1.   Human resource management in the hospitality and tourism sector
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The hospitality and tourism industry currently employs about ten percent of the worldwide workforce. As tourism is seen as continuing to grow, the number of travelers will also increase. About one billion people now travel each year with this figure reaching over 1.5 billion in 2015. This will produce a shortage of talented managers, coupled with the need to meet increasingly diverse future customer needs. Changes in technology, along with changes in the make-up of customers – fewer Baby boomers and more Gen Xers and Gen Ys – will increasingly challenge hospitality organizations. In addition, greater use will be made of social media and mobile technologies, requiring the training of staff. Retaining qualified staff at all levels who are now on board and recruiting and orienting new staff will be critical to success.

The hospitality and tourism sector represents a major contributor to the Gross Domestic Product of various countries and this sector is growing in importance. Perhaps every country in the world supports their hospitality and tourism industries (Baker, 2013). Growth in this sector has been particularly strong in South East Asia, with Macau now becoming the leading gambling center in the world. Several recent publications have documented the positive contribution of hospitality and tourism to the economies of various countries. These include Spain and Italy (Cortes-Jimenez and Paluna, 2010); Spain (Balaguer and Cantavella-Jorda, 2002); Germany (Brida and Risso, 2010); Turkey (Gunduz and Hatemi-J, 2008); Cyprus (Katircioglu, 2009); and China (Shan and Wilson, 2001). In addition, surveys of tourism and economic development in a number of countries considered simultaneously have shown the significant contribution made by hospitality and tourism (Sinclair, 1998; Hazari and Sgro, 1995; Sequeira and Nunes, 2008). Research on human resource management practices in this sector has also grown to reflect international practices and concerns.

SERVICE QUALITY

As a service industry, providing high quality service to all customers and clients is vital to customer and client satisfaction, loyalty, and positive word-of-mouth. Thus providing high quality of service is central to the success of hospitality and tourism organizations. But measuring service quality is complicated, as service quality is mainly a subjective assessment of an interpersonal experience between an individual providing a service and an individual receiving this service. As service is intangible, diverse, and simultaneously produced and consumed, quantitative measures of perceived service quality are important. Perceptions of service quality, and customer satisfaction with provided services, while related, are different concepts. Service quality is one aspect of customer satisfaction (Zeithaml and Bitner, 2003).

Parasuraman et al. (1985; 1989) developed a multidimensional scale for assessing perceptions of service quality. They view perceived service quality as a global assessment about the superiority of service provided. Customer satisfaction, however, only relates to a particular transaction between provider and consumer. Thus service quality includes several dimensions.

Parasuraman et al. (1989) offer five dimensions: reliability; responsiveness; assurance; empathy; and tangibles. Reliability involves the ability to perform the promised service dependably and accurately. Responsiveness involves a willingness to help customers and provide prompt service. Assurance involves knowledge and courtesy of employees and their ability to inspire trust and confidence. Empathy involves caring and individualized attention given to customers. Tangibles involve the appearance of physical facilities, equipment, personnel and written materials. Thus Zeithaml and Bitner (2003) require customers to assess quality of service in terms of these five dimensions.

Since service quality is basically a provider and consumer transaction, human resources are seen as the most important aspect of organizational success in hospitality organizations. Employees possess skills, knowledge, experience, ability, attitudes and values, behaviors, and relationships, both inside and outside their work area or organizations. Many of these qualities (for example, attitudes, values, knowledge, behaviors, skills) are affected by the human resource management policies and practices of their organization and the behaviors of their supervisors and managers.

Michel et al. (2012) considered the relationship of an organization's customer service climate/culture on ratings of employee service self-efficacy beliefs, job performance, and intentions to quit. Data were collected from both front-line employees and their supervisors. Their supportive service

climate measure had three dimensions: HR support (rewards and incentives for providing high quality service); management support (managers had standards for high service quality); and job support (enough staff to deliver high quality service). Employee perceptions of climate for service quality predicted higher levels of staff motivation, less intention to quit and higher performance ratings by supervisors.

Service quality has received considerable and increasing research attention over the past 20 years (Kandampully et al., 2014). This research and writing has considered measuring service quality in hospitality organizations, the relationship of service quality and important outcomes such as customer satisfaction, customer loyalty, customer behavioral intentions, brand loyalty, customer expectations, front-line and managerial employee behaviors, human resource management policies and practices, organizational climate or culture, and business performance.

The central concept of developing a high quality service culture emerges as a focus for human resource management (Kandampully et al., 2014). The key then is the role played by human resource management policies and practices in the process of providing high quality service to customers and clients. How would you define a high service quality culture? What factors make up a high quality service culture? How would an organization measure their standing on these factors? How can organizations develop a high quality service culture? What human resource management policies and practices foster high levels of service quality? Studies have reported that service quality cultures are associated with higher levels of client satisfaction, more return business, more customer loyalty, and positive word-of-mouth to others (Batt, 2002).

Workplace culture is critical for organizational success (Davidson, 2003; Parasuraman, 1987). One can copy other organizations' physical facilities and products, their business strategies, and one can hire away their employees, but it is impossible to duplicate their culture easily. Culture is how things get done, the norms, and behavioral, attitudinal and value expectations of all the staff. Aligning your human resource management policies and practices to your desired workplace culture is important in achieving high levels of service excellence and financial performance. Chief executive leadership is key in starting this process. Human resource management policies and practices that shape recruitment, retention, performance through goal-setting, monitoring, appraising, discussing, recognizing and rewarding excellence in performance will heighten employee satisfaction, work engagement and organizational identification.

Human resource management issues emerge as the most difficult challenge facing hotel general managers and corporate executives (Enz, 2009a; 2001). Enz (2001) collected data from 170 hospitality managers from over

25 different countries, asking them to identify the "thorniest" issues that they encountered. At the top of the list was the use of their human capital – how to care for and get the best performance from their employees. This involved functions of attracting, retaining, training and developing and motivating staff. These concerns were expressed by managers at all levels. Enz (2009b) replicated her 2001 study, surveying 243 managers from over 60 countries. The most pressing concerns were attracting qualified staff, retaining successful staff, training employees, maintaining or improving staff morale, and creating career development opportunities. Employee benefits and compensation costs were of less concern.

Yet human resource management policies and practices play a central role for success in the hospitality and tourism sector (Zemke and Schaef, 1989; Schneider and Bowen, 1995; Schneider and White, 2004; Bowen and Lawler, 1995). Service workers become part of the product representing their hotels, and creating an image of their organizations. The personality, skills, knowledge, appearance, attitudes and behaviors of the service worker become critical; how they are managed becomes similarly vital. These factors produce high levels of service quality, customer satisfaction, customer loyalty, a source of competitive advantage for an organization, and high levels of organizational performance and success. Human resource management policies and practices, organizational culture, and the integration of human resource management and business strategies are all associated with valued customer and organizational outcomes.

The basic framework that guides much of the thinking, research and application of research findings linking human resource management practices with ultimate organizational outcomes proposes (1) antecedents including level of human capital talents, human resource management practices, and organizational culture leading to (2) employee attitudes and behaviors such as job satisfaction, work engagement, team contribution, exercising voice, loyalty and commitment to the organization, and commitment to service quality, which leads to (3) customer satisfaction and customer loyalty, which then contributes to (4) valued organizational outcomes such as productivity, profit and competitive advantage.

Human resource management in hospitality organizations emphasizes attracting an effective workforce, maintaining an effective workforce and continuously developing an effective workforce (Worsfold, 1999). Human resource policies and practices that apply to hospitality and tourism organizations would include: shaping the organizational culture; determination of the organization's labor and talent needs; recruitment and selection; employee orientation and socialization; training and development; performance management and performance appraisal; equal opportunity and managing diversity; rewards and recognition systems; supporting

effective team functioning; internal and external branding challenges; employee relations; working with professional associations and labor unions; health and safety issues; and grievance and disciplinary processes.

CONSIDERING BOTH THE ORGANIZATION AND EMPLOYEES

A small but increasing body of research has examined organizational level and individual level factors in the delivery of high quality customer service. Liao and Chuang (2004) examined the influence of both individual and organizational factors on employee service performance and customer outcomes. They collected data in 25 restaurants from 44 managers, 257 employees and 1993 customers. Both employee conscientiousness and extraversion were associated with higher levels of employee service performance, and both restaurant service climate and levels of employee involvement were associated with higher levels of restaurant performance. Finally, employee service performance at the restaurant level predicted customer satisfaction and loyalty. In a second study, Liao and Chuang (2007) reported that managers' transformational leadership increased employee service performance in a sample of hair stylists in Taiwan, which in turn increased client loyalty and retention nine months later. Store-level transformational leadership increased store-level service climate, which in turn increased the relationship between individual transformational leadership and employee service performance. Thus while "the people make the place", the place matters.

This introductory chapter sets the stage for the rest of the collection. The hospitality sector is a major contributor to the GDP of many countries, is a major source of jobs, and is growing. This industry today faces some important old and emerging challenges. This collection provides a practical view on how human resource management initiatives have been found to be useful in addressing these issues. It first considers the context including leadership and management, organizational culture and people, leadership competencies, and human resource practices more generally. It moves to a consideration of ongoing and new challenges facing hospitality organizations. It then offers a sample of human resource initiatives that address some of these challenges. Human resource initiatives are also included in the material on ongoing and new challenges, and in the chapters that follow.

LEADERSHIP COMPETENCIES FOR HOSPITALITY AND TOURISM MANAGEMENT

Given the importance of both the hospitality and tourism sector and service leadership, it is not surprising that research and writing attention is being paid to required leadership competences. These competencies are typically captured in competency models. Testa and Sipe (2012) undertook interviews with 110 individuals at high levels of management in four industry segments: hotels, tourism, restaurants and attractions. They identified 100 managerial behaviors which they then allocated into 20 competency areas. Many of these behaviors and areas had been noted earlier by others, while some were new. These 20 areas were then collapsed into three major areas of service leadership competencies: business savvy; people savvy; and self savvy. Business savvy included: planning; numberwise; continuous improvement; strategic decision making; systems thinking; technical service; and results oriented. People savvy included: interpersonal; communication; expressive service; team orientation; coaching and training; inspiration; cultural alignment; and networked. Finally, self savvy included: accountability; professionalism; self-development; time management; spirit of optimism; and change management.

But increasing these competencies in managers turns out to be difficult. Agut et al. (2003) interviewed 80 hotel and restaurant managers in Spain to identify competency needs and training demands. They distinguished between technical managerial competencies needed (economic-financial, computing, language, work organization, people and work team management) and generic managerial competencies needed (job performance, efficacy including time management and self-confidence, self-control including stress tolerance and listening to others, social relationships, and proactive behaviors such as having a positive vision and being committed to meeting targets). They also examined present and future training demands based on a gap between present and required levels of knowledge and skill in these two areas and found that managers reported strong needs for technical managerial competencies but significantly lower training needs for general managerial competencies. When training needs were identified, they were oriented towards the present rather than the future. These managers did not indicate that they required training in any of the general managerial competencies. Managers may have seen these skills as not particularly relevant to them in their jobs, or not a priority, or that training would not increase levels of these skills and knowledge.

There is a sense that many managers in the hospitality and tourism sector lack the skills necessary to perform managerial functions (Foster et al., 2010). They found in a study in the UK that half the managerial

skills in their skills assessments were deficient. In addition, there appeared to be little demand for development. The largest skill deficiencies were in marketing, customer service and financial skills.

LEADERS AND MANAGERS

Leadership and management are both important but they are different (Nicolaides, 2006). Leadership involves possessing a vision of what the ideal workplace should look like, being inspiring to all levels of staff, having high levels of communication skills, being ethical, and possessing business knowledge vital to organizational success. Managing involves understanding and structuring work roles, processes and tasks, standardizing operating procedures, sharing performance expectations with staff, monitoring staff performance, developing staff, and meeting the needs of one's staff.

Thus Whitelaw (2013) studied leadership styles (transformational, transactional, laissez-faire) of 105 senior managers, 135 middle managers, and 42 line managers, most working in large international hotels in Australia. Respondents indicated not only the extent to which they used each of these leadership styles, but how they related to three areas of their job: their effectiveness, their satisfaction and their commitment of extra effort. Managers at higher levels tended to exhibit higher levels of contingent reward and more transformational behaviors such as idealized influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individual consideration. Senior managers also tended to rate themselves higher on extra effort. In addition, there were differences between the three levels of managers in relationships of the various leadership behaviors with the three work outcomes.

ONGOING HRM CHALLENGES

Unfortunately, challenges facing hospitality and tourism organizations are compounded by relatively low historical interest in human resource management policies and practices in this sector and in people management more generally (Baum, 2007). The hospitality and tourism sector, as a result, has a negative image as far as working conditions, pay, and career development are concerned (Kuslavan et al., 2012). As a consequence, very high rates of employee turnover plague this sector (Davidson et al., 2010). Zopiatis and Constanti (2005) list human resource challenges facing the Cyprus hospitality industry involving managers, included low levels of motivation and high levels of both burnout and turnover.

In addition, studies of perceptions of students in hospitality and tourism management programs, a key source of staff, have typically found negative attitudes and views of this sector (Kuslavan and Kuslavan, 2000). Aksu and Koksal (2005) collected data from 689 tourism and hospitality management students in each of the four years of study. Students believed that workers in this industry were generally unmotivated and uneducated, industry managers did not expect much effort from their employees, managers failed to provide necessary training or promotional opportunities, and working hours interfered with having a regular life. Richardson (2009), in an Australian study of 320 tourism and hospitality students from eight university and college programs, reported that most students did not believe that tourism and hospitality as a career provided factors that they believed to be important: enjoyment, security, salary, promotion prospects, a reasonable workload, and a pleasant workplace environment. Zopiatis and Kyprianou (2006) reported generally negative attitudes towards the hospitality sector in a study of 227 secondary school students in Cyprus. Perceptions of the hospitality sector on 12 factors (for example, poor salary, boring work, negative working environment) ranged from neutral to negative. Richardson and Thomas (2012), in a study of US students enrolled in hospitality programs who had worked in the hospitality sector, who had generally favorable views about working in the sector and who had planned to work in the sector, almost always, however, rated the importance of particular factors higher than the extent to which they would be met in the hospitality and tourism sector.

Keep and Mayhew (1999) wrote that inadequate and limited human resource management practices in the hospitality and tourism industry were associated with a number of human resource issues. These included low wages, skill shortages, work hours and shift patterns that interfere with family functioning, limited career promotion options, high levels of employee turnover, and women holding lower status jobs while men held higher status jobs. This had been attributed to the underlying economics of the sector, an emphasis on short-term responses and quick fixes, an unwillingness of employing organizations to acknowledge their problems, a low skill base, and the presence of large numbers of small and medium-sized enterprises. But progress and changes have been observed here as well, particularly in the larger hospitality organizations and the international chains.

WORKPLACE STRESS AND ITS EFFECTS

Hospitality employees, particularly front-line service workers, experience workplace stress. Han et al. (2016) collected data from 228 front-line service workers working in 28 Florida-based restaurants, studying the relationship of customer incivility and both burnout and turnover intentions. Customer incivility (personally insulting, sexual comments, comments on appearance, verbal attacks) were associated with burnout, which in turn fully mediated the relationship of customer incivility and intent to quit. Both hospitality organization and supervisor support reduced the association of customer incivility and burnout.

Shani and Pizam (2009) found a modest but higher rate of depression among hospitality workers in a study carried out in Florida. Depression is associated with higher health-related costs, absenteeism, and lower productivity. Depression can be the result of job stress, burnout and low social support.

Hospitality organizations and their supervisors can work to reduce the association of customer incivility and adverse employee and organizational outcomes by using examples of customer incivility in training programs to help employees better handle and diffuse these instances. Employees can also share with each other what seemed to work for them. In addition, managers can also be more visible to both employees and customers to make readily available access to lower tension before a major incident occurs. Incivility from co-workers can have similar negative effects and be addressed in similar ways (Sakurai and Jex, 2012).

Zopiatis and Constanti (2005), based on questionnaire data from 75 managers in the hospitality sector in Cyprus, examined three burnout components: emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and lack of personal accomplishment, using the Maslach Burnout Inventory. Managers scoring higher on these burnout components were younger, had less work experience, were more highly educated, and worked in five-star hotels. A worrying finding was the low level of personal accomplishment reported by a large proportion of respondents. The good news is that both alcohol abuse and depression, among other stress-related outcomes, can be treated.

EMOTIONAL LABOR

Considerable research attention has been given to the concept of emotional labor in service industries. Emotional labor involves managing one's emotions and their expression to fit organizational or occupational

expectations about appropriate emotional expression (Pizam, 2004). These emotions need to be expressed even though they are at odds with the person's real feelings – a discrepancy or emotional dissonance. Emotional labor involves faking positive emotions as well as suppressing negative emotions. Individuals can also genuinely feel and express positive emotions. It is possible to genuinely express negative emotions but unlikely in a service or workplace interaction. That is, positive emotional displays are required while negative emotional displays are prohibited.

The positive display of emotions by front-line service workers has been found to be associated with higher levels of customer satisfaction and perceptions of service quality (Pugh, 2001) and customer retention and satisfaction (Ashkanazy et al., 2002). But emotional labor can be psychologically and physically harmful to service workers (Brotheridge and Grandey, 2002; Grandey, 2003).

Kim (2008) studied antecedents and consequences of emotional labor among 197 front-line workers in the US. Antecedents included job characteristics and personal attributes; consequences included job burnout. The measure of emotional labor considered both surface acting (faking, pretending) and deep acting (trying to feel these emotions). Two personality characteristics were measured: neuroticism and extraversion; three interaction characteristics: frequency, duration and variety; job characteristics included autonomy and control in one's work; and company display rules: negative and positive. Variety, duration and positive display rules predicted deep acting; negative display rules predicted surface acting. Workers higher on neuroticism reported more surface acting and workers higher on extraversion reported more deep acting. Surface actors reported higher levels of burnout than did deep actors.

Shani et al. (2014), in a qualitative study conducted in Israel, considered context factors associated with emotional labor. Interviews were conducted with 35 front-line workers, 26 female and 9 male. They identified four context factors: the manager–employee relationship, the manager's attitude towards employees and their degree of supervisor support; physical demands of the job – physical strains, job demands and stresses; training for emotional labor – training in dealing with emotional interactions and their de-escalation; and the frequency, duration and repetition of the employee–customer encounter – depending on whether the customer was a first time or repeat customer. They suggest that supervisors receive more training in soft skills, provide staff training in emotional labor causes and consequences, and improve the employee's physical work conditions.

WORK–FAMILY CONFLICT

Work and family are two important roles for most working women and men. Work–family conflict exists when the demands of one role make it hard to meet the demands of the other role (Greenhaus and Beutell, 1985). Work–family conflict is seen as having three types: time-based conflict – time devoted to one role makes it difficult to fill the second role; strain-based conflict – strain in one role interferes with successful performance of the other role; and behavior-based conflict – the behaviors required in one role are incompatible with behaviors required in the other role. Conflict can also occur from family to work as well. Work–family conflict is increasing due to more dual-worker/dual-career couples, more single parents, more workers caring both for children and ageing parents, and the need to earn more income.

Workers in the hospitality sector work long hours, workplaces are open 24/7, workers also work on days when most other women and men do not (for example, weekends and holidays), they have unsupportive supervisors, there is more absenteeism and a high labor turnover, resulting in labor shortages requiring some to work longer (Magnini, 2009). Magnini (2009) lists other costs to hospitality organizations resulting from work–family conflict. These include reduced job performance, increased recruiting, staffing and training costs, more absenteeism, and being "present": at work but not fully functioning. Thus integrating and balancing work and family roles becomes important.

Burke et al. (2014) collected data from 549 front-line service workers in Turkish hotels in a study of consequences of work–family and family–work conflict, their sample generally working long hours. Work–family conflict and family–work conflict were significantly and positively correlated, work–family conflict being greater, but levels of both were moderate. Respondents at higher organizational levels and those with responsibility for supervising others, these two personal demographics being positively correlated, reported higher levels of both work–family conflict and family–work conflict. Workers reporting higher levels of family–work conflict also indicated lower levels of job satisfaction and vigor; workers reporting higher levels of work–family conflict also reported more job satisfaction and absorption, likely reflecting their higher organizational levels. Neither work–family nor family–work conflict predicted intent to quit, which was at very low levels.

Wong and Ko (2009), using both quantitative and qualitative data from a large sample of hotel employees in Hong Kong, examined perceptions of work–life balance issues. Most respondents were front-line employees (food and beverage, front desk, housekeeping), with about 20

percent being managers or higher level employees. A 30-item measure of work–life balance was created for the study, measuring seven factors: life orientation; allegiance to work; workplace support of work–life balance; voluntary reduction of contracted working hours to cater to personal needs; upkeep of work and career; flexibility of work schedules; and enough time off from work. These factors were presented here from high to low in agreement. In general, respondents indicated low perceptions of work–life balance. They made the following recommendations: listen to employees and appreciate their differences and needs; provide more free time and increase flexibility of work schedules; provide workplace support on family matters; and initiate a wider organizational effort to address work–life balance issues and evaluate their effectiveness.

Magnini (2009) offers the following initiatives for reducing work–family conflict in hospitality organizations:

- Selection and hiring: clearly indicate to applicants the job requirements, work hours, and family support policies and programs of the organization.
- Training and education: offer training sessions on coping with work–family conflict, the importance of employees discussing their jobs with their families, training of supervisors in supporting work–family conflict.
- Job design: encourage employees to discuss their job stressors and ways of making their jobs less stressful; offer flexibility in worker breaks.
- Scheduling initiatives: allow more flexibility in scheduling; longer but fewer shifts; changes in start and finish times of shifts.
- Other initiatives: child care centers, adult day care, employee wellness and physical fitness facilities.

SEXUAL HARASSMENT

Kate Burnham, a pastry chef working in Toronto, reported unwanted sexual banter and sexual harassment by previous bosses, some of whom grabbed her breasts and crotch. Sexual harassment in hospitality has now become a topic of discussion and action. The Province of Ontario has committed $1.7 m to educate and equip hospitality workers to address sexual harassment (Ferguson, 2016). The training will include ways of intervening in a safe way, such as calling authorities or talking to an individual across the bar.

Poulston (2008) writes that sexual harassment is more prevalent in

hospitality than elsewhere, and is acknowledged by managers. Sexual harassment is associated with higher levels of absenteeism, turnover, monetary damages and legal costs. Causes include high levels of interpersonal contact, flirting by staff for tips, provocative clothing (for example, uniform for waitresses at Hooters), satisfying customer expectations, low status of hospitality workers, and a hierarchical workplace structure. In her New Zealand study, Poulston (2008) found, in order of frequency, harassment was engaged in by co-workers, customers, peers, supervisors and juniors. Sexual harassment was generally tolerated, it being associated with enjoyment and the nature of the industry.

Sexual harassment in hospitality organizations is very common (Poulston, 2008), reflecting the hierarchical nature of hospitality organizations, the nature of hospitality work, characteristics of front-line workers, some front-line workers required to dress provocatively, an emphasis on meeting the needs of customers, and a low sense of responsibility of customers. Sexual harassment includes unwelcome sexual advances, requests for sexual favors and either verbal or physical contact of a sexual nature (Gilbert et al., 1998). Gilbert et al. (1998) list the costs of sexual harassment as higher turnover, poor working relationships with other staff and customers, and costs in lost productivity and turnover. There are also psychological and physical costs for victims. Some harassment remains unreported, particularly if historically such incidents were not dealt with promptly or appropriately or the perpetrator was a higher level manager or chef. The lack of sexual harassment training for managers, the lack of sexual harassment policies, and the non-response of managers to cases of sexual harassment are common.

Practical initiatives should start in hospitality management university programs then move on to hospitality organizations. Hospitality management students need to be exposed to diversity management concepts, discrimination and sexual harassment. Students on work placements should be alerted to instances of sexual discrimination and harassment, particularly for female students. Hospitality managers need to be educated in diversity management, issues of discrimination and harassment, they should be trained in how to deal with these, contribute to the development of appropriate organizational policies, and foster a culture that makes it possible to discuss such behaviors.

Gilbert et al. (1998) describe a three stage process for creating policies for sexual harassment. The first stage involves *research* – current policies, a review of court cases, soliciting input from all levels in the workplace; the second stage involves *policy development* – circulating draft policies to all employees, surveying their feedback, consulting policies of other organizations and associations; the third stage is *policy implementation* –

distributing policies to all employees and having them sign that they have read them, training of staff, and evaluation of effectiveness of all initiated policies and activities.

CUSTOMER MISBEHAVIOR

Customers can misbehave in a wide range of ways. Such behavior goes against accepted norms of conduct in such situations. Examples would include customers acting in abusive ways to staff or other customers, damaging property, theft, and being drunk or on drugs. Customer misbehavior creates problems for front-line employees, managers and hospitality organizations in general. Managers need to both proactively and actively address instances of customer misbehavior in order to prevent future occurrences and minimize their negative effects (Daunt and Harris, 2011). In addition, all employees should receive information and training in how to best respond.

EMPLOYEES BEHAVING BADLY

Pizam (2010) reviewed research studies of alcohol abuse among hospitality workers compared to other occupations, finding more alcohol abuse among hospitality workers. These findings raise potential employee health problems and risks to the industry. They attribute this heightened alcohol abuse to a drinking sub-culture, easy access to alcohol, and work conditions including stress and long work hours.

In an Israeli study, Belhassen and Shani (2012) found that hotel employees used more tobacco, alcohol and cannabis than the average in Israel society. Usage was highest among young, single male employees with low levels of education working in the front of house.

WORKFORCE DIVERSITY

Workforce diversity is expected to grow in hospitality organizations over the next decade, the workforce reflecting the overall population, which has become more diverse. Organizations that capitalize on diversity will reap financial gains (Singal, 2014). Gender and racial discrimination in this and other sectors has been documented. Durrani and Rajagopal (2016) collected data from 80 human resources managers on their views of workplace diversity, their definitions of ethical hiring, and on ethical

hiring in their organizations. Respondents were mainly white (84 percent), 46–55 years of age (41 percent), spoke only one language (68 percent), had undergraduate degrees (50 percent), were Christian (55 percent), worked in organizations having 1000 or more employees (66 percent), and had been in human resources for 10 years (30 percent) or 29 years or more (29 percent). The sample had generally favorable attitudes towards workplace diversity (mean = 4.1 on a 5-point scale). Whites had more positive views on workplace diversity than non-whites. Most viewed their organization's hiring practices as ethical and fair (mean = 3.9 on a 5-point scale). Human resources managers from larger organizations viewed their hiring practices as more ethical and fair than did managers from smaller organizations. Most respondents gave similar definitions of ethical and fair hiring practices, sharing an understanding of the meaning of ethical hiring.

Madera (2013) reviewed diversity management practices in 14 top ranked companies. He identified some common categories of diversity practices: creating a corporate diversity council, offering diversity training programs, supplier diversity, employee networking and mentoring, creating cultural awareness, support for female, lesbian, gay, bisexual and transgender employees, and same-sex benefits.

Madera et al. (2011) developed and tested a diversity training program using perspective-taking and empathy towards non-English-speaking individuals. Participants were students in a hospitality management program in the US. Most had either full-time or part-time work in this sector. The group included several ethnicities. Some measures were taken before and after the training.

GENDER ISSUES

Three gender issues will be considered here. First is the slow progress that qualified women have made in advancing to senior executive levels in the hospitality and tourism sector. Second is the question of whether women and men function and behave differently in leadership roles. Third is the question of whether women and men in front-line service positions have similar or different work experiences.

Most research in the 1990s reported very few women in senior management positions (Crafts and Thompson, 1997; Diaz and Umbreit, 1995; Brownell, 1994). Woods and Viehland (2000), while noting slow progress, observed women and men provided similar competences for advancement, behavior and circumstances, contributing to women's and men's career development, but women more than men saw these as problems for women. Burrell et al. (1997), in a study of women's employment

patterns in the hospitality industry in four countries (France, Italy, Spain, the UK), found that stereotyped attitudes existed as barriers in the kinds of jobs women and men had in hotels. Fleming (2005), based on a random sample of 112 990 women and men working in the hospitality sector in 2010, found women earned less money then men, controlling for several factors (education, hours worked), the pay gap being largest among managers. The good news was that the gender pay gap was smaller in the 2010 data than in an earlier 1989 study, indicating slow progress.

Marinakou (2014) interviewed 15 male and 15 female managers working in five-star hotels in Spain. Both males and females indicated that a glass ceiling existed for women. Barriers were long work hours, relocation, work–family and work–personal life issues, and having to work harder than men to prove themselves. Fewer women aspired to become General Managers and they believed discrimination existed. But both male and female managers thought the situation was getting better. Females described their leadership styles as more nurturing and team oriented than men did, interestingly. If this is indeed the case, women's leadership styles may actually be more in sync with the new realities of many workplaces (for example, more team-based, more participative and involving a greater emphasis on empowering front-line workers).

Purcell (1993), in a sample of three graduating cohorts of a hotel and catering management course (1985, 1986, 1987), found that even though women and men had similar credentials, women were less likely to be recruited, developed and rewarded as employees with senior management capabilities.

Thus one can consider both "push" factors in educated and qualified women's decisions to turnover including the glass ceiling, the old boys' network, a hostile, biased workplace environment, difficulties in relocating, a masculine culture, tokenism, limited mentoring and developmental opportunities and few promotional prospects, and "pull" factors such as work versus family, caregiving responsibilities for both children and ageing parents, and home responsibilities.

Let us now consider the work experiences of women and men in front-line service positions. In studies we have carried out involving several different areas of both work experience and work and well-being outcomes, we have found relatively few sex differences. Women and men tend to report similar levels of job satisfaction, work engagement, feelings of psychological empowerment, organizational identification and intent to quit, among other factors. This is the good news. Women do, however, report greater concerns with sexual harassment, discrimination, and work–family conflict (Blomme et al., 2010). This is the continuing bad news.

Women and men may respond to the same work experiences differently. Kim et al. (2009a) examined gender as a moderator of experienced job stress (role conflict and role ambiguity) and job satisfaction in a sample of 165 men and 153 women working in hotels in Korea. They found that though males reported higher levels of both role stressors than did females, these role stressors were more strongly related to job dissatisfaction for females than males. They attributed this to women's greater valuing of communal and social oriented behaviors in relationships with others who understand their roles. Women may also have coped with these stressors differently than men did.

Although some progress is being seen, senior executive positions in the hospitality sector still convey a "man's world". There are several reasons for this, including both subtle and obvious discrimination, long work hours required, the need for relocation, family responsibilities, and some women not being interested in senior level positions. The glass ceiling is alive and well, but showing a few cracks.

CROSS-CULTURAL DIFFERENCES

Pizam (2014), noting the increase in globalization and internationalization of hospitality organizations, makes the case for cross-cultural competence training in the hospitality and tourism sector. This refers to increasing one's ability to interact successfully with others of different cultures. This competence improves the interaction of service providers and customers, increasing customer satisfaction and ultimately organizational performance. Few, if any, hospitality and tourism programs offer courses to increase the cultural competence of students. Both college and university programs as well as hospitality and tourism organizations need to offer such training.

MIGRANT WORKERS

The hospitality industry relies on migrant workers for day-to-day functioning, increasing workforce diversity and making new demands on human resource management practices (Forde and MacKenzie, 2009). But managers lacked the training to capitalize on this source of labor. Managers were also not clear on what diversity initiatives would be helpful to them. Migrants will undertake work that the locals avoid. Migrants are highly motivated, seeking opportunities they cannot obtain at home. Thus migrant labor will continue to be an important source of employees in

hospitality and tourism workplaces. The sector needs to understand why locals do not want to work in the hospitality sector. There is also a need to foster management interest in learning to improve the way they introduce and work with migrants in their workplaces.

Zopiatis et al. (2014) interviewed managers, local workers and migrant workers to understand the work experiences of migrants in Cyprus. Managers offered three reasons for hiring migrants: locals will not do the work; potential contribution of migrants given the seasonal nature of the industry; and lower pay for migrants. Migrants were willing to work for the pay, realizing that locals would not do their jobs for this pay, and believed that knowing other languages was an asset. Managers, however, saw language as a problem with migrants. Migrants were generally satisfied with their experiences with locals. Locals noted language barriers as problematic, but other than that, relationships with migrants were generally satisfactory. Some managers observed an exploitation of migrants and discrimination. There was disagreement on whether migrants provided good service to customers, however; some customers complained about the service provided to them by migrants. Some migrants had low skill levels and poor language ability, risking quality of service.

Recent research undertaken in Toronto involving 184 Chinese restaurant workers showed they were exploited in terms of low pay, unpaid overtime hours, being paid in cash or by check so as not to leave a paper trail, not receiving payroll slips from their employers, and their injuries at work not being reported (Mojtehedzadeh and Keung, 2016). Some had legal issues in terms of their working in Canada, others had limited English skills, and some were afraid of complaining for fear of losing their job.

GENERATIONAL DIFFERENCES

There have always been different generations in workplaces. Younger employees have always been different from older ones. But today the reality may be more complicated. There is considerable evidence that indicates that different employee generations (for example, Baby boomers, Generation Xers, Millennials) have somewhat different values, expectations and priorities. These differences can be a source of conflict and barriers between these generations, creating an "us versus them" mentality (Lub et al., 2012).

Chi et al. (2013) studied generational difference on perceptions of younger and older managers among hospitality employees. Data were collected from 677 front-line workers and 228 managers of a large US hotel organization. Baby boomers were born between 1946 and 1964,

Generation Xers were born between 1965 and 1980, and Millennials were born between 1981 and 2000. There were significant differences by generation in perceptions of younger and older managers, as well as differences by job position among these three generations. Millennials had a more negative view of managers than did respondents from the two other generations. Boomers and Generation Xers had more negative views on younger managers' competency than did Millennials.

Park and Gursoy (2012), in a study of 677 customer service employees, examined generational effects in work engagement and the association of work engagement with quit intentions. Three generational cohorts were considered: Baby boomers, Generation Xers and Millennials. Millennials tended to report lower levels of work engagement than the other two cohorts, and engagement was more strongly associated with quit intentions among Millennials as well. Millennials indicated the highest turnover intentions. Managers then need to spend more time with their Millennials, identifying their work preferences (meaningful work, fulfilling jobs) to retain them.

Organizations can use these differences for the better. Organizations first need to be sensitive to the potential effects of these differences across generational cohorts. Intergenerational blending of their workforce is important for performance. Executive leadership needs to understand the needs of each generation and meet them. Managers and supervisors need to communicate, communicate, communicate with Millennials; Millennials need to receive information and feedback from their managers. Organizations need to support Millennials in the use of the latest technologies. Millennials will need flexibility in order to integrate their work and personal lives. Managers and supervisors need training in how best to work with Millennials. Since Millennials value growth, training and development should be available to them. Employees of each generation should have meaningful opportunities to work together. Encouraging Baby boomers to mentor Millennials, and Millennials to offer their talents and strengths to complement Baby boomers supports cross-generational synergies. Cross-generational team building meetings also would serve a useful purpose here. Finally, having different generations serve on task forces and committee tasks allows across-generational contacts and interaction.

EMPLOYEES WITH DISABILITIES

Employees with disabilities still encounter difficulties gaining employment despite supportive legislation. Disabilities can be physical, intellectual

or psychological. Given the importance of appearance and personality among front-line workers in the hospitality sector, this has presented a challenge. The principal reason for this is the negative attitudes of employers.

Barnes and Mercer (2006) and Jasper and Waldhart (2013) noted the following barriers facing the disabled: stereotypes about work they can and cannot perform; lack of management training and education in the hiring of the disabled; hiring the disabled increases costs of training, accommodation and supervision; both managers and the disabled lack information about government support for their hiring; concerns about their level of job performance; and the disabled need more supervision.

Chi and Qu (2003) examined attitudes in this area among food service employers in Oklahoma. They found a somewhat favorable attitude towards workers with disabilities, attitudes being more favorable among those having prior positive work experiences with people with disabilities. Those with more positive attitudes towards the disabled were also more likely to hire or commit to hire persons with disabilities. It should be noted that there is often a gap between organizations saying they are open to hiring the disabled and actually hiring the disabled. Larger organizations, and managers having higher levels of education, were more open to hiring the disabled. In addition there are various government programs offering financial support for disabled hiring.

Houtenville and Kalargyrou (2015) compared employers' perspectives regarding hiring the disabled in 263 hospitality and leisure companies with 3126 firms in other industries and found that service firms were more open to hiring the disabled than were goods-producing industries, which is potentially encouraging news. The vast majority of the disabled want to work. There is a looming labor shortage in the hospitality and tourism industry; many able-bodied people prefer not to work in this sector. And the societal costs of unemployment among the disabled are paid by the taxpayers.

While hiring the disabled is important, the disabled need more support to prevent accidents and injuries, employees with disabilities having higher rates of workplace accidents and injuries. Employees with disabilities need additional training as they have as much right to a safe workplace as anyone else. They need to know their rights to a safe and bias-free workplace, that they may have accidents, be injured, or killed on the job. They need to know that accidents can be prevented, understand the risks they may face, and how best to deal with these risks and hazards by identifying resources that can keep them safe. All employees need to inform their supervisors if they feel at risk and unsafe. Interested readers will find

a document created by the Labor Occupational Health Program at the University of California at Berkeley and NIOSH (2016) invaluable here.

LOW PAY AND THE ROLE PLAYED BY TIPPING

Some countries (for example, Japan) do not allow tipping. Some people argue that tipping makes staff subservient to and of lower status than the customer. A few restaurants in Toronto have done away with tipping, probably incorporating an increase in the prices of their food; it is hoped that this money is allocated to staff. The minimum wage in Ontario is currently $11.25 an hour and will rise to $11.40 in the near future. It is difficult to have a life at this rate of pay. Thus individuals can increase their pay through receiving tips. I have asked waiting staff at a few restaurants if they receive the Ontario minimum wage and they have said no, but they share in the pooling of tips. An increasing number of Toronto restaurants no longer allocate the tips received to staff, but instead pay above the minimum wage, for example $13.25 an hour. However, this results in staff getting less money and the employer getting more. The practice of tipping and pay levels is becoming an increasingly important issue in the hospitality sector.

An increasing number of restaurant employees (chefs, servers) failed even to receive pay they were due when restaurants closed, or they failed to receive pay for extra shifts worked or after a contract termination (Henry and Wallace, 2016).

BUILDING A SAFETY CULTURE

Workplace accidents and injuries such as slips and falls, strain from lifting heavy objects and burns from hot substances are common in hospitality organizations, being both dangerous to employees and costly to workplaces. Employees sometimes fail to follow established safety practices as well. Workplace accidents and injuries can be significantly reduced by building a workplace safety culture. Zohar (1980) defined a safety culture as employee perceptions of the value and role of safety in organizations. Clarke et al. (2013), based on an extensive literature review, reported associations between the presence of a safety culture and safety work outcomes such as compliance with safety rules, undertaking safety audits, injury frequency and injury severity, and less accident under-reporting. Antecedent factors associated with a strong safety culture included the values of safety held by executives, the behaviors of managers and supervisors,

safety-related communications, safety education and training, quality of co-worker relationships, safety supportive systems, and lower levels of workplace stress (Griffin and Neal, 2000; Taylor, 2010).

PHYSICAL SAFETY AND SECURITY OF HOTELS: ROOM FOR IMPROVEMENT?

Enz (2009a) developed two indexes of hotel safety and security (safety equipment and security equipment). Data were obtained from 5487 US hotels. The average safety index score was 70 and the average security index score was 64 out of possible score of 100. Each index had a large standard deviation, suggesting wide variance among hotels. Hotels scoring higher on these indices charged higher prices, were newer, in urban and airport locations or in the luxury market, and were larger. Although Enz doesn't say this, possible concerns might be raised about the physical safety and security among the lowest ranking properties.

TERRORIST ATTACKS ON HOTELS AND CAFES

We have witnessed a new challenge to hospitality organizations over the past decade. Al-Qaeda militants attacked three hotels in the Ivory Coast on Sunday 13 March 2016, killing at least 16; the six attackers were also killed (Corey-Boulet, 2016). Pizam (2016) cites the terrorist attacks in Paris, the Sinai and Mumbai, as well as attacks on tourist-carrying airlines and the Russian airliner shot down in Egypt, as occurring because these sites were unprotected and openly accessible, highly visible and having a high impact, and they represented activities (drinking alcohol, Western music) that were seen as decadent by Jihadists. He suggests a need to "harden" their targets, making it more difficult for terrorists to attack them. This is difficult to do because of the thousands of such organizations involved, the belief that the state should be responsible for this, lack of clarity on how to do this, and a lack of resources and manpower. There are training programs to increase employee awareness of security and terrorism issues, and efforts have been made to involve the public at large in identifying any potential terrorist activities. Some hospitality organizations have hired trained security staff, installed safety and security equipment, and posted policies of safety and security to all staff.

Baker (2014; 2015) provides a review of the effects of terrorism on tourism, with the literature spanning over 30 years. Terrorism has been associated with increased unemployment, homelessness and economic

costs. It is linked with reductions to travel and tourism, with the financial and economic consequences. A key element is the perception of risk by potential travelers and tourists. Risk perceptions have certainly increased in 2016 from a rising number of terrorist attacks in more countries.

Terrorism also has other less dramatic effects on the hospitality sector. Bader and Berg (2014) consider the impact of terrorism on the job performance of expatriates using a stressor–strain framework. It is common for major hotel chains to move senior managers from one country to another. They consider two types of stressors: situation-related stressors including previous terrorist attacks, terrorist threat levels, one's working and living conditions, and threat levels of a particular host country; and interaction-related stressors such as relationships with host country staff and potential spouse and family conflicts. These comprise terrorist-related stressors and strains which influence an individual's work attitudes towards their colleagues, job and organization, and ultimately expatriate job performance.

Hospitality organizations can address some employee concerns about terrorism. Bader and Berg (2013) suggest an emphasis on the expatriate family, including greater preparation before entering the host country, greater family support once there, and more frequent trips home coupled with shorter foreign assignments. Howie (2007) proposes seminars tackling fear of flying, dealing with those who fit a terrorist profile, working in tall buildings, making greater use of technologies to minimize travel to high risk countries, and developing a security-oriented workplace climate, with senior managers making efforts to maintain or increase staff morale.

INCREASING TURBULENCE IN TOURIST DESTINATIONS

A recent report (Kivanc, 2016) noted that increasing levels of fear are causing tourism in Turkey to drop dramatically. They attribute this decline to increasing terrorism and ethnic tensions, decreasing numbers of Russian tourists after Turkey shot down a Russian warplane, and the attempted but failed coup against the country's President, Recep Erdogan, in July 2016. They estimate a $12 billion decline in tourism revenues in 2016, a 50 percent decline in European tourists and loss of 100 000 jobs in Antalya, a prime tourist region, as well (Arango and Yeginsu, 2016).

Egypt, another prime tourist destination, has experienced increasing instability over the past few years, also resulting in a drop in tourism. Former military dictator and President Hosni Mubarak, now imprisoned, maintained some semblance of stability during his regime. When he was overthrown in a citizen uprising beginning in Tahrir Square, a democratic

election led to the leader of the Muslim Brotherhood becoming President. He in turn was later arrested in a coup led by the military and is still imprisoned. General al-Sisi is now the Egyptian president, but protests in the streets are still ongoing.

SEX TOURISM: A PROBLEM

There are many forms and reasons for tourism. In some countries sex tourism is seen as a means of economic development (Hall and Ryan, 2001; Jeffrey, 2003). Sex tourism involves prostitution, the payment for sexual services. Sex tourism destinations then are generally in developing countries. Mason (1999) reviews the historical development of large-scale prostitution in South East Asia as moving from local demand to tourist demand. Women are usually the prostitutes, with concerns being raised about their mental and physical health, marginal economic status, and the possibility of HIV/AIDS.

A new study found child-sex tourism has increased dramatically in the travel and tourism sector – a disturbing development (Lowrie, 2016). This growth raises ethical and moral issues for the industry. However, it is not clear what official stand the industry has taken and what efforts have been made to combat this activity.

ECPAT International (2016) conducted a global study on the sexual exploitation of children in travel and tourism (SECTT). SECTT has increased despite country efforts to reduce it. SECTT exists in all countries, though regional variations were found to exist. Child victims can suffer serious and life-long emotional, psychological and physical damage. ECPAT International calls for greater protection of potential and actual victims, for cultural and social norms of child sexual abuse and child marriages, and cultural views of masculinity to be addressed, and for stronger enforcement of laws currently in place. Coordinated efforts by government agencies, the hospitality and tourism sector, and country citizens are necessary for progress to be realized.

MEDICAL TOURISM: A CAUTION

Given the high and increasing costs of medical treatment in the developed world, a growing market has developed for patients needing treatment to seek it in the developing world where it is cheaper; hence the emerging field of medical tourism (Lunt et al., 2012; Cortez, 2008). Medical tourism involves consumers traveling across international borders to receive

medical treatment. Medical treatment includes services such as dental care, cosmetic surgery, other elective surgeries, and fertility treatments. Individuals from wealthier, more developed countries travel to less well developed countries, seeking cheaper treatments. Top destinations include Costa Rica, India, Mexico, Singapore, Taiwan, Thailand and Turkey. Millions of people engage in medical tourism annually, with potential cost savings of 25 percent to 90 percent, depending on the destination chosen.

Medical tourism requires a first class tourism infrastructure in order to succeed. Medical tourism is enhanced by cheap airfares and reasonably priced hotel and vacation possibilities, so high levels of customer service become important selling features (Connell, 2006). National governments have developed strategies to support medical tourism in their countries (MacReady, 2007). But questions must be addressed about the quality and safety of medical treatment in other countries; there is always a risk in international patients traveling back home (Burkett, 2007). Much more research needs to be devoted to understanding the health outcomes from medical tourism and the impact of medical tourism on the health care systems of the treatment-providing countries.

HOSPITALITY AND TOURISM ORGANIZATIONS NEED TO ADDRESS THE FOLLOWING CHALLENGES

These challenges include: being selective in staffing and hiring; the need for staff orientation and training; the need to offer competitive and fair pay; more supportive, friendly and humane supervision; using job characteristics and job design to offer more variety, control and job enlargement; empowering staff, increasing job involvement; reducing levels of some job stressors; creating a customer service culture; and developing stronger and visionary leadership at senior and executive levels.

HUMAN RESOURCE MANAGEMENT INITIATIVES

Fortunately a range of human resource management initiatives have been undertaken to address some of these challenges. This section begins by offering ideas on what constitutes a high performance workplace culture and a high quality of working life; human resource practices that increase both internal and external branding and why these are important; creating fun at work, the use of service rewards, and the role of psychological capital in increasing staff resilience and performance.

High Performance Work Practices

High performance human resource management practices refers to a collection of separate human resource practices that suggest ways that managers and employees can interact to improve both individual and organizational functioning. Dhar (2015), in a study of 618 front-line employees and 31 managers/supervisors, considered the relationship of eight high performance human resource practices and organizational commitment and service innovative behaviors. The eight high performance human resource practices were: selective staffing; extensive training; internal mobility; employment security; clear job descriptions; results-oriented appraisal; incentive reward; and high staff participation. He reported that high performance human resource management practices increased employee organizational commitment, which in turn increased employee service innovative behaviors, the latter relationship mediated by the organizational climate for innovation.

What elements make up a high performance management system for hospitality organizations and perhaps elsewhere? Murphy and Murrmann (2009) used a two-step process, the first one involving interviews with industry experts at the Vice-President level and above to identify elements of a high performance management system; the second involving a Delphi study with restaurant experts, consultants and academics from the hospitality field. The first study identified 13 high performance work practices, and the second step added two more and eliminated three.

These were: Training and skill development; Employer of choice; Information sharing; Selectivity in recruiting; Measurement of the HR practices; Promotion from within; Quality of worklife; Diversity; Incentive pay based on performance appraisal; Participation and empowerment; Employee ownership; Self-managed teams; High wages. The three that were dropped were: Employment security; Job design; and Reduced status distinctions.

Kandasamy and Ancheri (2009) employed qualitative methods (interviews, focus groups) with both hospitality students and hotel employees to identify their views and expectations of a good work–life balance. Eight dimensions were identified:

- job characteristics: work that is challenging, interesting, satisfying and manageable;
- person–job fit: a match with qualifications and interests;
- company image: growing, good performance, a clean and safe working environment;
- human resource policies: adequate and fair pay, training and

development, fringe benefits, performance appraisals, orientation programs;
- work group relationships: cooperation, trust support, communication;
- physical working conditions: enough space, good lighting and air conditioning, ergonomically designed work stations;
- work–life balance: time for social and family life;
- interaction with customers: respect of customers, customer praise for doing a good job.

Human Resource Management Practices and Internal Branding

Internal branding within hospitality organizations has been proposed as a vehicle for increasing employee brand commitment. Brand-committed leaders increase employee brand commitment by serving as role models, championing the brand, and regularly communicating to staff in ways that develop and support the desired brand identity. Terglav et al. (2016), using a sample of 226 employees in a European hotel chain, considered the role of top management brand commitment. They found that leader brand commitment was associated with employee brand commitment through three mediating variables: employee brand knowledge; employee brand fit; and fulfillment of their psychological contract. Besides top management's commitment to service quality as a brand feature, and an internal brand, employees need to have brand-relevant information and knowledge, come to share features of the internal brand, and feel that they are engaged and committed in the process.

Kim et al. (2009b), in a study of 194 managers and 104 front-line service workers from ten Bangkok hotels, found that three measures of managerial commitment to service quality had positive associations with employee levels of job satisfaction, which in turn had positive relationships with both extra-role customer service behaviors and cooperation with co-workers. The three management commitment to service factors were organizational rewards, empowerment of employees, and levels of training provided.

Human Resource Management Practices and External Branding

Love and Singh (2011) show how human resource management practices contribute to organizational branding reflected in "Best employers" surveys. They identified eight common human resource practices in these surveys: inspired leadership; a strategic plan that promotes "best employer" human resource practices; employee communications; performance management; training and development; benefits based on best practices

that meet the needs of employees (e.g, work–life balance, workplace flexibility, a safe and healthy work environment, feedback from employees); appealing physical workplaces; and strong corporate citizenship.

Are We Having Fun Yet?

Having fun at work has been shown to be associated with higher levels of job satisfaction, employee retention, job performance and customer satisfaction (Evans and Vernon, 2007; Fleming, 2005; Karl et al., 2005). Chan (2010) undertook an interview study to identify a typology of workplace fun in the hospitality sector using preliminary interviews, focus groups and then final interviews with 10 human resource managers. He identified four categories of fun:

- staff-oriented workplace fun: celebration of birthdays and special events, extra time off, employee appreciation days, flexible work schedules;
- supervisor-oriented workplace fun: lunch with one's supervisor, happy hours with supervisors;
- social-oriented workplace fun: annual dinners, picnics, Christmas parties, friendly competitions, charity events;
- strategy-oriented workplace fun: casual dress days, family-friendly policies, organization-provided food and refreshments, newsletters, emails, sharing sessions with the chief executives.

Maddeaux (2016) writes that all employees at some of the best rated restaurants eat a meal together before opening for dinner customers as a simple team building initiative. This allows the lunch shift and the dinner shift to both take part.

Tews et al. (2013) studied the influence of workplace fun on employee turnover and performance among front-line servers in a national US restaurant chain. Data were collected from 195 servers. Fun activities included productivity contests, social events, team building activities and celebration of work accomplishments and personal milestones. First, these fun events were positively associated with work performance; secondly, manager support for fun was negatively associated with performance. They suggest that managers should adopt a fun managerial style (using fun activities) along with implementing specific performance goals – creating fun at work while maintaining higher levels of work performance.

Service Rewards and Prosocial Service Behaviors of Front-line Service Employees

As mentioned earlier, one important human resource management practice is the use of rewards for the provision of outstanding customer service by hospitality employees. Eren et al. (2014) undertook a study of levels of service rewards perceived by front-line service workers from four- and five-star Turkish hotels and their engaging in prosocial service behaviors. The latter included engaging in extra-role, role prescribed, and cooperative helpful behaviors. Data were collected from 241 employees working in 18 different hotels. Personal demographic characteristics were weak predictors of both perceptions of service rewards and levels of prosocial behaviors undertaken. However, service rewards were strong and consistent predictors of the three prosocial service behaviors. The two most common reward types offered by these properties were recognition and bonuses. It would seem to be easy to increase the types of available rewards for outstanding job performance.

Psychological Capital

Psychological capital is a positive psychological state involving four dimensions: self-efficacy, optimism, hope and resilience. It has been shown to be associated with a range of individual and organizational health, well-being and performance variables. It is a source of strength that can be developed in training programs (Luthans et al., 2006a; 2006b; 2007). Min et al. (2015), in a study of 232 hotel employees in South Korea, mostly front-line service workers from 10 middle to upscale hotels, 7 in Seoul, examined the role of psychological capital as a buffer between challenge and hindrance stressors and both burnout and work engagement. They found that psychological capital buffered the negative relationship of both challenge and hindrance stressors and burnout. Psychological capital also buffered the effects of challenge stressors and work engagement.

Paek et al. (2015), using data from 312 front-line workers from 15 five-star hotels in Seoul, found in a one-month longitudinal study that psychological capital increased employee work engagement, which in turn increased both job satisfaction and hotel affective commitment.

NEW EMPLOYEE ONBOARDING PRACTICES

Turnover, particularly among new employees, is very high in the hospitality sector. Employee onboarding has been shown to be an effective way to

reduce turnover, increase employee satisfaction and ultimately customer loyalty (Bradt and Vonnegut, 2009; Sims, 2010; Stein and Christiansen, 2010; Watkins, 2013). Onboarding processes make employees feel valued, comfortable and assist them to succeed. Onboarding fits into the employee socialization literature (Klein and Heuser, 2008).

Onboarding of new hires helps them become productive employees. But onboarding takes time and resources. Supervisors/managers need to review the onboarding process with the new hirer as a way of getting feedback on their onboarding efforts. The supervisor/manager needs to spend up to three months helping new hires succeed. Onboarding can start even before the new hire begins work by describing the job expectations and organizational mission and culture in the interview process, developing email accounts and organizing work spaces. Onboarding can also take place outside of work at social and business events sponsored by the organization. Work teams are also a source of information during onboarding.

Graybill and her colleagues (2013) studied employee onboarding in 17 US university and college libraries. Onboarding practices involved a discussion of job expectations and evaluation criteria (100 percent), a discussion of mission, vision and values (59 percent), and organizational culture (29 percent). Onboarding programs ranged from one week to six months.

Grillo and Kim (2015) suggest three key onboarding processes: a survey of newly hired employees in the first 60 days; providing materials to managers and newly hired employees during the onboarding process; and paying special attention to diverse hires (women, racial minorities, ethnic minorities, the disabled). They offer practical examples and onboardng materials to address these three objectives.

UNIVERSITY AND COLLEGE INTERN PROGRAMS

Almost all university and college programs in hospitality management include an internship program for students. These programs typically fall short in meeting the needs of students and potential employers (Zopiatis and Constanti, 2012). Building on the concept of experiential learning, they suggest ways that universities and college programs, the hospitality industry and students can contribute to making internships a valuable learning experience.

HUMAN RESOURCE MANAGEMENT IMPLICATIONS FOR HOSPITALITY ORGANIZATIONS: SOME BOTTOM LINES

The hospitality industry is facing a number of old and new challenges. Executive leadership needs to identify the workplace culture that best meets the needs of the firm and its employees, then determine ways that human resource management practices can support this. Examples include:

- using realistic job previews in selection to reduce turnover;
- appreciating the importance of early socialization practices after new employees are hired;
- clearly articulating performance expectations, monitoring job performance, conducting performance appraisal reviews, recognizing and rewarding high levels of contribution;
- training supervisors and managers in supporting employees;
- educating employees on the causes and costs of emotional labor and job stress and failing to cope with these;
- offering flexibility to address work–family issues when it is practical to do so;
- training and development of supervisors to improve the quality of leadership and management;
- using teams where appropriate and offering training in team effectiveness.

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