Work values in tourism: Past, present and future

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Abstract

Although work values are important psychological variables in organisations, little research has been done to clarify the way in which work values are conceptualised. We address the need within the field to understand and engage with wider debates within social science literature by presenting an up-to-date review of work values in tourism research and a synthesis of paradigms pertaining to established value models and theories. We reconceptualise work values as a second-order projection of intrinsic, extrinsic, prestige and social types of values in the work settings of tourism. We then test the conceptual validity of this model through exploratory and confirmatory factor analysis using data from Japanese tourism workers.

Introduction

For decades, organisational scholars have applied the construct of values to understand personal identification in organisations (Ashforth, Schinoff, & Rogers, 2016). Unfortunately, despite many advances, the work values literature lacks synthesis, making it challenging to apply to practical settings. Leuty and Hansen (2011) concluded that ''Little work has been completed to summarize and organize different conceptualisations of work values (p. 381) . . . [and although] the current study provided much needed examination of work values, future research can continue to develop our understanding of the construct'' (p. 389).

The application of work values to tourism research goes back to the foundational work of Abraham Pizam and associates, which examined the work values profiles of tourism and hospitality students (Neuman et al., 1980; Pizam & Lewis, 1979; Pizam, Reichel, & Neumann, 1980). The subject resurfaced when Mok, Pine, and Pizam (1998) and Wong and Chung (2003) reported the work value profiles of hotel workers in Hong Kong. Chen and associates twice revisited this theme in the USA, first identifying the work value profiles of three generations of hospitality workers (Chen & Choi, 2008) and then comparing the work values profiles of hospitality workers to hospitality students (Chen & Tesone, 2009). Generational differences in work values were also reported by Gursoy, Chi, and Karadag (2013), using a sample of frontline and service contact employees. Meanwhile, Chu (2008), Wong and Liu (2009) and White (2006) provided evidence of tourism and hospitality students' work value profiles from Taiwan, Hong Kong and a multinational context, respectively.

Unfortunately, each of these studies utilised a different work values typology, an approach that has stymied confusion in work values research within a variety of disciplines, such as management (Gehman, Trevino, & Garud, 2013), vocational behaviour (Leuty & Hansen, 2011) and organisational behaviour (Lyons, Higgins, & Duxbury, 2010). When faced with a body of literature that is mature, but fractured, it is beneficial to critique, synthesize, update and add missing pieces in order to provide

a way forward for future developments (Tribe & Liburd, 2016). Our objective is to make such a contribution to the literature concerning work values in tourism. To accomplish this, we follow the steps for conceptual research identified by Xin, Tribe, and Chambers (2013) and Tribe and Liburd (2016), providing both quantitative (volume and context) and qualitative aspects (comparison of definitions and typologies, conceptual gaps, synthesis and reflection). We begin with an outline of the search strategy and a brief description of the research context, focusing on the size of the samples of the studies under review as well as their occupational and cultural identities. The features recurrently mentioned in the definitions of work values are provided and the method used to derive the typologies is examined. Emphasis is placed on the assessment utilised to extract the work values data, the method of analysis and the derived number of types.

Our analysis reveals a significant gap between the dominant conceptualisation of work values as expressions of values in the work setting and the derived typologies. To address this gap, a series of paradigms pertaining to evolved values model and theories are then presented, reflecting on (a) the meaning of general life values and value systems; (b) the relationship of work values vis-à-vis general life values; (c) the types of work values; and (d) the relationship between the types.

Based on our review, we reconceptualise work values as a second-order expression of intrinsic, extrinsic, prestige and social values in the work setting of tourism. Extending earlier reconceptualisation approaches, such as Reisinger and Steiner (2006) in object authenticity, Russo and Segre (2009) in destination and property regimes and Tribe and Liburd (2016) in tourism knowledge systems, we provide evidence of conceptual validity by means of exploratory factor analysis (EFA) and confirmatory factor analysis (CFA). The analysis is based on data from the 2008[1] Working Persons Survey (WPS) in Japan. Our conceptualisation reveals a better fit when compared against structurally competing models (i.e., all items loaded into one factor and a first-order equivalent) as well as alternative theoretically derived models (i.e., second-order with three factors and an intrinsic/extrinsic dichotomisation).

Work values in tourism research

Search strategy

Our search strategy was designed to find empirical quantitative studies about values related to the supply element of tourism, the human capital (i.e., students) and the labour force. The search period was from February 1979 – the year Pizam and Lewis's seminal article ''Work Values of Hospitality Students'' was published – to December 2015. We first identified relevant published studies, using Scopus and ISI Web of Knowledge (WoK), the leading online international databases for tourism publications (Figueroa-Domecq, Pritchard, Segovia-Pérez, Morgan, & Villacé-Molinero, 2015). The search terms applied in all cases were ''tourism'', ''hospitality'', ''leisure'', ''values'' and ''work values''. Relevant studies were identified by examining their title, abstract and the full text (Phillips & Moutinho, 2014). Studies that focused on the role of values in the production element of tourism, such as tourist shopping behaviour (Choi, Heo, & Law, 2015) were excluded. Similarly, papers with a qualitative research focus such as Gursoy, Maier, and Chi's (2008) in-depth focus group discussion study of work values and generational gaps of US hotel workers were excluded.

The first search identified 14 empirical studies of work values published in six academic journals (i.e., *Annals of Tourism Research; International Journal of*

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[1] 1 We use the 2008 data because later years do not include the necessary assessment of work values.

Hospitality Management; International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management; Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Research; The Service Industries Journal; Tourism Management). Second, the search of previous reviews within the wider organisational studies such as Parry and Urwin (2011) resulted in the inclusion of Chen and Choi's (2008) study. Third, using Google Scholar, we searched the studies that cited the fifteen previously identified cases. This procedure added three papers (Chen & Tesone, 2009; Koroglu & Gezen, 2014; Wong & Liu, 2009) resulting in a total sample of eighteen empirical tourism studies of work values published from 1979 to 2014.

A two wave history

In the late-1970s and early-1980s, tourism scholars were amongst the first researchers to provide distinct work value profiles within the organisational context. Despite this important early contribution concerning the motivational impacts of work values, further research in tourism stagnated for almost two decades. The partial decoupling in the 1980s and 1990s of tourism research from that in general management and social sciences (Shaw & Williams, 2009) and the relative neglect of research, at that time, in the area of tourism supply (Baum, Kralj, Robinson, & Solnet, 2016; Ladkin, 2011) probably played a role in the decline in empirical research. However, the phenomenal growth of tourism employment over the last 20 years has raised concerns about people resourcing, which has been recognised as the most challenging issue for practitioners in the industry (Baum et al., 2016; Ladkin, 2011). As the world of work has evolved, due to changes imposed by political, economic, socio-cultural and technological forces, so have the expectations towards work in tourism (Baum et al., 2016; Solnet, Kralj, & Baum, 2015).

In response to these challenges, tourism scholars have recently extended the early work of Pizam and associates, further exploring the use of work values in screening new applicants and improving the motivation of existing employees. The volume of work values studies within tourism has more than doubled in recent years; we identified only five studies published between 1979 and 1998, compared to thirteen between 2000 and 2014. This increased attention has provided significant evidence regarding the work value profiles of current and future employees across a variety of cultural and occupational contexts.

Rich context

The majority of studies shown in Table 1 were conducted in the United States (6), Taiwan (4) and Hong Kong (3). Australia, Turkey and Slovenia, were also included, each from one study whilst White (2005, 2006) conducted studies with multinational samples. The size of the samples varied from small, ranging from 51 to 190 participants (5 studies), to medium with 218 to 398 participants (7 studies) and large with 511 to 1220 participants (6 studies). Participants were mostly students (11 studies), but Chen and Tesone (2009) compared students to practitioners. The occupational context of practitioner focused studies (6) varied from frontline hotel workers and managers in restaurants, to tour guides and travel agency administrative staff and from workers in theme parks and food services to the convention/meeting and planning industry.

Common conceptualisation

The definitions included in Table 1 suggest three recurrent themes about work values: (a) they are expressions of general life values in the work setting representing (b) mode of behaviours or outcomes that (c) organise and guide current and/or future employees' decisions in the work setting. In particular, it is generally assumed that

values, as expressed at the general life level, and values expressed in the work setting are interrelated. Gursoy et al. (2013, p. 41) is the sole study to describe this relationship conceptually, arguing that values have a particular cognitive structure that produces a structural similarity between general values and work values.

A distinction can also be made between studies that conceptualise values as modes of behaviour (e.g., accomplishing) and those that describe values as outcomes (e.g., the feeling of accomplishment related to tourism work). Some authors (i.e., Koroglu & Gezen, 2014; Liang, 2012; Mok et al., 1998; White, 2005, 2006) draw on Rokeach's (1973) seminal work, defining general life values as, enduring perspectives of what is fundamentally right or wrong in the work domain, or beliefs that instruct people on how they should behave at work. This view depicts work values as people's internalized interpretations about how they ''should'' or ''ought'' to behave at work. Other researchers (e.g., Chen & Tesone, 2009; Chu & Chu, 2013; Gursoy et al., 2013) describe work values as important outcomes that people seek to satisfy through working and which affect the decision to choose and continue with a specific work environment.

Multiple typologies

Table 1 illustrates a range of conceptual typologies incorporating between two and fifteen work value types, with four types being the most frequent (4 studies). Pizam et al. (1980) and Neuman, Pizam, and Reichel (1980), used Super's Work Values Inventory (SWVI; Super, 1970) and principal component analysis to present a four-component typology (i.e., self-expression, work conditions, status and altruistic). Similar four-type conceptualisations were used by White (2006) and Chen and Choi (2008) (Table 1). By contrast, other studies that used the same assessment and the same analytical method as above, such as Chen and Tesone (2009) and Chu (2008) derived a three-component typology (see Table 1). Mok et al. (1998) and Wong and Chung (2003) reported a five and a six-component typology, respectively, using both Hofstede's Value Survey Model (1980) and principal component analysis (Table 1). Notably, although Wong and Liu (2009) and Liang (2012) used different inventories to assess work values (i.e., Super (1970) versus deVaus and McAllister (1991)) and different methods to analyse the data (i.e., hierarchical cluster analysis versus CFA), they both derived a two-type intrinsic/extrinsic typology. The largest number of work value types were derived by Gursoy et al. (2013) and Koroglu and Gezen (2014) with seven and fifteen types of work values, respectively. Table 1, shows some studies, such as Pizam and Lewis (1979), Ross (1992) and White (2005) reported work value profiles based on the individual items, without proceeding further to the construction of conceptual typologies. In addition, Bizjak, Knezevic and Cvetreznik (2011) relied on the five higher-order types of the Value Scale (Super & Nevill, 1986) derived from Vizek-Vidovic, Kulenovic, Jerneic, & Sverko (1984) rather than analysing individual items and Chu and Chu (2013) similarly analysed the four-types of the Work Values Survey (Ros, Schwartz, & Surkiss, 1999). Furthermore, Chen, Hei-Lin Chu, and Wu's (2000) cluster analysis of work values scores aimed at clustering cases instead of variables, therefore the reported typology of work value profiles among hospitality students: achievement seekers; income movers; and liberal workers.

Conceptual gaps

Our analysis reveals that there is common agreement on the conceptualisation of work values as expressions of values in the work setting, yet the underlying psychological mechanisms remain largely unexplored. Unfortunately, most of the

Table 1
The evolution of work values conceptualisation in tourism research.

Studies	Definition	Sample	Inventory	Typology
Pizam & Lewis, 1979	*Work values characterize professions and are based on economic and psychological needs derived from an individual's background (p. 6).*	US, 171 students	SWVI; Super, 1970	Original Scale
Neuman et al., 1980	N/A	US, 218 students	SWVI	Self-Expression; Work Conditions; Status and Altruistic
Pizam et al., 1980	N/A	US, 190 students	SWVI	Self-Expression; Work Conditions; Status and Altruistic
Ross, 1992	*Work values are fundamental orientations to work-life which organize and direct both attitudes and behaviour (p. 320).*	Australia, 594 high school students	WAPS; Pryor, 1983	Original Scale
Mok et al., 1998	*Values are intrinsic, enduring perspectives of what is fundamentally right or wrong (p. 2). Work values represent these perspectives as applied to work settings (p. 2).*	Hong Kong, 120 Chinese ethnic hotel employees	VSM; Hofstede, 1980	Task Characteristics; Income Organization; Quality of life; Working Relations; Community
Chen et al., 2000	*Values act as criteria for choosing goals or guiding actions (p. 360)*	Taiwan, 311 students	SWVI	Achievement Seekers[*]; Income movers; Liberal workers
Wong & Chung, 2003	*Values are enduring beliefs (p. 67)*	Hong Kong, 152 managers in Chinese hotel restaurants	VSM	Congenial Job Context; Desirable Job Context; Job status/Prospect; Self-fulfilment; Confucian work dynamism
White, 2005	*Values are beliefs that are experienced by an individual as standards that instruct how they should function (p. 221).*	Multinational, 276 students	SWVI	Original Scale
White, 2006	*Values are beliefs that are experienced by an individual as standards that instruct how they should function (p. 221).*	Multinational, 562 students	SWVI	Comfort-Independent; Affiliation; Stimulation; Achievement
Chu, 2008[**]	*Work values are important and valuable outcomes that individuals derive from work (p. 321).*	Taiwan, 511 students	SWVI	Tangible Rewards; Liberal Spirit; Self-fulfilment
Chen & Choi, 2008	*Values are defined as beliefs and personal standards that guide individuals to function in a society (p. 596) and … work values are these beliefs that should be satisfied in people's career choices (p. 597).*	US, 398 hospitality practitioners	SWVI	Comfort and Security; Personal Growth; Professional Growth; Work Environment
Chen & Tesone, 2009	*Work values refer to the goals or rewards people seek through their work. They are expressions of more general human values in the context of the work setting (p. 143)*	US, 828 students and 398 practitioners	SWVI	General; Management; Hospitality
Wong & Liu, 2009	*Values are beliefs that are experienced by the individual as standards that guide how he or she should function (p. 341) …and work values are important and valuable outcomes that individuals derive from work (p. 341).*	Hong Kong, 566 tourism students	SWVI	Intrinsic; Extrinsic
Bizjak, Knežević, & Cvetrežnik, 2011	*Work values' is usually used to describe general and relatively stable goals that people try to reach through work (p. 851)*	Slovenia, 51 tourism students	VS; Super & Nevill, 1986	Self-actualisation; Avanturistic; Social orientation; Individual orientation; Utilitarian orientation
Liang, 2012	*Work values refer to enduring perspectives that guide individuals to evaluate what is fundamentally right or wrong in the work environment (p. 25).*	Taiwan, 306 hotel workers	de Vaus & McAllister, 1991	Intrinsic, Extrinsic
Chu and Chu, 2013	*Work values refer to expressions of individual goals in work settings to choose and continue with a specific work environment.*	Taiwan, 381 tourism professionals	Ros et al, 1999	Intrinsic, Extrinsic, Prestige, Social
Gursoy et al, 2013	*Values are defined as beliefs and personal standards that guide individuals to function in a society (p. 41). Work values are the end-values such as satisfaction, quality or reward individuals seek from their work (p. 41).*	US, 717 hotel workers	25-items generated from a series of focus group meetings	Leadership; Work Centrality; Work-life Balance; Power; Non-Compliance; Recognition; Technology Challenge
Koroglu and Gezen, 2014	*Values are intrinsic, enduring perspectives of what is fundamentally right or wrong. (p. 254). Work values represent these perspectives as applied to work settings. (p. 254)*	Turkey, 397 tourism students	WVS; Pilavcý, 2007	Innovation; Human Relations; Relations With Managers; Safety; Economic Profit; Leadership; Relations With Colleagues; Success; Work Environment; Intellectual Support; Autonomy; Variety; Prestige; Life Style; Aesthetic

Source: author.

SWVI = Super's Work Values Inventory; WAPS: Work Aspect Preference Scale; VSM = Values Survey Model; VS = Values Survey; WVS = Work values Scale.

[*] The analysis of the 45 items did not conform to the 15 work values proposed by Super (1970).

[**] The reported types are part of second-ordered structure.

endeavours to construct a conceptual typology for work values were based on inductive approaches, rather than being derived from theory. Although inductive analyses are useful as exploratory evidence, they are fundamentally data driven and open to interpretation, rather than guided by a priori theoretical positions. As a result, there is disagreement on the meaning and the number of types that comprise the work values domain, making it difficult to extract firm conclusions from the findings. Table 1, shows a number of studies using the SWVI reported very different factor structures (cf. Chen & Choi, 2008; Chen & Tesone, 2009; Chu, 2008; Pizam et al., 1980).

This confusion is an obstacle to greater understanding of work values and their role in research and practice within tourism. A field of research only advances through the testing and refinement of theoretically driven models (Colquitt & Zapata- Phelan, 2007). We argue that although there is scholarship on the deeper features of the work values conceptualisation such as the content of values, the relationship between work values and general life values, the types of work values and the relationship between these types, it is beset by debates and disagreements about the nature and meaning of work values and has not gained ground in tourism studies. Thus, a synthesis of this scholarship provides a fertile ground for a coherent framework in reconceptualising work values within tourism.

Synthesis and reflection

Over the past several decades, the study of individuals' attitudes and behaviours as value-driven responses has been an appealing concept in almost all social sciences. As a result, many conceptualisations of values have been theoretically articulated, with Schwartz's (1992) theory of basic human values representing the most comprehensive and up-to-date structure of values (Jin & Rounds, 2012). Schwartz (1992, p. 4) summarised five features recurrently mentioned in the values literature; values (1) are concepts or beliefs, (2) pertaining to desirable end states or behaviours, (3) transcending specific situations, (4) guiding selection or evaluation of behaviour and events, and (5) are ordered by relative importance. These features provide a wider content to the meaning of values than the one identified by tourism studies and are all consistent with the presence of a value system, a stable meaning-producing superordinate cognitive structure (Rohan, 2000). It appears, therefore, that two critical features should be included in the extant conceptualisations of general life values in tourism studies: the ordering by relative importance feature and the transcendental nature of values.

The former feature is responsible for providing the basic – hierarchically organised – architecture of what has been referred to as the ''narrative mode'' of human understanding (Rohan, 2000). The relative importance attributed to each aspect of life constitutes the individual's system of value priorities and is incorporated in all current theoretical models pertaining to value-related decision making and behaviours to explain how people make decisions (Ravlin & Meglino, 1989; Lyons et al., 2010). Schwartz (1992) has schematically represented the value system as a hierarchical organised continuum of related motivations arrayed into four-high order types of values: openness to change; conservation; self-transcendence; and self-enhancement (Fig. 1-left). This model has been tested across 75 countries and 300 samples, providing strong support for the universality of the theorized content and the structure of values (see Davidov, Schmidt, & Schwartz, 2008).

Although there is only one value system that individuals use to evaluate the general aspects of life, individuals are likely to have more than one social value system (Rohan, 2000). This quality of the value system is directly related to the second feature of values, which has been omitted by tourism scholars.
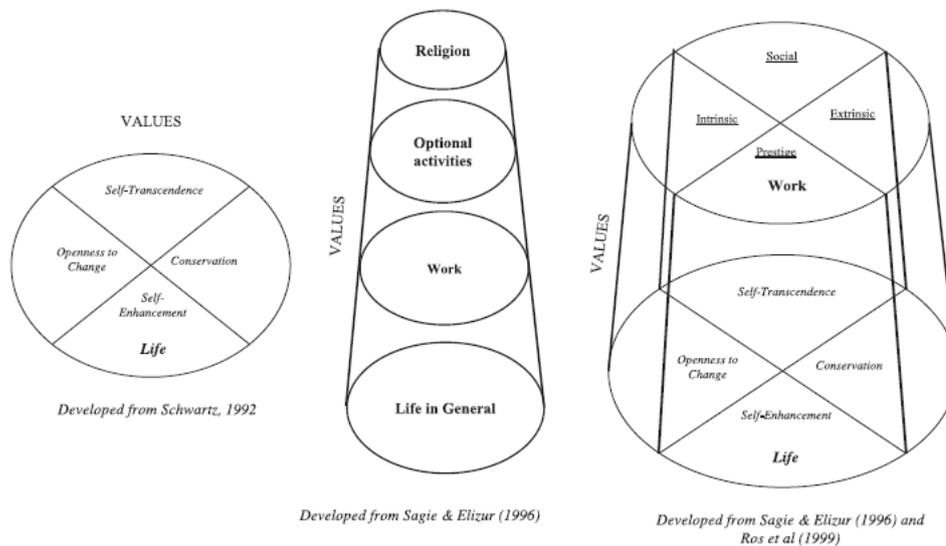
Fig. 1. Models of general life values and work values.

The transcendental nature of values allows people to project their unique values system for evaluating aspects of life in more specific domains such as politics, religion, sports, education and work (Jin & Rounds, 2012). Based on this particular feature of values, Sagie and Elizur (1996) demonstrated that work values, religious values and political values emerge from the projection of general life values in to the life domain of work, religion and politics, respectively. A graphical representation of this theoretical model of values is presented in Figure 1 (middle). This emerging theoretical model corroborates Gursoy et al.'s (2013) assumption that values have a particular cognitive structure that produces a structural similarity between general values and work values.

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In terms of the relationship between the types of work values in the derived typologies, most of the studies have utilised orthogonal rotations in their factor analytic methods to construct conceptual typologies of work values. Although the simplicity and conceptual clarity of orthogonal rotations may be appealing, there is an imposed restriction of uncorrelated factors on the derived conceptualisations (Hair, Black, Babin, & Anderson, 2014, p. 137). This means that the types of work values represent rather discrete entities, contradicting Schwartz's basic tenet of values which posits that values ''represents a continuum of related motivations, like the circular continuum of colours, rather than a set of discrete motivations'' (Davidov et al., 2008, p. 424). Therefore, there is a substantial theoretical and empirical basis for expecting the general value types to be inter-correlated. Thus, tourism scholars should expect the types of work values to be also correlated with one another.

There are currently three approaches to classifying the various types of work values. First, self-determination theory dichotomises the domain of motivations into two

contrasting types. Extrinsic motivation refers to the performance of an activity in order to attain some separable outcome. This contrasts with intrinsic motivation, which refers to undertaking an activity for the inherent satisfaction of the activity itself (Ryan & Deci, 2000, p. 71). Intrinsic types of work values are more directly associated with the fulfilling of inherent psychological needs such as competence and independence, whilst extrinsic work values tap into material aspects of work, such as benefits, pay and job security (Jin & Rounds, 2012).

The second perspective stems from Dawis and Lofquist's (1980) theory of work adjustment, which conceptualises work values as ''second-order needs'' in the work environment. Their typology includes six types of needs associated with the work environment organised into three second-order work values (work reinforcers): social (altruism and status), environment (safety and comfort) and self (achievement and autonomy).

The third paradigm is the adoption of Schwartz's (1992) basic value theory in the work setting as theoretically articulated and empirically validated by Ros et al. (1999). In this theoretical model, work values are posited to be conceptual parallels to the four higher-order types of general life values in Schwartz's (1992) values model: (1) intrinsic work values, which reflect the pursuit of personal growth (e.g., advancement, autonomy and independence in work), were related to openness to change values; (2) extrinsic work values, representing more concrete work outcomes (e.g., pay, security and comfortable work environment), related to conservation values; (3) social work values, which capture emotions, feelings and social experiences (e.g., esteem, social contribution and interpersonal work relationships), related to self-transcendence values; and (4) prestige work values, which refer to aspects of personal success and dominance over others (e.g., status, organisational image, authority and decision-making at work), related to self-enhancement values.

Reconceptualising work values in tourism

Work values as second-order projections of values in the work setting of tourism

Our reconceptualised model of work values system as a second-order projection of values in the work setting of tourism is presented in Fig. 1 (right). Based on Schwartz's theory of basic human values, we define values as implicit organisers of preferences about the capacity of the environment to satisfy our needs for survivor, functioning and social interaction. In addition, we consider the values system as a hierarchically ordered cognitive structure that comprises four high-ordered types: openness to change, conservation, self-transcendence and self-enhancement. Taking into consideration the transcendental nature of values, we assume that a structural similarity exists between the general life values system and the work values system, as evidenced by Sagie and Elizur (1996). Within this context, work values are conceptualised as expressions of general life values in the work setting and defined as implicit organisers of preferences about the capacity of the work environment to satisfy our needs for survivor, functioning and social interaction. Following the rule of parsimony, we further assume that the work values system could be represented as a second-ordered factorial structure of four high-ordered types: intrinsic, extrinsic, prestige and social. This extends Ros et al.'s (1999) emerging theoretical model of work values and corroborates the second-order nature of work values proposed by the theory of work adjustment. The proposed conceptualisation forms a meaningful and coherent whole for the deeper features of work values such as the relationship between general life values and work values (work values emerge from the projection of general life values in the work setting of tourism), the types of work values

(intrinsic, extrinsic, prestige and social) and the relationship between the types (correlated in second-order structure).

Procedure for testing the concept

To test the second-order conceptualisation presented in Fig. 1 (right), we analysed secondary data from the 2008 WPS, a high-quality biennial survey (Holbrow, 2015) established in 2000 by the Recruit Works Institute. The WPS provides a detail picture of the employment conditions and attitudes towards work of employees living within a 50 km radius of the Tokyo metropolitan area (Tokyo, Kanagawa, Chiba and Saitama prefecture) (Toda, 2016). The sampling frame included employees aged 18 to 59 at the time of the study (i.e., 22 August to 9 September 2008), who had worked at least one day in the last week of July 2008. Participants were recruited using area probability sampling, based on repeated resampling within blocks until the desired sample size (N = 6500) was reached (Toda, 2016).

The measure of work values incorporated in the 2008 WPS (i.e., Q.19 and Q.21) consists of 32 items related to aspects and outcomes of work (see Appendix). Although the conceptual framework underlying the measure has not been explicitly articulated by the Recruit Works Institute, these items are highly similar to those included in other popular measures of work values, such as the SWVI, the Work Values Survey (cf. Sagie & Elizur, 1996), Ros et al.'s (1999) work values measure and the Lyons Work Value Survey (Lyons et al., 2010). As noted by Lyons et al. (2010, p. 974), work values are an organizing construct and as such, the precise nature of the items in any work values instrument is not particularly important, so long as the scale solicits importance ratings or rankings of a range of work aspects of sufficient breadth to represent the full work values domain. We compared the WPS items set against known conceptualisations of work values and judged that the items covered a sufficient range of work aspects to facilitate the testing of our model. The wording of the 2008 WPS work value items ask participants, no matter their previous or current employment, to rate the importance (1 = Very important, 5 = Very unimportant, 6 = No answer) of the 32 work-related outcomes.

As shown in Table 2, we divided the sample into two sub-samples based on their sector of employment. Our first subsample consisted of workers in tourism related sectors (i.e., Question 6, options 52, 51 and 35) and the second subsample comprised employees in all remaining sectors. Utilising IBM SPSS 22, the data from the non-tourism sub-sample were analysed using EFA with maximum likelihood and oblique rotation, allowing the factors to be correlated (Hair et al., 2014; p. 96), as previously hypothesised. Fabrigar, et al. (1999, p. 282) note that when there is substantial theoretical for expecting the dimensions of a construct to be correlated with one another, oblique rotations provide a more accurate and realistic representation of how constructs are likely to be related to one another. Therefore, from a substantive perspective, the restriction of uncorrelated factors imposed by orthogonal rotations is, in such cases, unwarranted and may result in misleading outcomes. The derived pattern matrix was then used to construct a second-order conceptualisation which was tested on data from the tourism sector sub-sample using CFA in IBM AMOS 22 software.

Exploratory factor analysis

The option of ''no answer'' (at least in one of the 32 items) was detected in 79 cases, which were deleted from further analysis (N = 5951). The assessment of normality revealed no items with a skew or kurtosis index greater than the cut-off values of |3| or |8| recommended by Kline (2011; p. 63). Furthermore, the Bartlett test of sphericity

(70868.171; p = 0.000) and the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy (KMO = 0.929) were in line with Hair et al.'s (2014; p. 103) recommendations for sufficient correlations among items to proceed with factor analysis.

Table 2
Sample description (N = 6344).

Characteristics		EFA Others (N = 5951) Participants (%)	CFA Tourism (N = 393) Participants (%)
F1. Gender	Male	3481 (58.5)	180 (45.8)
	Female	2470 (41.5)	213 (54.2)
F3. Marital status	with spouse	3911 (65.7)	212 (53.9)
	without spouse	1997 (33.6)	179 (45.5)
F9.Education	Junior High School	258 (4.3)	32 (8.1)
	High School	2220 (37.3)	186 (47.3)
	Technical/Training School	974 (16.4)	76 (19.3)
	Junior College	523 (8.8)	24 (6.1)
	Technical junior college	97 (1.6)	2 (0.5)
	University	1752 (29.4)	73 (18.6)
	Graduate school	118 (2.0)	N/A
Q1.Employment	Full-time	4185 (70.)	165 (42)
	Contract	212 (3.6)	13 (3.3)
	Part-time (hourly)	259 (4.4)	68 (17.3)
	Part-time	1084 (18.2)	142 (36.1)
	Dispatch	134 (2.3)	3 (0.8)
	Outsourcing (one company exclusive)	55 (0.9)	1 (0.3)
	Outsourcing (several companies)	22 (0.4)	1 (0.3)
Q6.Sector	Others	5951 (100)	N/A
	Services instrumental to travel and transportation (35*)	N/A	33 (8.4)
	Dinning/eateries (51*)	N/A	310 (78.9)
	Inns, hotels, leisure (52*)	N/A	50 (12.7)

Source: Working Person Survey 2008, N/A = not applicable.
* Original numbering.

Using the Eigenvalue criterion (>1.0) the derived pattern matrix revealed a 16-item, six-factor structure (Table 3, in bold) with loadings of |.50| or greater on a single factor (Hair et al., 2014; p. 115). However, it is recommended that at least three to four items representing each common factor be included in a study (see Hair et al., 2014; p. 608). Therefore, factors 5 and 6 were omitted from further analysis. The internal consistency of the remaining four factors, measured with Cronbach's alpha coefficients, was above the lower limit of acceptability (0.60 to 0.70; Hair et al., 2014; p. 90), ranging from 0.67 to 0.78.

More importantly, the content of each of the four factors corroborates the proposed conceptualisation of work values. In particular, the items that comprised Factor 1 (personal fulfilment, accomplishment, escape from routine and doing a job I want to do) are clearly associated with an inherent psychological satisfaction of working, illustrating an intrinsic type of work values. The composition of Factor 2 (directing people, authority and high profile job) illustrates a prestige type, whereas Factor 3 (high salary, understanding boss and opportunities for raise) comprised concrete and practical aspects of work, denoting an extrinsic type. Factor 4 includes items (affection to the company, staying in one company, friendly relationships with co-workers) related to an affective or social type of work values.

Confirmatory factor analysis

Following Hair et al. (2014), we constructed the model (Model 1, hereafter; Fig. 2) such that: (1) the thirteen items loaded 0.50 and greater onto the four factors identified in the EFA, which were represented as first-order factors with one second order factor (overall work-values); (2) covariance among the first-order factors was fully explained by their regression on the second-order factor; (3) each of the thirteen items (work aspects and outcomes) had a non-zero loading on its designated factors and zero loadings on other factors; and (4) the measurement error terms associated with the items were uncorrelated.

Four cases with ''no answer'' selected in at least one of the thirteen items were detected and deleted. Although the relevant AMOS test revealed univariate normality, the results indicated a departure of multivariate normality in the sample of 466 (Mardia's coefficient of multivariate kurtosis = 29.875, critical ratio = 16.375). Using

the value of the squared Mahalanobis distance (p < 0.05) we removed the cases with the largest contribution to Mardia's coefficient (outliers) until we reached multivariate normality (critical ratio = 1.912 < |1.96|). The final sample size of 393 is in line with Hair et al.'s (2014, p. 583) recommendations (i.e., N of 100 to 400) for using maximum likelihood estimation and has an adequate participants per measured item ratio (above 30).

Table 3
Pattern matrix of work values (N = 5951).

Work aspects and outcomes	Factors					
	1	2	3	4	5	6
Q19.27: Accomplishment	.63					
Q19.26: Personal fulfilment	.57					
Q19.28: Escape routine	.56					
Q19.29: Doing a job I want to do	.55					
Q19.21: Recognition	.46					
Q19.22: New challenges	.41					.35
Q21.02: Personal development						
Q19.20: Directing others		.68				
Q19.01: Authority		.58				
Q19.11: High profile job		.56				
Q19.24: High profile company		.49				
Q19.10: Respected		.30				
Q21.01: Working abroad						
Q19.04: Initiative						
Q19.15: Salary increase			.65			
Q19.14: Understanding boss			.60			
Q19.05: High salary			.55			
Q19.08: Comfortable environment			.49			
Q19.23: Convenient working hour and location			.49			
Q19.02: Competent boss			.41			
Q19.12: Refusal						
Q19.18: Belonging to the company				−0.69		
Q19.19: Staying in one company				−0.55		
Q19.17: Relationship with co-workers				−0.50		
Q19.30: Useful to society					.83	
Q19.06: Contribution to society					.77	
Q19.25: Making people happy	.30				.46	
Q19.03: Ingenuity						.50
Q19.07: New knowledge						.45
Q19.16: New products and services						.37
Q19.13: Aesthetic						
Q19.09: Different types of work						

Extraction Method: Maximum Likelihood, Rotation Method: Oblimin with Kaiser Normalization. Rotation converged in 25 iterations. Loadings below 0.30 are not displayed.

Hair et al. (2014; p. 637) recommend that the adequate congruence between the model and the underlying data should be assessed with a combination of fit statistics, including the chi square (χ2) goodness-of-fit statistic and the degrees of freedom, one absolute fit index such as the goodness-of-fit index (GFI) or the standardised root mean square residual (SRMR), and one incremental fit index, such as the Tucker–Lewis Index (TLI) or the comparative fit index (CFI) whereas, one of these indices should also be a badness-of-fit indicator such as the SRMR or the root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA). Following recent CFA studies (i.e., Boley, McGehee, Perdue, & Long, 2014; Wang, 2017; Yolal, Gursoy, Uysal, Kim, & Karacaoǧlu, 2016) in addition to χ2 and the degree of freedom we assessed model fit using CFI, SRMR and RMSEA. Some of the criteria proposed from methodologists regarding the ideal model fit are a close to 0.95 value for CFI in combination with a cut-off value close to 0.09 for SRMR (Hu & Bentler, 1999; p. 27) and a 0.70 for RMSEA (Steiger, 2007; p. 897).

The value of the χ2 was high and significant (v2 = 196.001, df = 61, p = 0.000) and combined with a 0.075 value for RMSEA (the 90% confidence interval ranged from 0.064 to 0.087), a 0.927 for CFI and a 0.059 for SRMR indicated that the structure derived from the EFA may needed further modification to achieve a better fit. A possible explanation could be found in the examination of the standardized residuals covariance matrix. Items associated with a residual greater than |2.5| should raise a concern as they suggest a potentially unacceptable degree of error (Hair et al. 2014, p. 621).
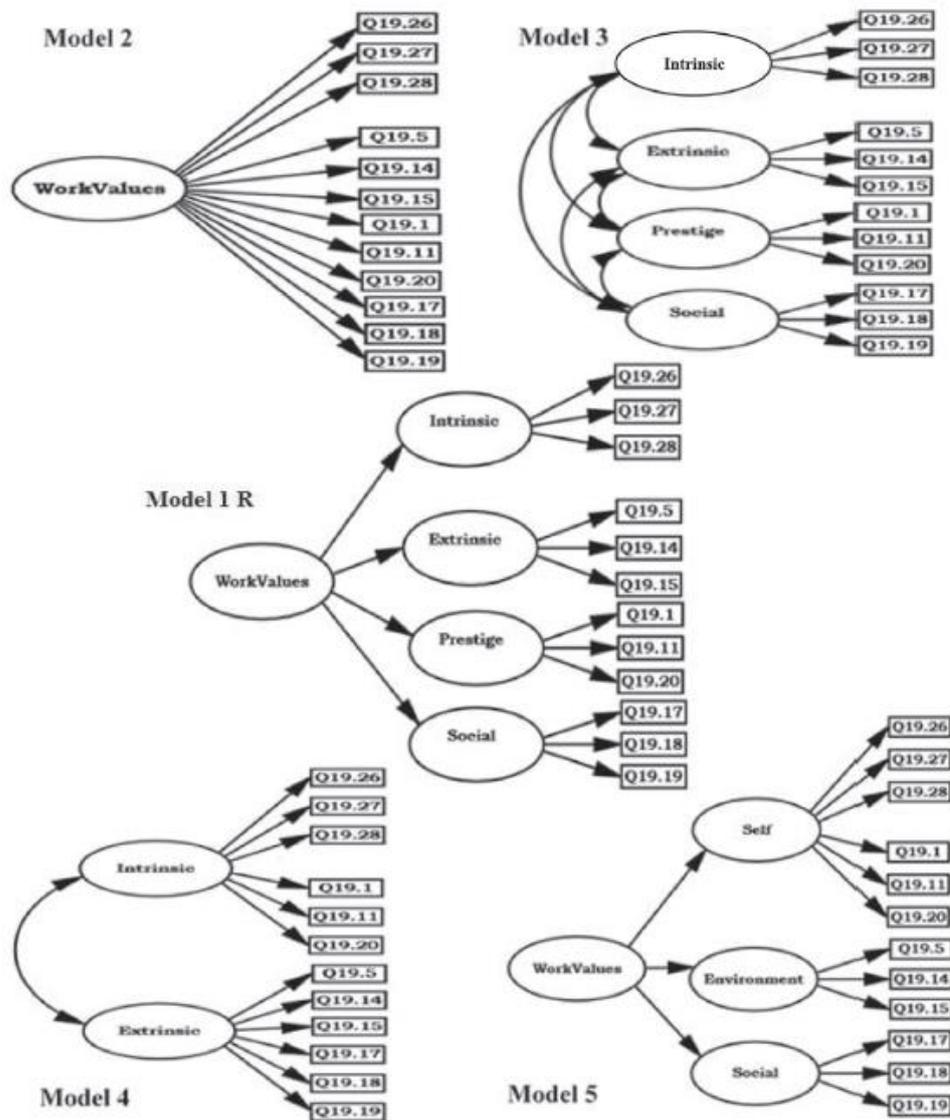
Fig. 2. Competing models of work values.

Table 4
CFA results (Model 1R).

	1	2	3	4	Means	SD	CR	SMC	AVE
1. Social	0.71				2.19	0.64	0.75	0.53	0.50
2. Prestige	0.45	0.69			3.02	0.72	0.75	0.39	0.48
3. Extrinsic	0.52	0.45	0.72		1.97	0.61	0.76	0.51	0.51
4. Intrinsic	0.61	0.53	0.60	0.77	2.15	0.67	0.81	0.70	0.59

Values below the diagonal are implied correlation estimates among factors and values in the diagonal are the square root of the AVE for each factor; SD = Standard deviation; CR = Composite reliability; SMC = Square multiple correlation and AVE = average variance extracted.

Table 5
Model fit comparisons.

	CFI	RMSEA	SRMR	AIC
Model 1R (2nd order – 4 factors)	.941	.069	.054	200.470
Model 2 (One factor)	.714	.148	.917	563.212
Model 3 (1st order – 4 factors)	.940	.071	.054	204.064
Model 4 (intrinsic/extrinsic)	.782	.127	.083	521.465
Model 5 (2nd order – 3 factors)	.814	.121	.125	4037.263

We deleted Q19.29 because of its association with two items (Q19.19 ($|2.7|$) and Q19.14 ($|2.6|$)). No further action was taken in order to retain three indicators variables per construct (i.e., the three indicator rule; Hair et al., 2014; p. 636). As noted by Hair et al. (2014, p. 621) it may be acceptable to retain one or more of these large residuals if no other problems are associated with those two items. In our case, the revised 12-item model, (Model 1R, hereafter) reveals a better fit closer to the

criteria described by Hu and Bentler (1999) and Steiger (2007). In particular, the values of the CFI, SRMR and RMSEA, were improved to 0.941, 0.055 and 0.069, respectively (the 90% confidence interval ranged from 0.056 to 0.083). The value of the chi square was also improved but it remained high and significant ($v2 = 144.470$, df = 50, p = 0.000). However, the values of the chi square vary from situation to situation and depend considerably on the sample size, number of measured variables and the communalities of the factors (Hair et al. 2014; p. 637) and in cases such as ours significant values may be expected (Hair et al., 2014, p. 584).

Construct reliability, as measured by Raykov's coefficient (Raykov, 1997) was also adequate, with values ranging from 0.75 to 0.81 for the first-order factors (Table 4) and 0.82 for the second-order factor. In addition, the standardised loading of one of the items to its designated factor was 0.59, whereas the loadings of the remaining twelve were above 0.60 with half of them above 0.70, providing evidence of construct validity (Hair et al., 2014; 605). The average variance extracted (AVE), calculated by averaging the squared multiple correlations for the first-order indicators (MacKenzie, Podsakoff, & Podsakoff, 2011; A2) in each factor was 0.50 or greater as recommended for adequate convergent validity (Hair et al., 2014; p. 605) with the exception of the prestige factor (.48) (Table 4). This is not viewed as problematic in light of the accomplished discriminant validity, since the square root of the AVE for each factor was above 0.50 and much larger than the correlation (implied) of the specific factor with any of the other factors in the model (Gehen & Straub, 2005; p. 94) (Table 4) and the adequate reliability and factor loadings.

Comparing structurally and theoretically competing models

Wong and Wan (2013) recommend that second-order models be compared against two structurally competing models; the baseline model (Model 2 hereafter, Fig. 2) which assumes that all variables (in this case the 16 work values items) are loaded on a single work value factor and the equivalent first-order four factor model (Model 3 hereafter, Fig. 2). We added the comparison of two other theoretically competing models: the dichotomisation model (Model 4 hereafter, Fig. 2), in which work values are divided into extrinsic and intrinsic aspirations (as per self-determination theory) and the trichotomisation model (Model 5 hereafter, Fig. 2), which assumes that work values is a second-order construct of needs related to self, social and the environment (as per the theory of work adjustment). Accordingly, Model 4 was developed by adding the items of (a) the prestige factor into the intrinsic factor and (b) the social factor into the extrinsic. Similarly, Model 5 was developed by adding the items of the prestige factor into the intrinsic as a means of reflecting the essence of self needs. The social and environment related needs were represented by the social and extrinsic factors, respectively. Table 5 illustrates that Model 1R demonstrated the best fit statistics in all absolute and incremental indices. Furthermore, the Akaike's information criterion, a parsimony fit index was lower for Model 1R (AIC=200.470).

Conclusion

This study provides a reconceptualised work values typology and makes a five-fold contribution to tourism research: First, we have provided an up-to-date review of the literature covering a period from 1979 to 2015. Second, the dominant conceptualisation of work values as expressions of values in tourism work setting has been critiqued and rationalised using a synthesis of paradigms pertaining to established value models and theories. We identified, two previously under-developed features of Schwartz's (1992) universally accepted theory of basic human value, the ordering by relative importance and the transcendental nature of values, and analysed their significance in reconceptualising work values in tourism. The

proposed model has a greater explanatory capability and relevance to the tourism work setting by demonstrating both the presence of a hierarchically organised values system and the relationship between general life values and work values.

Third, we acknowledge that the contribution of a conceptualisation depends not merely on its meaningfulness and theoretical coherence but also on its relevance and applicability – namely whether the concept is valid (Baruch, 2014). Therefore, extending current approaches in reconceptualisation (i.e., Reisinger & Steiner, 2006; Russo & Serge, 2009; Tribe & Liburd, 2016) we provide evidence of conceptual validity by means of CFA using a sample of workers from Japan. More importantly, compared to structurally and theoretically competing models our conceptualisation revealed a better fit.

Work values represent an organizing construct (Lyons et al., 2010), which, unlike more focused constructs, measure a broad psychological phenomenon by examining patterns among a theoretically limitless number of work-related indicators (Pryor, 1979; Shye, Elizur, & Hoffman, 1994). In this way, it is similar to the construct of personality, which is represented by a seemingly infinite number of descriptive individual traits. The goal with such a construct is to identify a set of ''marker'' items that reliably represent broader categories of work aspects (Lyons et al., 2010). The model of work values that we have developed and tested here demonstrates a set of 12 work aspects representing four broader categories of work values relevant to the tourism sector.

The items representing each of the four types of work values are in keeping with conceptualisations in the broader work values literature (e.g., Sagie & Elizur's, 1996; Lyons et al., 2010; Ros et al., 1999). Specifically, the three intrinsic work value items (Q19.26 – fulfilment; Q19.27 – accomplishment; and Q19.27 – escaping routine) all link into aspects of psychological rewards of tourism work and are in keeping with conceptualisations of intrinsic or cognitive work values in the broader literature (e.g., Sagie & Elizur's, 1996). Similarly, the three items representing extrinsic work values (Q19.5 – Salary; Q19.14 – Having an understanding boss; and Q15.14 – Salary increases) are indicative of instrumental aspects of working that address one's comfort and security needs (Ros et al., 1999). The three prestige work value items (Q19.1 – Authority; Q19.11 – High profile job; and Q19.20 – Directing others) all represent elements of the type of power or prestige work values that address one's self-enhancement needs (Ros et al., 1999). Finally, three work value items relate to the social aspect of work (Q19.17 – Coworkers; Q19.17 – Sense of belonging in the company; and Q19.19 – Staying in one company), addressing one's need for affiliation and relationships with colleagues (Sagie & Elizur's, 1996) and a sense of contributing to a greater collective (Ros et al., 1999).

Fourth, Gursoy et al.'s (2013) notion that work values emerge from the projection of general values onto the domain of work, is now theoretically developed using Sagie and Elizur's (1996) model. Furthermore, Chu's (2008) empirically developed second-order relationship between the types of work values has been theoretically supported using the theory of work adjustment (Dawis & Lofquist, 1980) and empirically validated with a revised four-factor typology. This corroborates Pizam and associates' typology of self-expression (intrinsic), work conditions (extrinsic), status (prestige) and altruistic (social). Moreover, they represent work-related analogues to Schwartz's (1992) basic human value types as theoretically articulated by Ros et al. (1999).

Fifth, encouraged by Shaw, Bailey, and Williams (2011) and Bramwell (2015), who stressed the importance of engaging with wider debates in mainstream management

literature, our study may have opened up the sometimes static and possibly stale tourism research praxis (Tribe & Liburd, 2016). Since the introduction of the SWVI in 1970, the conceptualisation of work values remains a subject of debate in mainstream management (Gehman et al., 2013; Leuty & Hansen, 2011; Lyons et al., 2010). Our study engaged with this debate through critique, synthesis, revision and extension of previous work, rather than an implied or taken for granted process.

Our model has practical implications for the recruitment, engagement, and retention of high-potential tourism workers. We now have a four-type scheme that provides common basis upon which new recruits can be assessed and matched for fit with the values of the organization. In particular, this scheme can be used to recruit, select and retain younger workers in tourism to replace the large cohort of Baby Boomers who are currently retiring (Gursoy et al., 2013). Research suggests that the younger generation of tourism workers are significantly more individualistic than were previous generations (Chen & Choi, 2008; Gursoy et al., 2008; Gursoy et al., 2013). Broader generational research suggests that social and prestige work values are aligned with the individualism of the younger generations (Lyons & Kuron, 2014; Parry & Urwin, 2011). With this in mind, our model provides guidance as to how recruiting employers can target the individualistic work aspects that are most likely to resonate with younger workers. By the same token, it shows which work aspects are associated with the less individualistic values of the older generations. By emphasizing different work aspects in the recruitment and management of different generations, organizations can better satisfy the values of multiple cohorts. Our conceptualisation offers scholars and practitioners new ways of thinking about work values within tourism organisations.

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Appendix – Work values assessment (WPS 2008)

Question: How important are the following factors for you in your work? (This question concerns not only your current job but your career in general)

Options: (1) It is very important, (2) It is important, (3) It is somehow important, (4), It is not very important, (5) It is not important, (6) No answer

Q19.1	Having authority
Q19.2	Being able to work under a competent boss
Q19.3	Being able to offer your ideas and suggestions
Q19.4	Being able to have initiative about how to work
Q19.5	Being able to earn a high salary
Q19.6	Being able to contribute making the world a better place
Q19.7	Being able to acquire new knowledge and information
Q19.8	Being able to work in a comfortable environment
Q19.9	Being able to experience different types of work
Q19.10	Being respected by others
Q19.11	Having a high profile job
Q19.12	Being able to refuse to do a job if you are not happy about.
Q19.13	Having the need for aesthetic sense and ability
Q19.14	Being able to work under an understanding boss.
Q19.15	Having the opportunity for salary increases.
Q19.16	Being able to create new products and services.
Q19.17	Being able to form a friendly relationship with colleagues.
Q19.18	Having a sense of belonging to the company.
Q19.19	Having a stable job in one company.
Q19.20	Being able to direct and instruct others.
Q19.21	Having recognition for doing a good job
Q19.22	Being able to face new challenges
Q19.23	Having convenient working hours and location
Q19.24	Being able to work in a large high-profile company
Q19.25	Being able to make people happy
Q19.26	Being able to become the person you want to be
Q19.27	Being able to feel accomplishment in work
Q19.28	Having variety in day-to-day work
Q19.29	Being able to do a job that you want to do
Q19.30	Being useful to society
Q21.1	Having opportunities to work abroad
Q22.2	Being able to develop as a person