	Agree	Strongly agree
1.12	My job exposes me to different aspects of the business (e.g., dealing with customers, ensuring quality standards, understanding finances).	1	2	3	4	5	6
1.13	I can use my own discretion in executing tasks.	1	2	3	4	5	6
1.14	My job has a positive impact on external stakeholders.	1	2	3	4	5	6
1.15	Completing tasks gives me a sense of accomplishment.	1	2	3	4	5	6
1.16	I am able to use my own discretion in doing my job.	1	2	3	4	5	6
1.17	I am often absent from work.	1	2	3	4	5	6
1.18	I am unsure of how well I perform my job.	1	2	3	4	5	6
1.19	My work is repetitive and monotonous.	1	2	3	4	5	6
1.20	I receive recognition for the job I do.	1	2	3	4	5	6

Section B: Employee motivation

2. The undermentioned questions pertain to your motivation levels in your workplace. Please indicate the level of your agreement by marking with an (X) in the appropriate block.

		Strongly disagree	Disagree	Slightly disagree	Slightly agree	Agree	Strongly agree
2.1	I enjoy the work I do.	1	2	3	4	5	6
2.2	My day-to-day tasks are very stimulating.	1	2	3	4	5	6
2.3	My job gives me a sense of security.	1	2	3	4	5	6
2.4	I am not inspired to do my best at my work.	1	2	3	4	5	6
2.5	I experience personal and professional growth on the job.	1	2	3	4	5	6
2.6	I feel positive about my job.	1	2	3	4	5	6
2.7	My motivation levels at times affect my work performance.	1	2	3	4	5	6
2.8	My manager contributes sufficiently to my motivation levels.	1	2	3	4	5	6

		Strongly disagree	Disagree	Slightly disagree	Slightly agree	Agree	Strongly agree
2.9	I would not recommend anyone to work at my place of employment.	1	2	3	4	5	6
2.10	I am most motivated by non-monetary rewards (e.g., gifts).	1	2	3	4	5	6
2.11	The organisation does not provide equal promotional opportunities.	1	2	3	4	5	6
2.12	I am not motivated by performance appraisal activities.	1	2	3	4	5	6
2.13	Understanding the organisation's vision motivates me to produce quality work.	1	2	3	4	5	6
2.14	I am most motivated when my work is appreciated by my superiors.	1	2	3	4	5	6
2.15	I am often bored on the job.	1	2	3	4	5	6
2.16	I am being micro-managed and told exactly what to do.	1	2	3	4	5	6

		Strongly disagree	Disagree	Slightly disagree	Slightly agree	Agree	Strongly agree
2.17	I am most motivated when my direct superior recognises and acknowledges my work.	1	2	3	4	5	6
2.18	I deliberately arrive late for work.	1	2	3	4	5	6
2.19	Having the necessary resources (e.g., equipment, utensils, material etc.) contributes to my motivation levels.	1	2	3	4	5	6
2.20	I put good effort into performing my tasks.	1	2	3	4	5	6
2.21	My manger shows genuine interest not only in my work performance but my career goals as well.	1	2	3	4	5	6
2.22	I am motivated when I am included in decision making.	1	2	3	4	5	6
2.23	I am able to recognise my contribution in the organisations success.	1	2	3	4	5	6

		Strongly disagree	Disagree	Slightly disagree	Slightly agree	Agree	Strongly agree
2.24	My job is an expression of what I love doing and what I am good at.	1	2	3	4	5	6

Thank you for your valuable time and effort you granted me

Annexure C: Codebook of construct items

CONSTRUCT	ITEMS (Negatively phrased items shown in red)
Autonomy	AT1: I can use my own judgment in the way I perform tasks.
	AT2: I can use my own discretion in executing tasks.
	AT3: I am able to use my own discretion in doing my job.
Feedback	FD1: Tasks assigned to me are clearly communicated.
	FD2: My manager/supervisor provides feedback on my performance.
	FD3: I am often absent from work.
	FD4: I am unsure of how well I perform my job.
Motivation	MOT01: I enjoy the work I do.
	MOT02: My day-to-day tasks are very stimulating.
	MOT03: My job gives me a sense of security.
	MOT04: I am not inspired to do my best at my work.
	MOT05: I experience personal and professional growth on the job.
	MOT06: I feel positive about my job.
	MOT07: My motivation levels at times affect my work performance.
	MOT08: My manager contributes sufficiently to my motivation levels.
	MOT09: I would not recommend anyone to work at my place of employment.
	MOT10: I am most motivated by non-monetary rewards (e.g., gifts).
	MOT11: The organisation does not provide equal promotional opportunities.
	MOT12: I am not motivated by performance appraisal activities.
	MOT13: Understanding the organisation's vision motivates me to produce quality work.
	MOT14: I am most motivated when my work is appreciated by my superiors.
	MOT15: I am often bored on the job.
	MOT16: I am being micromanaged and told exactly what to do.
	MOT17: I am most motivated when my direct superior recognises and acknowledges my work.
	MOT18: I deliberately arrive late for work.
	MOT19: Having the necessary resources (e.g., equipment, utensils, material, etc.) contributes to my motivation levels.
	MOT20: I put good effort into performing my tasks.
	MOT21: My manager shows genuine interest not only in my work performance but my career goals as well.
	MOT22: I am motivated when I am included in decision making.
	MOT23: I am able to recognise my contribution in the organisation's success.
	MOT24: My job is an expression of what I love doing and what I am good at.
Skills variety	SV1: My job requires a variety of technical skills pertaining to the hospitality industry (housekeeping, food beverage, etc.).
	SV2: My job requires me to use high-level skills like active listening and customer service.
	SV3: My job allows me to enhance my knowledge and skills.
	SV4: My job exposes me to different aspects of the business (e.g., dealing with customers, ensuring quality standards, understanding finances).
	SV5: My work is repetitive and monotonous.

Task identity	TI1: My manager/superior allows me to finish work that I started.
	TI2: I am allowed to make my own decisions regarding my work schedule.
	TI3: My job is more meaningful when I have full control over the tasks assigned to me.
	TI4: Completing tasks gives me a sense of accomplishment.
Task significance	TS1: My job is important within the organisation.
	TS2: My job performance enables colleagues to accomplish their job goals.
	TS3: My job has a positive impact on external stakeholders.
	TS4: I receive recognition for the job I do.