The impact of economic crisis on the motivation to work in food service: The case of the municipality of Piran

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Abstract

This study examines factors that help to attract, retain and motivate employees in the hospitality industry. The survey was conducted in the municipality of Piran, the most developed Slovenian municipality and an important tourist centre in the northern Mediterranean. The aim of this study was to determine the key factors that motivate people to work as servers. Respondents were asked to rate the six key factors that motivated them to work in the catering industry. The findings show that in times of economic crisis, money is the most important motivating factor. Other significant motivational factors identified are strongly associated with worker age and type of catering facility. Our findings are consistent with attribution-based motivational theories, which are based on the theory of choice, stating that individuals are primarily motivated by the factor that meets their most important need. Motivational theories whose tenets underpin our research are briefly discussed. Practical considerations for managers of catering businesses, that is, how to selectively engage and motivate different groups of employees in different types of facilities, are discussed in conclusion.

Key words: Food service workers, motivation, recession, municipality of Piran
1 Introduction

As in nations across the world, tourism is an important sector of the Slovenian economy. Tourism accounts for 2.5 per cent of Slovenia’s gross domestic product (GDP) and employs 3.3 per cent of the country’s total working population (SURS, 2011). This study was conducted in the municipality of Piran, which is the most developed municipality in Slovenia and an important tourism centre. Tourism is the major local (municipal) economic activity. Twenty-five per cent of the municipality’s workers are employed in tourism-related businesses (SURS, 2011).

Motivation, attraction and retention of employees represent one of the major challenges in the food service industry. Despite the economic crisis, the industry is plagued by a serious labour shortage and high level of staff turnover. The demand for professionally qualified staff is constantly increasing. According to the Employment Service of Slovenia (ZRSZ), higher-cadre jobs, such as chef, waiter and head of service, remain the most sought after. Jobs in the food service industry involve specific working conditions (e.g. physical effort, split schedules, strict hygiene rules). In addition, food service employees are expected to display certain characteristics, such as emotional stability, resourcefulness, a respectful attitude to employees and property and high ethical values. Food service is also characterised by low wages, which further reduces the interest in these jobs (Šuligoj, 2006; Raspor, 2011). According to SURS (2012), the average monthly gross salary in Slovenia for August 2012 was €1,512.00 (€985.55 net). The average monthly gross earnings in the hospitality industry for August 2012 was €1,101.32 (€750.99 net). According to the trade union for the hospitality and tourism sector of Slovenia (sindikat GIT), total monthly net wages in the sector are under €600,000. People are leaving the underpaid and unappreciated work in the hospitality industry in protest of an increasing amount of work and unpaid overtime (GIT, 2012). Official figures for wages do not include tips and other benefits, as tipping is not a compulsory element of service in Slovenia. According to Raspor (2007), guests on average devote the equivalent of 2.97 per cent of the bill to tipping employees. Although tips serve as an additional source of income, according to Raspor (2009), in Slovenia tips do not represent a tool for increasing employees’ retention. Another key problem is the lack of a mandatory minimum requirement for professional qualification in the food service industry. This gap means that human resources management (HRM) presents a special professional challenge for managers of food service businesses.

The key objective of this study was to identify motivators for work in food service and to determine whether money is the main motivator in times of economic crisis. Its purpose is to provide information that will be useful to food service managers in attracting and motivating employees, especially according to employees’ demographic characteristics.

2 Literature review

Studies investigating the impacts of the recession on the hospitality industry (Roche et al., 2011; International Labor Organization, 2010; Raspor, 2011; Chraif & Anitei, 2011; Alonso-Almeida and Bremser, 2012; Maškarin & Jurdana, 2010) were published only after the financial crisis of 2008 (findings are presented below). Preliminary studies (done prior to the recession) suggested that employee satisfaction and productivity mainly derive from the relationship between job tasks (responsibility) and personal (individual) ambition and self-esteem (McCabe, Nowak & Mullen, 2005). Studies have shown that, especially in the hospitality industry, motivation is strongly connected with a feeling of satisfaction resulting from the quality of work performed (Wildes & Parks, 2005). Milman (2002) stated that the retention of employees in the workplace is primarily associated with personal fulfilment and working conditions, rather than with the financial compensation. Wildes (2008) has highlighted the key factors that influence the motivation of employees in the hospitality industry; money, career development, training (further education), social security, fun and flexible working hours. Upchurch et al. (2010), in their

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1 SURS (Statistical Office of the Republic of Slovenia).
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A study on the loyalty of restaurant employees, noted the difficulty of highlighting just one, primary motivating factor, as the satisfaction and motivation of employees in the restaurant business depend on a complex combination of external and internal factors. Overall, the issue of motivation is very complex, which makes it difficult to highlight just one basic cause, which could be identified as “the main culprit” for the lack of employee motivation.

The complexity of the problem in Slovenia is discussed in a comprehensive research project, whose goal was to put in place a modern model of HRM in the field of tourism, and was carried out under the research project Slovenian Competitiveness 2006–2013. The survey covered 235 people working in tourism in the entire territory of Slovenia. Most respondents (82 per cent) were employed at operational (executive) positions, with managers representing 7 per cent and middle and upper management representing 11 per cent of the total sample, respectively. The proportion of employees working in food service was 22.3 per cent of the total sample. The survey showed that employees are generally satisfied with their work, and no significant differences were found in job satisfaction according to gender or age. The research showed that these employees are the most motivated by praise, cooperation and collegiality. The meaning of cooperativeness and collegiality is also debated by Kukanja- Gabrijelčič (2007, 180), who discusses their impact on the interpersonal and intrapersonal aspects of employees’ professional and personal growth and motivation. The survey showed that money does not work as a direct motivator and that employees often do not receive monetary rewards (Lebe et al., 2009). These findings were also supported by Raspor (2009), in a study of work motivators among employees in the Slovenian hospitality and gaming industries. This study found that permanent employment was by far the most important motivator, followed by good relationships, a safe work environment and a good supervisor. Payment (money) was the least important factor.

General studies dealing with motivation in times of crisis have shown that various crisis situations have a significant impact on peoples’ behavioural patterns and values (Brandl & Traxler, 2011; Lane, 2011; Cradle, 2010, Jones et al., 2009, Mintzberg, 2009; Evans, 2008). In particular, job security and financial rewards have been found to be more important motivators in times of recession (David, 2010; Lawler, 2007; Fitzpatrick, 2009).

Relevant studies for the hospitality industry (Roche et al., 2011; International Labor Organization, 2010; Raspor, 2011; Chraif & Anitei, 2011; Alonso-Almeida and Bremser, 2012; Maškarin & Jurdana, 2010) have stressed the importance of human resources in times of recession. As the financial crisis has led to changes in work practices and a tendency towards staff reduction, examples of best practices show that the best-performing businesses in times of crisis rely on the company’s internal potential efficiencies and human resources (human capital). Especially in the hospitality industry, anti-recession measures should primarily focus on improving employees’ motivation and sales skills (Maškarin & Jurdana, 2010). Chraif & Anitei (2011) noted that crisis had a positive impact in terms of reducing the counterproductive behaviour of employees. In addition, overtime work can lead to reduced work satisfaction, and organisations must support their employees in order to protect them as much as possible from the effects of crisis. Keeping employees regularly and fully informed of the organisation’s position is considered indispensable in maintaining employee commitment and engagement during the adjustment to adverse times (Roche et al., 2011). Although the crisis is global, there are specific effects among different countries. Raspor (2012) pointed out the specific effects of the economic crisis on human resources in the Slovenian hospitality industry. The research has shown a shortage of hospitality and tourism workers in Slovenia, despite the fact that the number of unemployed people registered with the Employment Service has drastically increased during the crisis. Nevertheless, recession not only affects the motivation of employees, but also has a strong influence on the behaviour and motivation of the consumer and of society in general (Laurent, 2011; Flatters & Wilmott, 2009).
3 Motivational theories

Many researchers have studied employee motivation. Uhan (1999) argues that the practice of analysing motivational factors yields the best results when economic motivation is reviewed along with a larger number of external and internal motivational factors. Of many motivational theories, a few in particular are important for our study. Maslow (1954) has stated that people are motivated by the desire to meet needs, which are classified from vital-physiological needs to less urgent needs (self-improvement). Herzberg’s theory of motivation or the “two factor” theory holds that people are influenced by two sets of factors — motivator and hygiene factors. McGregor’s theory or the “x-y theory” is based on two extremes of human behaviour. Porter-Lawler’s motivational model combines content and process theories. Kovach (1995) has developed a scale of 12 external and internal motivational factors. Finally, Glasser’s motivational theory or the “choice theory” states that whatever people do is done to meet their own needs, because motivation is based solely on meeting the needs of the individual, and does not recognize external motivators or a hierarchy of needs (Zadel, 2005).

Five motivational theories unite this research as they apply to the construct of motivation regarding work in food service; equity theory, expectancy theory, attribution theory, relationship theory and the theory of economic motivation.

3.1 Equity theory

The theory of equity or justice (Adams, 1965) is based on fairness in equalizing input and output. Effort or money invested in the work process is balanced against goods or services received. “Input” is everything that an individual invests in the work process; age, experience, skills, knowledge, time, et cetera. If employees find that their ratio of contributions and benefits is unfair and incomparable to that of others who perform similar jobs, they will be dissatisfied and therefore unmotivated to work (Wildes, 2008; Treven, 2001).

3.2 Economic motivation theory

The economic theory of motivation (Taylor, 1911) is based on the assertion that man (as a human being) is an “economic creature” and works in order to earn money and provide material goods. If we analyse this type of motivation, we can see that money is a motivator only as long as it does not become a permanent reward (regular salary). If the reward (earning) is the same every month, it becomes something that has been guaranteed. The influence of money as a motivator also varies significantly for different groups of employees. Money usually works as a motivator for low-paid employees, younger employees and “materialists” (Uhan, 2000).

3.3 Expectancy theory

Vroom’s expectancy theory (Vroom, 1964, cited in Wildes, 2008) assumes that behaviour is a result of conscious choices among alternatives whose purpose is to maximise satisfaction. Employees consciously change their behaviour and motivation to achieve their individual wishes and goals. Employees are motivated if they believe that the effort they make will bring them adequate compensation. The power of motivation is dependant on the extent to which every work effort is expected to be followed by a “fair” outcome (reward, compensation).

3.4 Attribution theory

Attribution theory (Heider, 1958, cited in Wildes, 2008) helps to explain and control potentially unpredictable psychological states of satisfaction, which occur in the workplace and influence the motivation of employees. People act and react according to their principles and expectations, depending on the situation (Schermersborn, 2001; Wildes, 2008). This theory helps to explain the reasons for behavioural patterns and actions of employees: why people choose to stay at work, why they decide to work in a food service facility, why they praise their employer and so on. For example; a creative bartender who is working under
constant supervision is likely to find work in a more “appropriate” facility and in an environment that allows a sense of freedom and creativity.

3.5 Relationship theory

Relationship or the “marketing” theory (Rychlak, 1984; Berry, 1983, cited in Wildes, 2008) is at once an organisational, structural, managerial, strategic and attitudinal theory. The theory is based on the concept of exchange and is often used in marketing strategies. The key challenge is to attract and retain customers, or in this case, employees. This theory is based on mutual exchange and fulfilment of promises between the seller and buyer or employer and employee (Gronroos, 1990, cited in Wildes, 2008). Recent studies show that the majority of motivation is internal and varies from person to person (Wildes, 2008).

4 State-of-the-art approach to the organisation of food service businesses

In practice, motivational theories cannot be addressed independently (separately), because motivation is directly related to the management and organisation of the food service company (its structure, processes, culture) and the environment in which it operates. Unfortunately, there is no universal model of organisation to ensure the profitability of owners’ capital, the motivation of employees and the satisfaction of guests. The success of a company largely depends on understanding the inner organisational processes and the specificity of the environment in which companies operate (Dimovski et al., 2005).

Hospitality and food service companies operate in an unstable and volatile environment that requires organisation based on human resources and individuality, as the possibility of standardised operations is limited. The purpose of the individual approach, both in relation to employees and guests, is to build trust. The relationship based on trust, as a motivational element of the “sensory strategy”, provides a feeling of safety, comfort and familiarity to both employees and guests.

The basis of the emotional organisation does not reside in standards and automation, but rather in the philosophy and values of the organization (Armistead & Kiely, 2004). Bukh et al. (2005) stressed the importance of a partnership relationship based on trust and loyalty. A partnership relationship induces trust, which is the basic motivator.

5 Methodology

The present survey was conducted in the municipality of Piran in May 2012. The research was conducted using direct interviews with service personnel. For the purpose of this study, server is defined as any male or female employee who interfaces with guests. The sample also included servers working in food service facilities, such as bars and coffee shops, as they often offer various types of food (snacks). Parallel to the interviews, a survey (listing) of food service businesses in the municipality of Piran was compiled, as accurate (practically usable) records did not exist.

Based on previous research (Upchurch et al. 2010; University of Maribor, 2009; Wildes, 2008) key motivational factors (attributes) were listed: money, career development, training / further education, social security, fun and flexible working hours. For the purpose of the study, we wished to examine how important these factors are to food service staff in the municipality of Piran. In addition, we wanted to assess whether these factors are affected by other variables – in particular, demographics. In designing the measurement instrument (questionnaire), we created some of the variables as ordinal and used Likert measurement scales with a neutral value. This enabled us to compare mean values between groups, as we wanted to test the influence of some demographic variables on the importance of motivational factors. To compare the mean values between pairs of groups, we initially planned to use a t-test, but because of its assumption of a normal distribution of variables it could not be applied. Instead, we used the nonparametric Mann-Whitney test, which compares the median rather than arithmetic means. In addition to comparing median values, we decided to verify the bivariate relationship between certain
demographic variables and motivational factors and to verify the importance (significance) of motivational factors among themselves. For this purpose we used the Spearman correlation coefficient. The data were processed using Microsoft Excel and SPSS.

5.1 Types of food service businesses

The survey covered 191 different types of food service businesses \((N = 191)\), as shown in Figure 1. The most common type was bars, representing one-third of all businesses \((33 \text{ per cent})\). Next was the restaurant category, which represented one-fifth of the sample \((21 \text{ per cent})\).

The facilities typically have fewer than 100 seats, on average slightly fewer than 70 \((\mu = 69.1)\), but between different types of facilities the number varies considerably \((\sigma = 55.2)\). The average is relatively high, due to several facilities having more than 100 seats \((14 \text{ per cent})\). The majority of facilities have two permanent \(\text{(full-time)}\) employees in service, although the statistical average is relatively higher and indicates an asymmetrical distribution to the right, with a relatively high variability \((\mu = 3.6, \sigma = 2.6)\). In addition to full-time employees, many facilities employ two seasonal workers or students. The average distribution and dispersion of these are similar to that of full-time employees \((\mu = 3.5, \sigma = 3.2)\). We found that food service businesses in the municipality of Piran most commonly employ five servers \(\text{(waiters)}\).

5.2 Profile of respondents

For the purpose of the study, selected servers \(\text{(one per each facility)}\) were interviewed, so the number of respondents is equal to the number of facilities surveyed \((N = 191)\). The structure of the workforce showed approximately the same proportion of full-time employees \((46 \text{ per cent})\) and others \((54 \text{ per cent})\) as mentioned above. The sample was completely balanced by the gender of respondents. The age of participants was expected to be rather low. Most often the respondents were aged between 20 and 25 years \((42 \text{ per cent})\), and there were very few respondents older than 50 years. Distribution by age is skewed to the right. In accordance with the age of respondents, the education level was most frequently secondary \((57 \text{ per cent})\), followed by professional \((22 \text{ per cent})\) and higher \((17 \text{ per cent})\). Only one respondent held a postgraduate degree \(\text{(a master’s degree)}\) and five respondents had not completed elementary school. Of those who indicated a field of study \((17 \text{ per cent})\), only one-third had a professional culinary education. Personal \(\text{(net)}\) monthly incomes of respondents ranged mostly between €500 and €1,000 \((63 \text{ per cent})\), were often less than €500 \((26 \text{ per cent})\) but rarely above €1,000 and in just one case more than €1,500. Respondents had on average more than seven years of experience in service \((\mu = 7.2)\), but the pattern shows that many of them have a significantly longer or shorter length of experience, which is confirmed by the standard deviation \((\sigma = 6.5)\). Only 40 per cent of respondents are prepared to stay in food service in the future, while the remaining 60 per cent would immediately change their careers in the case of a better opportunity.

5.3 Motivational factors for working in food service

The importance of motivational factors for working in food service was measured with a five-stage, ordinal Likert-type scale \(\text{(from 1, very unimportant, to 5, very}

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2 The reason for this may be that employers often pay only a minimum \(\text{(mandatory)}\) part of the salary into the employee’s bank account, while the difference is paid “by hand”. However, in this study we did not examine this and therefore it cannot be stated.
important, with a neutral intermediate level). The im-
portance was in all cases distributed asymmetrically
to the left, which was expected, since all factors are at
the least somewhat important to all workers. Therefore,
we were aware of the differences between the factors
and looked at which of them are more important.
Figure 2 shows different motivational factors with
their arithmetic means, from the least to the most
important. Money is the most important motivator
(μ = 4.5), followed by flexible working hours (μ = 4.2).
The least important motivator is training and further
education (μ = 3.3).

Fig. 2: Motivational factors by importance

High standard deviations and asymmetric distribu-
tions suggested that respondents’ opinions are not
taneously uniform. Therefore, we decided to check for
differences in importance of factors by gender (men
compared to women), age (up to 30 and over 30 years of
age), education level (up to and including high school,
compared with more than high school), personal in-
come (less than €500 compared to €500 or more) and
length of work experience (up to seven years, compared
with seven years or more). Mainly due to abnormal
distributions (more or less asymmetric to the left), we
decided to use the Mann-Whitney test. We compared
the medians between different paired groups of re-
spondents and checked for any statistically significant
differences. The results are shown in Table 1.

We can see that motivational factors showed some
statistically significant differences according to differ-
ent demographic variables (shown in bold in Table 1).
Gender had a significant effect on the importance of
the factors “money” and “fun”: to men “money” and
“fun” were less important than to women. Age had
a significant effect on the importance of the factors
“social security”, “fun” and “flexible working hours”.
To young respondents (up to age 30) “social security
was less important and “fun” and “flexible working
hours” were far more important than to respondents
over 30 years of age. Education level had a significant
effect on the importance of the factors “career develop-
ment”, “training” and “social security”. To less educated
respondents, “career development”, “training” and
perhaps somewhat surprisingly, “social security”, were
far less important than to more educated respondents.
Similarly surprising was the impact of personal income
on the importance of the factor “social security”. To
less wealthy respondents, “social security” was far less
important than to wealthier ones. The factor “work
experience” had a significant effect on the importance
of “career development”, “training”, “social security”
and “fun”. To less experienced respondents, “career

Table 1: Differences in the importance of motivational factors by gender, age, education, income and work experience

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Motivator</th>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Age</th>
<th>Education</th>
<th>Income</th>
<th>Work experience</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>U</td>
<td>Sig.</td>
<td>U</td>
<td>Sig.</td>
<td>U</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Money</td>
<td>3,664</td>
<td>0.014</td>
<td>3,615</td>
<td>0.258</td>
<td>2,376</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Career advancement</td>
<td>4,329</td>
<td>0.709</td>
<td>3,547</td>
<td>0.226</td>
<td>2,198</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Training</td>
<td>4,259</td>
<td>0.573</td>
<td>3,581</td>
<td>0.268</td>
<td>1,740</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Health benefits</td>
<td>4,320</td>
<td>0.782</td>
<td>2,995</td>
<td>0.005</td>
<td>2,019</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fun place to work</td>
<td>3,528</td>
<td>0.018</td>
<td>2,929</td>
<td>0.004</td>
<td>2,489</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Flexible hours</td>
<td>4,090</td>
<td>0.344</td>
<td>2,825</td>
<td>0.001</td>
<td>2,636</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
“development”, “training” and “social security” were less important than to more experienced respondents. Additionally, we were interested in the strength of the links between motivational factors and demographic variables. We expected that certain motivational factors would be primarily associated with age, as well as with the education, experience and income of respondents. To this end, we calculated the Spearman correlation coefficient. Table 2 shows the correlation matrix between the importance of motivational factors and demographic variables.

As the limit of statistical significance, we decided to take into account all risk levels under 10 per cent (indicated in bold in Table 2). The most statistically significant relationship was that between personal income and the “social security” factor. Although it is the strongest relationship found, however, it can also be understood as a weak one. If anything, we can undoubtedly claim that the higher the salary is, the more important a respondent rates “social security” as a motivating factor. It is equally surprising as the earlier detection of differences between groups in terms of “social security”. Other noteworthy links are between the age of respondents and the ascribed importance of “fun” and “flexible working hours” (the older they are, the less important “fun” and “flexible working hours” are), age and “social security” (to older workers, “social security” is more important), work experience and “social security” (to older, “social security” is more important) and “education” and “training” (to older, “social security” is more important). Other statistically significant relationships are very weak and do not merit discussion. Finally, we checked the consistency among the motivational variables with the Spearman correlation coefficient (Table 3).

Table 2: Relationship between the importance of motivational factors and demographic variables

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Motivator</th>
<th>Age</th>
<th>Work experience</th>
<th>Income</th>
<th>Education</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>r</td>
<td>Sig.</td>
<td>r</td>
<td>Sig.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Money</td>
<td>-0.06</td>
<td>0.439</td>
<td>0.02</td>
<td>0.777</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Career advancement</td>
<td>0.08</td>
<td>0.270</td>
<td>0.04</td>
<td>0.587</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Training</td>
<td>0.05</td>
<td>0.501</td>
<td>0.04</td>
<td>0.546</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Health benefits</td>
<td>0.21</td>
<td>0.004</td>
<td>0.22</td>
<td>0.002</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fun place to work</td>
<td>-0.27</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td>-0.15</td>
<td>0.038</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Flexible hours</td>
<td>-0.18</td>
<td>0.016</td>
<td>-0.12</td>
<td>0.095</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3: Spearman correlation matrix between the importance of motivational factors

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Motivator</th>
<th>Career advancement</th>
<th>Training</th>
<th>Health benefits</th>
<th>Fun</th>
<th>Flexible hours</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Money</td>
<td>r</td>
<td>0.22</td>
<td>0.06</td>
<td>0.19</td>
<td>0.22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sig.</td>
<td>0.003</td>
<td>0.392</td>
<td>0.010</td>
<td>0.002</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Career advancement</td>
<td>r</td>
<td>0.57</td>
<td>0.34</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td>0.002</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sig.</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td>0.003</td>
<td>0.495</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Training</td>
<td>r</td>
<td>0.46</td>
<td>0.26</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td>0.832</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sig.</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td>0.832</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Health benefits</td>
<td>r</td>
<td>0.13</td>
<td>0.09</td>
<td>0.077</td>
<td>0.200</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fun</td>
<td>r</td>
<td>0.39</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Here, some slightly more powerful connections can be seen, although still only moderate or weak. Among the strongest correlations we found are those between “training” and “career development” (the more important “training” is to a respondent, the more important “career development” is), “social security” and “training” (the more important “social security” is to a respondent, the more important “training” is), “flexibility of working hours” and “fun” (the more important “flexible hours” are to a respondent, the more important “fun” is) and “social security” and “career development” (the more important “social security” is to a respondent, the more important “career development” is).

6 Discussion

Research results show that in times of economic crisis money is the most important factor motivating people to work in food service in the municipality of Piran, followed by flexible working hours and social security. Previous research (Raspor, 2009; Lebe et al., 2009) showed that money was not an important motivator. The training factor at this time is very low ranked, which is in some ways understandable – although this finding reflects the low ambitions of employees, which in turn contributes to the low evaluation of the food service profession in society. In general, we can conclude that in times of recession money is the best motivator. In our more detailed analysis, we found some significant differences in motivational factors between different demographic groups. The motivational factor of money was far more important to women than to men. Younger employees were mostly motivated by fun and flexible working hours, while older employees highly valued social security. To more educated and experienced employees, career development and training were more important than to less educated, less experienced employees.

Furthermore, the correlation between different variables was shown to be rather weak, as was the comparison between different groups. Again, it was surprising that the more affluent respondents are, the more important social security is ranked as a motivational factor. Quite expected was the negative correlation between age and “fun”, as well as between age and flexible working hours. Young people are understandably more interested in “fun” and having flexible working hours. Additionally, the relationship between these two factors is confirmed by a positive correlation between the importance of flexible working hours and having fun. It is also important to note the positive correlation between the factors “training” and “career development”. The importance of training can, therefore, be associated with the importance of a successful career, as employees’ pursuit of higher education is driven by a desire for personal progress and professional assertion.

We can conclude that by adjusting their activities to strengthen the effectiveness of motivational factors in attracting and retaining certain demographic groups, employers can achieve greater motivation among employees. For example, the motivation of younger employees requires a different approach from the motivation of older employees. Similarly, a targeted approach to motivation is needed according to gender, education and other characteristics. Demographic and other individual priorities and characteristics are the key factors in understanding the motivation of different groups of employees. Based on the results of our study, we can confirm the general opinion that food service employment is dominated by young people who consider themselves to be temporarily employed while waiting for better job opportunities. It is also important to note that motivational factors do not have the same effects in different environments, under different conditions and at different times, as demonstrated in other studies, previously mentioned in the text.

7 Conclusion and managerial implications

Work in the food service industry certainly presents a job opportunity in times of crisis. And although many employees may have planned a different career, a certain proportion of employees find this job to be a permanent one. Research has shown that in times of economic crisis money is the most important motivating factor for all groups of employees. This finding
is consistent with the theory of choice, that stresses the importance of an “incentive-based” approach: individuals are primarily motivated by factors that address the needs that are most important to them. We recommend that employers selectively and intensively promote the benefits of employment in the food service industry to different groups of employees. In collaboration with various stakeholders that address the employability of the workforce (e.g. the economic ministry, employment offices, school system), employers should pursue a selective and targeted strategy of actively promoting the food service professions. The motivation of different groups of employees must be encouraged using different motivational factors. Because the importance of different motivational factors varies across different contexts, it is recommended to carry out similar research in different environments, with different groups (profiles) of employees, and to ensure the research is periodically repeated.

Vpliv gospodarske krize na motivacijo za delo v strežbi: primer občine Piran

Povzetek


Ključne besede: gostinstvo, strežba, motivacija, recesija, občina Piran
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