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## **Impact of Students' Satisfaction with their Internship Experience on their Career Decision Intention to Stay in the Chinese Hospitality Industry: Moderating Role of Organizational Climate and Organizational Culture**

Lan Lu  
llu004@fiu.edu

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FLORIDA INTERNATIONAL UNIVERSITY

Miami, Florida

IMPACT OF STUDENTS' SATISFACTION WITH THEIR INTERNSHIP  
EXPERIENCE ON THEIR CAREER DECISION INTENTION TO STAY IN THE  
CHINESE HOSPITALITY INDUSTRY: MODERATING ROLE OF  
ORGANIZATIONAL CLIMATE AND ORGANIZATIONAL CULTURE

A dissertation submitted in partial fulfillment of the

requirements for the degree of

DOCTOR OF EDUCATION

in

ADULT EDUCATION

AND

HUMAN RESOURCE DEVELOPMENT

by

Lan Lu

2022

To: Dean Michael Heithaus  
College of Arts, Sciences and Education

This dissertation, written by Lan Lu, and entitled Impact of Students' Satisfaction with Their Internship Experience on Their Career Decision Intention to Stay in the Chinese Hospitality Industry: Moderating Role of Organizational Climate and Organizational Culture, having been approved in respect to style and intellectual content, is referred to you for judgment.

We have read this dissertation and recommend that it be approved.

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Emily Anderson

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Haiying Long

---

Jinlin Zhao

---

Rebekah Schulze

---

Thomas Reio, Major Professor

Date of Defense: March 28, 2022

The dissertation of Lan Lu is approved.

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Dean Michael Heithaus  
College of Arts, Sciences and Education

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Andrés G. Gil  
Vice President for Research and Economic Development  
and Dean of the University Graduate School

Florida International University, 2022

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## DEDICATION

I dedicate this dissertation to the two people who have dedicated their all to me: My parents. As a first-generation college graduate, this doctoral degree is for my parents and me, thus I personally hereby acknowledge them as honorary Dr. Shiwei Lu and honorary Dr. Shumei Chen for all their hard work, support, motivation, and unconditional love from birth to this very moment in my life. It is their labor that created the foundation for my success. Thank you!

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ABSTRACT OF THE DISSERTATION

IMPACT OF STUDENTS' SATISFACTION WITH THEIR INTERNSHIP  
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ORGANIZATIONAL CLIMATE AND ORGANIZATIONAL CULTURE

by

Lan Lu

Florida International University, 2022

Miami, Florida

Professor Thomas Reio, Major Professor

This nonexperimental, quantitative study ( $N = 318$ ) examined the hypothesized model of the relationship between Chinese interns' level of satisfaction, perceptions of organizational climate, perceptions of organizational culture, and career decision intention to stay in the hospitality industry when they graduate. An internet-based self-report battery of four scales was administered to students with an internship experience from the Marriott Tianjin China Program, a branch of the School of Hospitality & Tourism Management at Florida International University (FIU). Hypotheses were tested through correlational analyses and hierarchical regression analytic procedures.

The results show that the variables interns' satisfaction, perceived

organizational climate, perceived organizational culture were all significantly and positively associated with career decision intention to stay. Furthermore, the results confirmed that the relationship between interns' level of satisfaction and their career decision intention to stay was moderated by organizational climate and organizational culture.

The findings of this study confirm the applicability of concepts behind Herzberg's (1959) two-factor theory, Parsons' (1909) theory of career decision, organizational climate, and organizational culture in a Chinese cultural context. Implications for theory, research, and HRD practice are highlighted as possible strategic leverage points for developing a better organizational climate and organizational culture that increase interns' level of satisfaction as a means for improving their career decision intention to stay in the hospitality industry when they graduate.



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## CHAPTER I

### INTRODUCTION

The chapter begins with the background to the problem, followed by the problem statement, the study's purpose, and the conceptual framework. Next, the significance of the study, definition of terms, assumptions, delimitations, and organization of the study are discussed.

#### Background of the Problem

Internships, which are considered distinct from other forms of experiential learning, have been described as a limited period or short term of work experience offered by an organization for students to receive training, develop competencies and gain relevant skills in a particular field or career area (Gabris & Mitchell, 1989; Zopiatis, 2007; Ross & Sheehan, 2013). The first college-endorsed internship program in the United States was developed by the University of Cincinnati's Cooperative Education Program in 1906. The purpose of an internship for students is to link between what is learned in school and what is practiced in the workplace (Ciofalo, 1988); in essence, it provides students with a suitable opportunity to experience real-world expectations embedded within virtual working environments (Hoyle & Deschaine, 2016).

In general academic disciplines, student expectations of getting benefits from participating in the internship program are manifested in several ways, including: personal growth (Levine et al., 2006), improved self-confidence (Esterl et al., 2006),

enriched work-related competencies (Hayes & Ninemeier, 2009), greater connections with industry networks (Garavan & Murphy, 2001) and sharpened requisite skills and attitudes associated with efficient performance within a specific field (Jogan, 2019). However, different disciplines may offer alternative types of experiential learnings and desire diverse internship program outcomes. Little research has explored internships simultaneously in multiple disciplines (Hoyle & Deschaine, 2016; O'Connor & Bodicoat, 2017). Most of the studies focused on a single discipline or collection of similar disciplines. In particular, internships in the hospitality industry, a people-intensive industry, has been the most commonly studied (Ayres, 2006; Jack et al., 2017; Lee & Chao, 2013).

Internship in the hospitality industry as an experiential learning method was introduced by Ellsworth Milton Statler (1863–1928), a founder of the American hotel industry, who proposed that a "hands-on" learning experience is necessary for students to fully experience the demands of hospitality management in the virtual working environments (Damonte & Vaden, 1987). Nowadays, the internship program is required as part of the curriculum and tends to be a requirement for almost all hospitality majors in colleges worldwide (Cho, 2006). Some hospitality colleges provide overseas internship programs (Toncar & Cudmore, 2000), and highly motivated students try several different placements during their college life (Busby & Gibson, 2010). Internship becomes a crucial part of bridging the substantial gap between knowledge and practical reality due to most of the service provisions in the



hospitality industry are characterized by high employee-customer contact (Pacheco Lopez, 2019). Capable, educated, and well-trained students are needed to succeed in the competitive hospitality market (Purcell, 1993).

Over the last decades, more and more students choose hospitality as their academic major (Padureana & Maggi, 2011). However, scholars around the world indicate that many hospitality students have low intention to stay or develop careers in the hospitality industry when they graduated (Busby, 2003; Daskin, 2016; Koc et al., 2014). Although the process of the process is characterized by instability and the factors influencing their career decision tend to be complex (Baruch, 2004), most hospitality students cited the gap between their real working experience and expectation of their internship experience as the major reason as to why they intended to leave the profession (Richardson, 2008).

Too often, internship students become more confused about their career plans than before joining the internship (Odio et al., 2014). Students generally hold inflated expectations of working in the hospitality industry (Dickerson, 2009), so much so that they have difficulty adapting to an internship, which in essence is an introduction to the rigors of a realistic workplace (Downey & DeVeau, 1988). Some unmet expectations during an internship may result in intern's dissatisfaction, such as low pay with long hours of working (Chen & Shen, 2012), inadequate supervision and unchallenged (Dickerson, 2009), no overtime compensation (Srivastava, 2007), unstructured and poorly organized program (Jenkins, 2001) and lack of fulfillment

(Lam & Ching, 2007). Accumulating dissatisfaction or less satisfaction became the main reason undergirding students' career decisions to leave the hospitality industry for more satisfying job opportunities (Chen & Shen, 2012; Koc et al., 2014).

The scope of this research is focused on the Chinese hospitality industry, which has gone through fundamental changes in the past 75 years (Qin et al., 2019). After the Chinese Civil War, leisure and tourism activities started over in 1949, which is the year of the birth of the People's Republic of China (Zhang et al., 2005). Aligned with China's reform and the implementation of the Open-Door Policy in late 1978, the hospitality industry has enjoyed phenomenal growth and prosperity (Li & Li, 2013). China's Open-door Policy has supported joint efforts by the Chinese government and China's private enterprise to seek development in foreign hotel investments, management skills, experience, and strategic management from all over the world (Cheung & Kong, 2009; Dogru, 2016).

The National Bureau of Statistics in China and the United Nations World Travel Organization indicated that China is ambitious to be one of the world's largest hotel markets by 2025, when China is expected to possess 6.1 million hotel rooms (Yang, 2011). Moreover, the hotel industry is expected to directly contribute USD 136 billion to China's GDP by the end of the year 2023, with an estimated arrival of nearly 130 million annual tourists' arrival (Markets, 2019). The increase in tourism consumption has driven the rapid development of hospitality higher education and has led to a general overall increase in the demand for hotel employees in China (Li & Li,

2013). Although there are approximately 1.78 million job positions offered by the Chinese hotel industry, the turnover rate (43.4%) is the highest industry-wide, followed by the Internet industry (36%) (Aon, 2016). High turnover is also a notable problem in the hotel industry worldwide (Faldetta et al., 2013); for example, the U.S. hotel industry turnover rate (72.9%) is considerably higher than in 2016 China (Washington Hospitality Association, 2017).

Although hospitality education is an effort to develop pools of graduates every year to meet the high demand from the expanding hospitality industry in China (Lam & Xiao, 2000), the disequilibrium of demand and sufficient supply becomes a growing problem (Qiao-hong, 2004). Increasing numbers of hospitality management graduates from high-ranking universities are available, but few graduates are willing to stay and remain committed to their jobs in the hospitality industry (Song & Wang, 2008). Their negative internship experience has been associated with the second largest cause of their low intention to work in the hospitality industry after the poor pay (Yan, 2018). A Chinese report shows that 58% of interns have indicated that they will not continue working in the hospitality industry, and 23% of interns have indicated that they have no idea about their career decision (Yan, 2018).

Despite that the primary evidence suggesting a negative working experience might enhance the dissatisfactions and reluctance of interns' career decision intentions to stay in the hospitality industry (Lee & Chao, 2013; Qian et al., 2017), no research had focused on moderating the relationship between interns' level of

satisfaction and their career decision intention to stay. For the purposes of this study, the researcher identified the level of interns' satisfaction that influences their career decision intention to stay as an antecedent variable, which is defined as a specified condition or factor that can influence or foretell a practically engaging behavior (Saks, 2006).

Additionally, considering the factors that may moderate the relationship between interns' satisfaction and their intention to stay is valuable. Salary and benefits were found to be the most significant positive factors to reduce dissatisfaction (Lewis et al., 2001). In addition, working conditions and environment also play essential roles in motivating employees to stay or leave the hospitality industry (Chen & Shen, 2012). In brief, the approach to moderating interns' satisfaction does not take place independently. It relies upon organizational variables, such as teamwork, leadership condition, management effectiveness, working environments, and involvement. All of these ingredients make up organizational climate and organizational culture (Boeyens, 1985; Mahal, 2009).

The organizational climate is viewed as the aggregate perceptions of the characteristics in the organizations. It is defined as "the shared meanings organizational members attached to events, policies, and practices, and procedures they experience and the behaviors they see being rewarded, supported, and expected" (Ehrhart et al., 2015, p.2). Previous researchers demonstrated the effect of

organizational climate on employee job satisfaction (Thakre & Shroff, 2016) and turnover intentions (Subramanian & Shin, 2013).

Organizational culture is defined as “a pattern of shared basic assumptions learned by a group as it solves its problems of external adaptation and internal integration, which has worked well enough to be considered valid and, therefore, to be taught to new members as the correct way to perceive, think, and feel in relation to those problems” (Schein, 1990, p. 18). Previous researchers illustrated the relationship between organizational culture and job satisfaction (Tepeci, 2005).

Therefore, based on these presented arguments, the author selected organizational climate and organizational culture as promising moderator variables to investigate their moderation level between interns’ level of satisfaction and their career decision intention to stay. Statistical moderation means that in the presence of said moderator variable (in this study, organizational climate of organizational culture and career decision intention to stay), the relationship between two variables may be strengthened or dampened (Cohen & Cohen, 1983). Thus, it may be that the presence of each respective moderator variable may strengthen or dampen the relationship between interns’ satisfaction and career decision intention to stay in the hospitality industry. Prior organizational research has demonstrated that positive organizational climates (Hsieh, 2015) and cultures (Bhattacharya & Neelam, 2018) are positively linked to the career decision intention to stay; on the other hand, negative climates and cultures are negatively linked to career decision intentions to stay (Bhattacharya & Neelam, 2018; Hsieh, 2015). Further, climate and culture have not been examined

as moderators of the satisfaction-intention to stay relationship, nor has this notion been tested in Chinese hospitality workplaces.

### Problem Statement

Internships in the hospitality industry are the most significant practical link for students to feel and evaluate whether this career is compatible with their interests and personality (Zopiatis, 2007). It is an opportunity for students to apply knowledge of theories to practical problems in the real workplace setting. However, most students chose to leave the hospitality industry after the internship (Lee & Chao, 2013).

Researchers indicated that students' willingness to join the hospitality industry after graduation was mostly dependent on their internship experience (Chathoth et al., 2011; Chuang & Jenkins, 2010). Internship experience satisfaction affects their commitment to work (Pathak, 2012) and can impede students' career decision intentions to stay in the hospitality industry if the student is dissatisfied with their internship experience (Siu et al., 2012).

The research identifying the influence of organizational climate (Hsieh, 2015) and organizational culture (Bhattacharya & Neelam, 2018) on interns' level of satisfaction are clear and sufficient; yet research about does organizational climate or organizational culture moderate the relationship between interns' satisfaction and willingness to stay in the hospitality industry is remarkably undeveloped. The moderation effect refers to the impact of interns' level of satisfaction on their career decision intention to stay may differ with different levels of perceptions on

organizational climate or organizational culture. This knowledge gap has created a void of information to guide further research on moderating the relationship between interns' level of satisfaction and their career decision and to provide an ideal organizational climate or organizational culture towards hiring a new employee and retaining graduates or competent employees in Chinese hospitality industry.

#### Purpose Statement

The primary aim of this study is to examine the relationship among students' level of satisfaction, organizational climate, organizational culture, and their career decision intention to stay in the Chinese hospitality industry. A second aim is to examine the extent to which the internship satisfaction-career decision intention to stay relationship is moderated both by organizational climate and organizational culture.

#### Research Questions and Hypotheses

Three overarching research questions guided this study: (a) What are the relationships between organizational climate, the organizational culture of the internship workplace, and students' career decision intention to stay when they graduate in the Chinese hospitality industry? (b) What is the relation between Chinese students' level of satisfaction with the internship experience and career decision intention to stay when they graduate? And (c) Does the internship workplace's organizational climate or organizational culture moderate the relationship between students' dissatisfaction and career decision intention to stay in the Chinese

hospitality industry when they graduate? Consequently, the researcher hypothesizes the following:

H1: There is a relationship between students' perception of the organizational climate of the internship workplace and their career decision intention to stay in the Chinese hospitality industry.

H2: There is a relationship between students' perception of the organizational culture of the internship workplace and their career decision intention to stay in the Chinese hospitality industry.

H3: There is a relationship between students' level of satisfaction with the internship experience and their career decision intention to stay in the Chinese hospitality industry.

H4: The relationship between students' level of satisfaction with their internship experience and their career decision intention to stay in the Chinese hospitality industry will be moderated by organizational climate.

H5: The relationship between students' level of satisfaction with their internship experience and their career decision intention to stay in the Chinese hospitality industry will be moderated by organizational culture.

### Conceptual Framework

Herzberg's Two-Factor Theory (Herzberg et al., 1959) was selected to support understanding of the relationships between students' dissatisfaction (or level of satisfaction) and their career decision intention to stay and for use as the theoretical



foundation for evaluating factors that are likely to influence interns' level of satisfaction during an internship program. The theory states that certain independent factors in the workplace are linked to job satisfaction (e.g., Alshmemri et al., 2017), while others are linked to dissatisfaction (e.g., Stello, 2011). In effect, high levels of dissatisfaction are another way of stating the individual's satisfaction level is low (D'Abate, Stoudt, & Wenzel, 2009). Herzberg's Two-Factor Theory has been associated with factors influencing employee's attitudes towards work in many studies, such as investigating hotel workers' motivation and job satisfaction in Brazil (Sledge et al., 2008), testing seasonal workers' motivation in hospitality and tourism in Sweden (Lundberg et al., 2009), research on job satisfaction and organizational commitment of hotel managers in Turkey (Gunlu et al., 2010) and hospitality employee turnover from Western Georgia (Holston-Okae & Mushi, 2018). As it has been tested in numerous settings among various groups of people around the world, and cross-culturally, Herzberg's theory is appropriate therefore for undergirding the current study.

### Research Variables

The following section discusses the four variables that will be explored in this study. First, the intern's level of satisfaction will be discussed, then career decision intention to stay, and finally two moderator variables, organizational climate, and organizational culture.

## Intern's Level of Satisfaction

Intern's level of satisfaction with internship programs, as an antecedent variable, can have an immense impact on individual career decision intention to stay after completing an internship program (Chuang & Jenkins, 2010). In Herzberg's (1959) Two-Factor Theory, hygiene factors were selected to enhance understanding of the intern's dissatisfaction or level of satisfaction and the relationship between the overall interns' dissatisfaction/level of satisfaction and their career decision intent to stay in this study (Herzberg et al., 1959). The following is a brief summary of the hygiene factors, which include working conditions, interpersonal relations, policies and administration, supervision quality, and salary.

Working conditions involve the physical conditions at work, the amount of work, temperature, safety, or the facilities for doing the work, and whether there are adequate or inadequate facilities. Interpersonal relations, in contrast, have been shown to be related to job-related interactions, social discussions, and relationships between workers and superiors in the work environment or during break times. Next, policies and administration describe organization and management policies and guidelines, including two kinds of overall company policy and administration characteristics. One involves the adequacy or inadequacy of the organization and management; the other involves the detrimental or beneficial effects of the organization's policies, primarily personnel policies. Supervision quality is associated with the competence or incompetence, fairness, or unfairness of the supervisor or supervision, including the

supervisor's willingness to delegate, teaching responsibility, fairness, and job knowledge. Last, salary referred to all forms of compensation at the intern's workplace, including unfulfilled expectations of boosting or reducing wages. Thus, all these factors are linked to level of satisfaction or dissatisfaction (Herzberg et al., 1959).

### Career Decision

Career decision is defined as “a process that describes or explains the choices that a person makes when selecting a particular career” (Ghuangpeng, 2011, p. 20). Although the term “career decision” accepted terminology in 1979, the concept of career decision was established by Frank Parsons in 1909 (Patton & McMahon, 1999). Parsons’ theory of career decision has remained extremely influential than other theories of career decision-making. It has provided a solid foundation for academic researchers theorizing on the relationship between employee and work environments or the nature of the job (Sharf, 2016). In this research, career decision is discussed as career decision intention to stay in the Chinese hospitality industry after a student internship. The intention, the strongest predictor of actual behavior (Ajzen, 1991) is being studied instead of actual decisions to stay (i.e., “Yes” or “No”) due to the lack of access to such data.

Parsons suggested that career decision should be based on three broad factors: “(1) a clear understanding of yourself, your aptitudes, abilities, interests, ambition, resources, limitations and knowledge of their causes; (2) knowledge of the

requirements, conditions of success, advantages and disadvantages, compensation, opportunities, and prospects in different lines of work; (3) true reasoning on the relations of these two groups of facts” (Parsons, 1909, p. 5). As a simple guideline, these three factors provided employees a better understanding of themselves when deciding on their career or career alternatives on how to use all information for their rational career decision-making (Jones, 1994). Based on Parsons’ theory, students’ career decision intention to stay after internship program completion links interns’ dissatisfaction with their career decision intention to stay and supports investigating the moderating effect of organizational climate and organizational culture on the relationship between interns’ level of satisfaction and their career decision intention to stay.

### Organizational Climate

Organizational climate has long been associated with employees’ intention to stay (Vong et al., 2018). It is defined as “a relatively enduring characteristic that embodied members’ collective perceptions of factors such as autonomy, trust, cohesiveness, support, recognition, innovation, and fairness” (Moran & Volkwein, 1992, p. 20). It was conceived as being produced by workgroup cooperation, job standards, member interaction, job variety, challenge and autonomy, conflict and ambiguity, and leader support (Davidson et al., 2001). The most common method to measure organizational climate has been to record the perceptions of individual employees on a range of aspects of the work environment, for example, the

Psychological Climate Questionnaire, which was created by Jones and James (1979) to examine organizational climate for a wide range of industries.

A previous study has identified that there is a significant positive correlation between organizational climate and intent to stay (Vong et al., 2018). Employees prefer to work in a pleasant environment and have rewarding experiences (Ehrhart et al., 2015). Many researchers found that employees paid more attention to that if an organization provides opportunities to grow, employs competent and knowledgeable co-workers, and allows employees to be involved in their career decision (Arnett et al., 2002). An organization that can be trusted and openly communicates within the organization will be highly accepted by employees as a healthy work climate.

#### Organizational Culture

Organizational culture has long been associated with employees' job performance and their intention to stay. It is defined as “the pattern of basic assumptions that a given group has invented, discovered, or developed in learning to cope with its problems of external adaptation and internal integration, and that has worked well enough to be considered valid, and therefore, to be taught to new members as the correct way to perceive, think, and feel concerning other problems” (Schein, 1983, p. 3). Tepeci (2005) defined organizational culture as an important factor in employee job satisfaction and intent to stay by adapting the Hospitality Industry Culture Profile, which was based on the Organizational Culture Profile (O’Reilly et al., 1991).

Denison (1996) suggested that organizational culture is used to investigate the evolution of social systems of the organization over time and the importance of deep underlying assumptions, whereas organizational climate is used to investigate the impact of organization on groups and individuals. Organizational culture is the combination of values, beliefs, operating behaviors, assumptions that lead an organization to run its business and conducting principles in supervisors-employees and employee-customer shared by individuals within an organization (Schneider & Reichers, 1983); whereas, the organizational climate has the function of behavior guidance on individuals within an organization (Liang, 2011). It can be simply read as the organizational climate is the superficial symbolic meaning of organizational culture.

Thus, if the internship program could be offered in a positive organizational climate and organizational culture, students may be willing to choose to stay in the hospitality industry as their future career. Furthermore, this hypothesized conceptual framework (See Figure 1) suggested that organizational climate and organizational culture, as moderator variables, would moderate the relationship between interns' level of satisfaction and their career decision intention to stay.

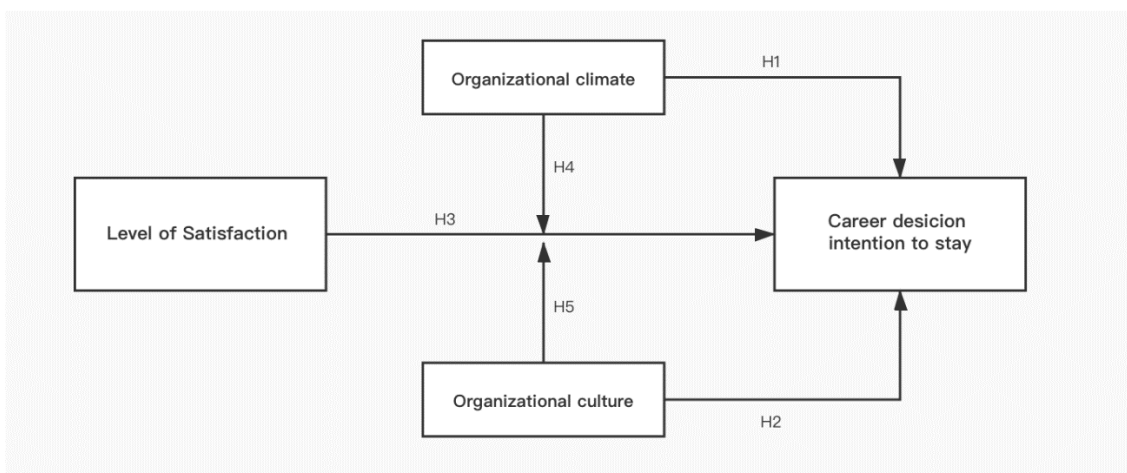


Figure 1: Hypothesized Student's Career Decision Intention to Stay Model

explores the relationships among student level of satisfaction, organizational climate, organizational culture, and intern's dissatisfaction.

#### Significance of the Study

The current study makes contributions both academically and professionally in the hospitality management field. First, the study seeks to enrich what we already know about Herzberg's Two-Factor Theory. This theory has been widely accepted, tested, and applied to investigate factors that are linked to job satisfaction/dissatisfaction in most English-speaking countries. The adoption of Herzberg's Two-Factor Theory in the Chinese hospitality industry, especially investigating students' level of satisfaction during the internship, has not been tested. The results of the present study may enhance our understandings of Herzberg's Two-Factor Theory in the Chinese hospitality internship context.

Moreover, organizational climate and organizational culture in different workplace settings have gained considerable research interest in various industries

and countries (Bellou & Andronikidis, 2009; O'Neill & Xiao, 2010), but adapting these two concepts into an internship program to explore students' perceptions in the Chinese hospitality industry remains in need of more empirical research. There is a considerable research gap in terms of organizational climate and organizational culture in the internship program from the students' perspectives. This research not only examines the link between students' level of satisfaction during the internship and their career decision intention to stay in the Chinese hospitality industry, but also investigates organizational climate and organizational culture as moderators of the relationship between interns' level of satisfaction and their career decision to stay when they graduate. A new conceptual model of students' career decision intention to stay model was created and will be tested in the Chinese hospitality industry. By conducting this research in China with this unique combination of variables, the findings could suggest that future research would benefit by involving dimensions of organizational climate and organizational culture.

Regarding the practical implications, two stakeholders have to be discussed. For the hosting company, this study could help managers not only to understand better students' internship experience and their low intention to stay in the hospitality industry, but also to reduce the cost of training through reforming organizational climate and organizational culture for retaining graduates, competent employees, or hiring new employees. For college educators, the new information generated by this research could use to cultivate students' comprehensive understanding of the reality of



working in the hospitality industry. By reducing students' unrealistic expectations of practical work, educators could help students be prepared mentally and physically for the internship program. Indeed, it is an appropriate way to help students embrace the real workplace and reduce higher levels of not being satisfied. As an added benefit, knowledge from this study could be used to inform other fields of an internship program that are challenged with similar problems.

### Definitions of Terms

Several items have special meaning when investigated the relationship between interns' level satisfaction and their career decision in this study. To avoid possible misinterpretation, the operational definitions of the terms used in this study are defined as follows.

*Career.* This term is defined as “a sequence of related work experiences and job activities that constitute a person’s lifetime, partly under their control and partly under that of others” (Stringer & Kerpelman, 2010, p.183).

*Career decision.* This term refers to graduates' process in choosing his or her career action to deal with a problem or evaluate a career option, organizational environment, or the occupation itself (Mimbs et al., 1998).

*Experiential learning.* This term is defined as “a sense-making process involving significant experiences that act as the source of learning. These experiences actively immerse and reflectively engage the inner world of the learner, as a whole

being with their intricate of the learning environment to create memorable, rich and effective experiences for learning” (Beard & Wilson, 2018, p.121).

*Hygiene Factors.* This term is defined as “factors that are associated with negative job attitudes which meet the needs of the individual employee for avoiding unpleasant work situations” (Herzberg et al., 1959, p.102).

*Interns’ dissatisfaction.* This term is defined as “the status of an individual's morale and job attitude at any particular time resulting mainly from the environmental conditions or other affective factors surrounding the job” (May, 1978, p. 6). Low levels of dissatisfaction for the purpose of this study means higher levels of satisfaction.

*Internship.* In this study, it is defined as “a learning experience, paid or unpaid, within an approved hospitality agency/organization/corporation, under the direct supervision of at least one practicing hospitality professional and one faculty, for which a hospitality student can earn academic credit” (Zopiatis, 2007, p. 65).

#### Assumptions and Limitations of the Study

There were several assumptions and delimitations in this study.

##### *Assumptions*

The study’s assumptions included: (a) every student will be willing to participate in the internship program at the beginning; (b) students naturally seek positive experiences at an internship program; students who have positive experiences become more engaged with their work; (c) internship programs can be developed, and (d) an internship is a personal experience.

## Delimitations

Although it would have been ideal to test the career decision intention to stay model in a number of settings outside China where internships are employed, the scope of this study focuses only on student internships in China.

## Organization of the Study

This chapter included the background to the problem, problem statement, purpose statement, and theoretical framework. The significance of the study, definitions of terms, assumptions, and limitations were also discussed. Chapter 2 provides a review of the literature that supported the study. Chapter 3 describes the research method used to conduct the study. Chapter 4 presents the findings of the study, and Chapter 5 concludes with a discussion of the results and implications for theory, research, and practice.

## CHAPTER II

### LITERATURE REVIEW

This chapter begins with an introduction to hospitality industry internship programs examined from students', educators', and employers' perspectives. Second, the review of previous research on interns' level of satisfaction in the hospitality industry is followed by third, a literature review of the theory on measuring interns' level of satisfaction. Fourth, relevant works of literature around each variable examined in this study are explored. The chapter concludes with a hypothesized model, a brief summary, and an overview of the next chapters.

To be clear, internship programs have been shown to be beneficial to student learning and eventual employment in many occupations (e.g., K-12 teachers), the focus of this research is on hospitality internships. The researcher focuses on such internships because of (a) the rapid growth in the industry, especially China, (b) the disconnect between hospitality internships and career decision intention to stay in the industry, and (c) the large research gap in what we know about the relationship between student level of satisfaction with internships, organizational climate and culture, and career decision intention to stay.

#### Internship Programs in the Hospitality Industry

Internships in the hospitality industry are seen not only as one of the most effective methods of experiential learning, but also as a necessary bridge to closing the distance between the knowledge of theories and practice in real workplaces (Hoyle & Deschaine, 2016; Pacheco Lopez, 2019; Zopiatis, 2007). Because individuals learn by a combination of hearing, seeing, and reading (Reich & DeFranco, 1994) in real workplace

settings, internships enhance student learning (Walo, 2001) and provide more meaningful learning outcomes. Examples of such outcomes include greater: management competence (Walo, 2001), time management (Knouse et al., 2000), communication skills and self-discipline (Huang et al., 2016). A well-structured internship is defined as a three-way partnership between the hospitality student, the educational institution, and the hosting organization (Yiu & Law, 2012). The benefits of internships in the hospitality industry are discussed from the perspectives of these three stakeholders.

#### The hospitality student's perspective

The internship program is defined as a required curriculum or a standard of graduation in almost all hospitality majors throughout the world (Cho, 2006). Beyond the contribution of the internship to bridging knowledge and practical reality for hospitality students, internship participation offers a wide variety of additional benefits. Researchers have indicated that hospitality internship students benefit from the following:

- Observe and understand the real working environment in a better way (Zopiatis & Constanti, 2007).
- Expand acquisition of disciplinary knowledge, such as the development of autonomy, communication skills with a variety of different people, specific technical skills and knowledge related to the industry, and enhancing students' level of management competence (Busby & Gibson, 2010; Chen & Gursoy, 2008; Cook et al., 2004; Walo, 2001).
- Develop students' shared sense of working through dealing with different customers or observing experienced colleagues in a workplace setting (Gerber, 2001).

- Offer a definitive future career decision and an opportunity to develop interpersonal, teamwork, and leadership skills (Aksu & Köksal, 2005).
- Exposure of students to ethical issues and global dimensions and enhanced professional growth opportunities (Busby & Gibson, 2010).
- Become more tolerant and patient when managing prickly tasks or works and increase self-confidence through the handling of responsible duties (Chen et al., 2011).

Thus, participation in internship programs has been shown to provide many learning-related benefits, professional and personal. It is not hard to see why the large majority of collegiate hospitality programs have been designed to include the internship experience.

#### The hospitality educator's perspective

Many studies suggested that not only students, but hospitality educators benefit from the internship as well. Internship program outcomes (e.g., student success in landing jobs in the industry) can give hospitality educators and the academic institutions where they are housed a more comprehensive understanding and external assessment of the existing curriculum. The data gathered from the external assessment, in particular, can be used to update industry-related knowledge required to develop the competencies demanded by the pressing needs and development of an ever-changing industry (Stansbie et al., 2016). Researchers indicate that hospitality educators can benefit from the following:

- Assist academic institutions to confirm student's graduation time (Yiu & Law, 2012).

- Facilitate students' career opportunities and achieve career success after graduation (Robinson et al., 2016).
- Gain credibility in the hospitality industry by producing students with strong performance (Cook et al., 2004).
- Strengthen links between the university and the hospitality industry, such as enhanced collaborative research opportunities, raised the university's profile and helped to establish long-term working relationships to optimize future graduate employment opportunities (Walo, 2001).
- Have more opportunities on college advisory boards, training seminars, mentoring programs, student field trips, job fairs, and industrial visits (Zopiatis, 2007).

Consequently, the benefits of the internship to hospitality educators are also numerous. It seems obvious that strengthening contact and cooperation with the hospitality industry through the internship could assist educators in keeping up with hospitality trends and enrich course development for students.

#### The hospitality employer's perspective

Although researchers have made it is clear that student internships are beneficial to students and educators, especially in the hospitality field, the employer or hosting hospitality industry can also benefit from the following:

- Provide access to a recruitment pool of workers who are usually enthusiastic and dedicated to the hospitality industry (Ju et al., 1998).
- Reduce labor costs, which are considered highly significant in the hospitality industry, a labor-intensive industry (Schwarz & Kalberg, 2003).

- Develop potential common projects and research opportunities through establishing contact and strengthen links with local collegiate hospitality programs (Thiel & Hartley, 1997; Yiu & Law, 2012).
- New, fresh ideas for business, processes improvement.
- More directly and easily assesses work ethic, attitude, and technical competence during the internship than a 1-hour interview of the student (Yiu & Law, 2012).
- Direct involvement in training future managers (Petrillose & Montgomery, 1997).
- Provide low-cost assistance with routine work and duties (Coco, 2000).
- Replenish labor shortages during peak seasons (Cook et al., 2004).
- Examine the student's performance and ability to handle unexpected situations (Cook et al., 2004).
- Easily transformed for different departments (Dixon et al., 2005).
- Maintain long-term relationships with collegiate hospitality programs to ensure the incorporation of industry requirements into the curriculum (Doniņa, 2015).

Internships are thus viewed by the employer or hosting hospitality industry as a great opportunity to obtain a valuable source of labor, one that is especially readily available, easily transformed, and specifically trained interns.

#### Interns' Level of Satisfaction in the Hospitality Industry

Studies on hospitality students' feelings and perceptions during internship programs have been widely explored (Ko, 2007; Lee, 2008; Tse, 2010). Research has demonstrated that the discrepancy between student's expectations and perceptions of internship experiences mostly resulted in lower levels of satisfaction (Raybould &



Wilkins, 2005; Cho, 2006; Luo & Lam, 2019). Low student satisfaction has been linked to less student interest in hospitality as a career (Jenkins, 2001). Decreasing interns' dissatisfaction is vital because it can lead to increased productivity, and decreased training costs and intern turnover rates (Dixon et al., 2005). The following table presents a summary of the factors leading to interns' lower satisfaction in the hospitality industry.

Table 1

*Summary of the Factors Influencing Interns' Lower Levels of Satisfaction in the Hospitality Industry*

| Article Citation  | Major Contribution  | Research Type/ Sample   |
|---|---|---|
| Lundberg, C., Gudmundson, A., & Andersson, T. D. (2009). Herzberg's Two-Factor Theory of work motivation tested empirically on seasonal workers in hospitality and tourism. <i>Tourism Management, 30</i> (6), 890-899. | 1.Organizational: working conditions.<br>2.Social: friendship, dealing with others. | Questionnaires with 613 seasonally employed individuals in the hospitality industry and six in-depth interviews |
| Chen, C. T., Hu, J. L., Wang, C. C., & Chen, C. F.  | 1. Sensory experiences<br>2. Physical experience                                    | Empirical research: 543 effective surveys were  |

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|---|--|--|
| (2011). A study of the effects of internship experiences on college students' behavioral intentions majoring in leisure management in Taiwan. <i>Journal of Hospitality Leisure Sport &amp; Tourism Education</i> , 10(2), 61-73. | 3. Affective experience<br>4. Creative cognitive experience<br>5. Relational experiences | collected from college students who had completed the internship program in Taiwan |
|---|--|--|

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#### Academic Approach Can Form Interns' Level of Satisfaction

Two widely cited theoretical frameworks are used in many studies to examine employee dissatisfaction or level of satisfaction in the hospitality industry: (a) Mobley's (1977) model and (b) Herzberg's (1959) Two-Factor Theory. Although Herzberg's Two-Factor Theory explained more on the factors that lead to employee's dissatisfaction/level of satisfaction than Mobley's model, which suggested seven consecutive stages between employee's dissatisfaction/satisfaction level and actual turnover, these two approaches are practical to test employee's dissatisfaction/satisfaction level and are unanimous in conclusion: high dissatisfaction or lower satisfaction affects employee career decisions, which includes the intention to stay.

Mobley's (1977) model was used to explore the emotional condition of dissatisfaction or satisfaction from a series of cognitive phases during the existing job

process to investigate employees quitting or leaving the decision process. Mobley identified four types of variables influencing employees' turnover intentions including, individual variables, organizational variables, external environment, and attitudinal variables. In 1978, Mobley tested the model again with a sample of hospital employees and found useful results to enhance the model (see Figure 2), including seven consecutive stages from job dissatisfaction to intention to quit (Mobley et al., 1978). The results indicated that dissatisfaction from their current job promoted an employee to start thinking about turnover, evaluating the advantages/disadvantages when searching for another job, and taking into consideration the cost of this quit. However, the cost of quitting was defined as a crucial consideration due to the higher cost of turnover could make employees rethink the idea of leaving their current job (Muchinsky, 1993). When the employee started searching for an alternative job, they would evaluate the alternative job's acceptability and compare the alternative job with the current job. In the end, this intention will lead them to take action on leaving.

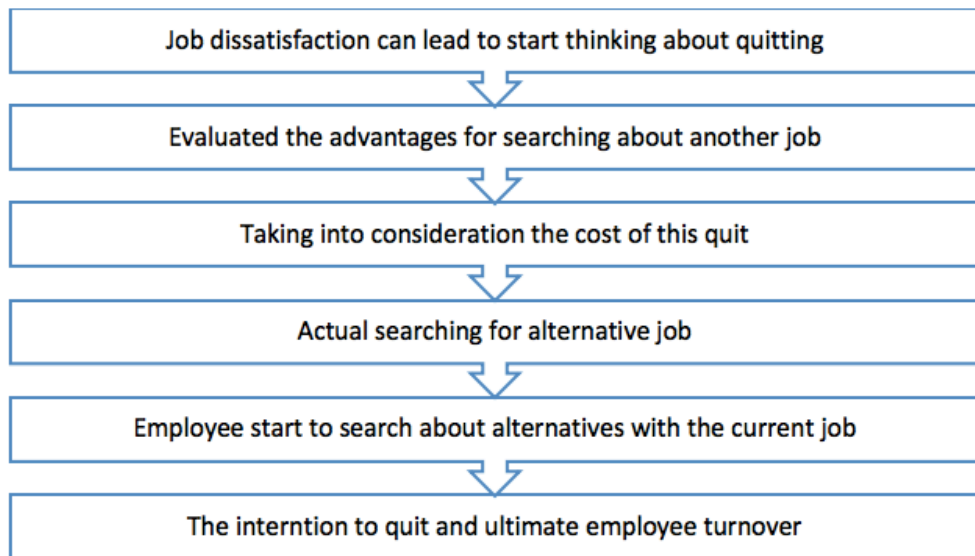


Figure 2. *Mobley's Model (1977) of Job Turnover Process*

Based on Mobley's (1978) revised model, Milkovich and Boudreau (1997) suggested that increasing wages, creating an intensive rewards scheme, and offering a good communication system effectively satisfy employees and reduces turnover rates. Inadequate supervision was asserted to be another powerful factor leading to dissatisfaction (Salmon et al., 1999). A theoretical overview of Mobley's model proposed by AlBattat et al. (2013) explained that Mobley's model could be used to determine either job dissatisfaction leading to job turnover *or* job satisfaction leading to job retention. As an example of where Mobley's model was tested in the hospitality industry, Rehman and Mubashar (2017) used Mobley's model to help clarify that the age of the participant, job experience of the participant in the current field, job stress, resilience, and hope were significant predictors of job dissatisfaction in the hospitality industry leading intention to quit.

The other theoretical framework mostly used to determine employee dissatisfaction or level of satisfaction in the hospitality industry is Herzberg's Two-Factor Theory (1959), which separated employees' needs into two sets; that is, motivators and hygiene factors (AlBattat et al., 2014; Best & Thurston, 2004; Timmreck, 2001). These two sets of un-interrelated factors are resulting from different causes. Motivators are intrinsic to the job, which results in job satisfaction and have no influence on dissatisfaction when present in the work situation. Hygiene factors do not directly result in job satisfaction, but inadequate hygiene factors may cause dissatisfaction (Herzberg, 2003). Herzberg explained that the opposite of dissatisfaction is no dissatisfaction instead of job satisfaction (Herzberg, 2003). However, this view has been criticized in that no dissatisfaction may not merely mean there is no dissatisfaction; it may mean too that the

level of satisfaction may be higher when taking into account individual differences in needs and values because they help explain work motivation (Parson & Broadbride, 2006). In other words, extending Herzberg's theory, high dissatisfaction can be thought of also operationally as lower levels of satisfaction and vice versa. The following table is the summary of Herzberg's Two-Factor theory.

Table 2

*Herzberg's Two-Factor Theory*

| Herzberg's Two-Factor Theory (1959) |                          |
|-------------------------------------|--------------------------|
| Dissatisfaction                     | Satisfaction             |
| Influenced by hygiene factors       | Influenced by motivators |
| Working conditions                  | Achievement              |
| Co-worker relations                 | Recognition              |
| Policies and rules                  | Responsibility           |
| Supervisor quality                  | Work itself              |
| Wage, salary                        | Advancement              |
|                                     | Personal growth          |

Different from the motivators which directly influence an employee's motivation and satisfaction, hygiene factors are the variables correlated with the level of dissatisfaction when unsatisfied (Alshmemri et al., 2017). Poulston (2009) demonstrated that there is a strong link between the employees' perceptions and hygiene factors, as well as indicated that unless the hygiene factors are satisfied, motivators will not affect employees' satisfaction. For example, unmet pay and working conditions can nullify the

motivating effects of recognition and personal growth (Herzberg, 2003). In addition, a logical connection between hygiene factors and employee turnover was evidenced by DiPietro and Condly (2007).

Research with 243 hospitality and tourism seasonal workers, undergirded by Herzberg's (1959) Two-Factor Theory, investigated the influence of hygiene factors on employee's dissatisfaction in the workplace (Lundberg et al., 2009). Three hygiene factors were measured in the study, including wage, rewards, and interpersonal relations. All three had significant *t*-values. The research revealed a significant difference between the resident employee and migrant employee on one of the hygiene factors – wage, which was of greater importance to the resident community members than those of the migrant community.

Using a sample of 178 frontline personnel from an upscale hotel in a metropolitan city in a southern U.S. region, Lee et al. (2015) investigated the relationship between the extrinsic needs, health and safety needs, economic and family needs, and employee dissatisfaction based on Herzberg's (1959) Two-Factor Theory. By estimating the scores of impact-asymmetry (IA), which quantifies the extent to which an attribute has a dissatisfaction-generating potential (DGP), the results showed categorized factors as follows: frustrators (high level of dissatisfiers) ( $IA \leq -0.7$ ), dissatisfiers ( $-0.7 \leq IA \leq -0.2$ ), hybrids ( $-0.2 \leq IA \leq 0.2$ ). Consistent with previous research that presented no significant differences between the gender and educational background on perceiving unfairness on their pay (Skalpe, 2007), the results indicated that "fair pay" had the highest impact on employee dissatisfaction; thus, a frustrator. In addition, "time for family life," "physically safe workspace," and "time for social life" had a moderate impact on employee

dissatisfaction as dissatisfiers in the economic need dimension of work-life quality. The significance of dissatisfiers and frustrators should be highly regarded because the absence of these factors could reduce employee dissatisfaction.

A logical connection between Herzberg's (1959) hygiene factors and employee turnover in hospitality was provided by Poulston (2009) using a questionnaire with 1848 respondents, including staff, supervisors, and managers in 27 hospitality workplaces in Auckland, New Zealand, and a set of four open-ended questions. The results indicated that exceeded expectations of diversified unfair practices on management and workplaces were the primary dissatisfaction factors. Working conditions and relationships with supervisors highlighted in Herzberg's (1959) Two-Factor Theory can be linked to extreme dissatisfaction. The researcher demonstrated that hospitality employees are likely to be subjected to working conditions against motivating factors such as limited personal growth and recognition.

### Organizational Climate

The concept of organizational climate first emerged from Lewin's (1951) field theory, which suggested that an individual's behavior resulted as an interplay between the characteristics of the person and the organizational climate. In a recent study, the organizational climate was defined as “the shared meanings organizational members attached to events, policies, and practices, and procedures they experience and the behaviors they see being rewarded, supported, and expected” (Ehrhart et al., 2013, p. 2). Decades of studies have measured organizational climate across a broad range of industries to indicate that the organizational climate directly or indirectly affects organizational performance, employee behavior, motivation and more (Shanker et al.,

2017; Patterson et al., 2004; Waheed et al., 2019). The influence of organizational climate can be simply classified into two levels; that is, business level and employee level.

At the business level, the organizational climate has been linked with customer satisfaction (Davidson, 2003; Rogg et al., 2001); company productivity (Patterson et al., 2004); workplace/production safety (Jiang & Probst, 2015) and financial performance (Davidson et al., 2001). At the employee level, it was found to affect creativity/innovation (Ibegbulam et al., 2017); employee productivity (Kamp & Brooks, 1991); job satisfaction (Thakre & Shroff, 2016); job/organizational commitment (Hassan & Rohrbaugh, 2012; Noordin et al., 2010); service quality (Bellou & Andronikidis, 2009; Davidson, 2003) and turnover intentions (Jyoti, 2013; Subramanian & Shin, 2013). However, few empirical studies have examined organizational climate focused on the hotel industry, which is the largest employment sector in the tourism industry (Olsen, 1996).

Vallen (1993), using a sample of 288 members of the alumni association of the College of Hotel Administration in the University of Nevada at Las Vegas, explored the relationship between organizational climate and the burnout of service staff in hotels through the profile of organizational characteristics (POC). The POC was developed and validated by Likert (1967) with six categories, including leadership, communication, interaction and influence, decision making, goal setting, and control. Results indicated that high emotional exhaustion ( $r = -.395$ ) and high burnout ( $r = -.293$ ) correlate with low POC scores, which refers to the autocratic organization. What is more, high personal



accomplishment correlated with high POC scores, which refers to the participative organization ( $r = .417$ ).

Davidson and Manning (2004) have used a sample of 1,401 employees from 14 hotels. The results indicated that each of seven organizational climate dimensions was significantly correlated with employee perceptions of customer satisfaction with food and beverage, including leader facilitation and support ( $r = .433$ ); professional and organizational esprit ( $r = .477$ ); conflict and ambiguity ( $r = .455$ ); regulations, organization and pressure ( $r = -.278$ ); job variety, challenge and autonomy ( $r = .329$ ); workgroup cooperation, friendliness and warmth ( $r = .346$ ); and job standards ( $r = .284$ ). In the same year, Manning et al. (2004) used a sample of 409 employees from a single tourism organization to identify that there is a significant negative relationship between organizational climate and employee turnover intentions ( $r = -.46$ ), and there is a significant positive relationship between organizational climate and employee perception of customer satisfaction ( $r = .39$ ).

In a recent study, Zientara and Zamojska (2018) employed a sample of 249 employees working at four- and five-star hotels located in different parts of Poland to examine the significant direct effects of green organizational climate on organizational citizenship behavior for the environment in the hotel industry ( $t = 18.09$ ). The researchers also discovered that green organizational climate has significant moderating effects on the relationship between affective organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behavior for the environment in the hotel industry ( $r^2 = .454$ ).

### Measuring Organizational Climate in the Hospitality Industry

Because the concept of organizational climate was experimentally investigated to determine if it could be manipulated by varying the theoretically relevant behaviors of

people in groups (Lewin et al., 1939), various instruments have been developed with a range of dimensions to measure organizational climate. Research in different industries supports the notion that organizational climate is multidimensional (Armstrong, 2006). Although many studies indicate the impact and importance of organizational climate on organizational outcomes, there is a wide divergence of dimensions across all industries (Field & Abelson, 1982; Schneider, 1975). For instance, Campbell et al. (1970) categorized four organizational climate dimensions, including autonomy, structure, reward orientation, and consideration, warmth, and support. DeCotiis and Koys (1980) categorized 54 separately labeled dimensions into eight dimensions of organizational climate, including autonomy, trust, cohesiveness, pressure, support, recognition, fairness, and innovation. These dimensions of organizational climate were critically developed for the representative samples and applied industries.

Aiming to produce sufficient items to incorporate all possible dimensions in organizational climate, Jones and James (1979) developed the Psychological Climate Questionnaire (PCQ), which included 35 possible concepts relating to organizational climate by conducting an extensive review of the literature. These comprised four concepts related to work-group characteristics, eight concepts related to leadership characteristics, 11 concepts related to job and role characteristics, and 12 concepts related to subsystem and organizational-level characteristics. Generating between 2 to 7 items in each concept, the researchers produced a 145-item questionnaire to collect data from 4315 Navy personnel, 398 firemen, and 504 private health care employees.

Principal components analysis (PCA) extracted six components/dimensions across the three samples: (1) conflict and ambiguity; (2) job challenge, importance, and

variety; (3) leader facilitation and support; (4) workgroup cooperation, friendliness, and warmth; (5) professional and organizational esprit; and (6) job standards. These six dimensions were considered adequate, with the reliability estimates ranged from .44 to .81. Except for the "job standards," the other five dimensions appeared similar across the three samples. Ryder and Southey (1990) described that major dimension of the PCQ are stable and may provide a comparative framework for studying organizational climates. They produced a modified version of the PCQ with a consistent 7-point scale across all items due to the original version did not employ a consistent response method with both continuous scales and Likert-type formats. The PCA identified ten dimensions from the responses of 147 employees of a public building construction and maintenance authority in Australia.

Davidson et al. (2001) used an instrument that was based on PCQ to measure organizational climate within the tourism and hospitality industry. Modifications included all suggestions by Ryder and Southey (1990) and advice provided by an expert panel comprising six tourism and hospitality senior executives. A shortened version of the instrument, named Tourism and Hospitality Organizational Climate Scale (THOCS), comprising 70 items (2 items from each of the 35 concepts), was directly consulted with Professor James of the University of Tennessee, who is one of the originators of the PCQ. The survey was administered to 1,401 employees from 14 four- to five-star hotels and provided a high reliability coefficient ( $\alpha = .959$ ). PCA identified seven dimensions shown in the following Table 3. In 2004, Manning et al. developed a revised 35-item version of the THOCS, labeled the THOCS-R. The advantages of this shorter scale are apparent in both the time length of responding and the costs associated with the printing, distribution,

and data analysis. It was examined as a useful tool to measure organizational climate in the hospitality industry. Table 3 shows a brief summary of studies that used the above approaches to measuring organizational climate in the hospitality industry.

| Table 3   |   |   |   |
|---|---|---|---|
| <i>A Brief Summary of Studies Used the Above Approaches to Measuring Organizational Climate in the Hospitality Industry</i>   |   |   |   |
| Article Citation  | Climate Dimensions  | Sample  | Major Contribution  |
| Davidson, M. C. G. (2000). <i>Organizational climate and its influence upon performance: A study of Australian hotels in South East Queensland.</i> Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Griffith University, Brisbane. | Seven dimensions of Tourism and Hospitality Organizational Climate Scale (THOCS)<br>1. Leader facilitation and support<br>2. Professional and organizational esprit<br>3. Conflict and ambiguity<br>4. Regulations, organization, and pressure<br>5. Job variety, challenge, and autonomy | 14 hotels in South-East Queensland,<br>1778 respondents | 1. Applied PCQ with a large sample size<br>2. PCA identified seven dimensions of organizational climate for the tourism and hospitality industry, which were consistent with the PCQ<br>3. The seven dimensions of organizational climate explained 30% of the variation in employee perception of customer satisfaction<br>4. Organizational climate explained 23% of the variation<br>5. Organizational climate would |

|  |   |  |   |
|--|---|--|---|
|  | 6. Workgroup co-operation, friendliness and warmth<br>7. Job standards                    |  | produce an effect on hotel financial performance  |
| Davidson, M., Manning, M., Timo, N., & Ryder, P. (2001). The dimensions of organizational climate in four- and five-star Australian hotels. <i>Journal of Hospitality &amp; Tourism Research</i> , 25(4), 444-461. | Seven dimensions of THOCS   | 1,401 employees from 14 four and five-star hotels in Australia | 1. Confirmed each of seven dimensions to vary significantly across the 14 hotels ( $p < .05$ ).<br>2. The 70-item survey instrument displayed a high degree of reliability (Cronbach's alpha = .959).<br>3. The seven dimensions extracted account for 48% of the variance in organizational climate. |
| Manning, M. L., Davidson, M. C., & Manning, R. L. (2004). Toward a shortened measure of organizational   | Four dimensions of Tourism and Hospitality Organizational Climate Scale-Revised (THOCS-R) | 409 employees of a single, large tourism organization          | 1. Represent a shortened version of THOCS<br>2. The full-scale reliability of the THOCS-R displayed a high degree of  |

|  |  |   |  |
|--|--|---|--|
| <p>climate in tourism and hospitality. <i>Journal of Hospitality &amp; Tourism Research</i>, 28(4), 444-462.</p>   | <ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Leader facilitation and support</li> <li>2. Professional and organizational esprit</li> <li>3. Conflict and ambiguity</li> <li>4. Workgroup co-operation, friendliness and warmth</li> </ol> |   | <p>reliability (<math>\alpha = .93</math>)</p> <p>3. Explained a significant proportion (23.81%) in the variation of employee turnover intentions</p>  |
| <p>Bellou, V., &amp; Andronikidis, A. I. (2009). Examining organizational climate in Greek hotels from a service quality perspective. <i>International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management</i>.</p> | <p>17 dimensions of OCM: autonomy, integration, involvement, supervisory support, training, welfare, formalization, tradition, innovation and flexibility, outward focus, reflexivity, clarity of organizational</p>                   | <p>217 usable responses in 24 Greek hotels located in the Thessaly region</p> | <ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. There were no significant differences among all 40 first, second-, and third-class hotels examined.</li> <li>2. Efficiency, reflexivity, innovation and flexibility, supervisory support, and quality were among the most prominent characteristics affected by</li> </ol> |

|  |  |   |   |
|--|--|---|---|
| <p><i>Vol. 21 No. 3, pp. 294-307</i></p>   | <p>goals, efficiency, effort, performance feedback, the pressure to produce, and quality</p> |   | <p>organizational climate.</p> <p>3. The only differences revealed between managerial and non-managerial employees were in involvement and efficiency.</p>                                    |
| <p>O'Neill, J. W., &amp; Xiao, Q. (2010). Effects of organizational/occupational characteristics and personality traits on hotel manager emotional exhaustion. <i>International Journal of Hospitality Management</i>, 29(4), 652-658.</p> | <p>Three dimensions of OCM: the effort, quality, and pressure to produce</p>                 | <p>544 hotel managers from 36 hotels located throughout the United States</p> | <p>1. Pressure to produce explained 49.1% of the variation in manager emotional exhaustion.</p> <p>2. There was no correlation between emotional exhaustion and other climate dimensions.</p> |



## Organizational Culture

There is still no clear consensus concerning the definition of organizational culture, even though it has emerged as one of the dominant themes in many studies for the past 20 years (Lund, 2003; Ravasi & Schultz, 2006; Zheng et al., 2010). The preeminent organizational psychologist Edgar Schein (1996) indicated, “A culture is a set of basic tacit assumptions about how the world is and ought to be that a group of people share and that determines their perceptions, thoughts, feelings, and to some degree, their overt behavior” (p. 3). The commonality of all definitions is that organizational culture consists of values, beliefs, principles, and assumptions. Principles are underpinned by an organization’s management structure (Adkins & Caldwell, 2004). Assumptions are shared among members to guide and facilitate behavior (Alvesson, 2012; Schein, 2010).

Scholars have investigated the many relationships between organizational culture and other variables, such as employee’s behavior (Wilson & Bates, 2005), organizational performance (Kemp & Dwyer, 2001), organizational effectiveness (Lund, 2003), empowerment among employees (Sparrowe, 1994), manager's efficacy and organizational commitment (Øgaard et al., 2005). However, the impact of organizational culture in various industries can be considerably different, especially true for the hospitality industry, one of the largest industries with inherent human involvement (Tepeci & Bartlett, 2002; Yavas & Konyar, 2003).

Relations between dimensions of national culture and organizational culture in the hospitality industry have been found in the previous research using a sample of 236 hotel employees and managers from London, UK. (Nazarian et al., 2017). Based on Hofstede's original four dimensions, which is the best-known construct for researching national

culture, the results indicated that individualism ( $r = 0.127$ ), uncertainty avoidance ( $r = 0.353$ ), and masculinity/femininity ( $r = 0.179$ ) suggest positive associations with balanced organizational culture, while power distance ( $r = - 0.038$ ) is negatively related with balanced organizational culture. The regression path analysis shows that balanced organizational culture has a relationship to the power distance but no relationship to masculinity.

In addition, using a sample of 252 participants from 17 five-star hotels in the Aegean region of Turkey selected from the Hotel and Motel Guide of Turkey, Ozturk et al. (2014) investigated the relationship between employees' turnover intention and four types of organizational culture. Based on Cameron et al. (1991) study, four types of organizational culture are clan organizational culture, adhocracy organizational culture, hierarchy organizational culture, and market organizational culture. Clan organizational culture refers to the internal maintenance and organic process toward developing commitment and morale. Adhocracy organizational culture refers to external positioning and organic process toward innovation, growth and new resources. Hierarchy organizational culture refers to internal maintenance and mechanistic processes toward stability and smooth operations. Market organizational culture refers to external positioning and mechanistic processes toward competitive advantage and market superiority. The authors revealed that employees' career decision was negatively influenced by three kinds of organizational culture, which are clan organizational culture ( $r = -0.223$ ), adhocracy organizational culture ( $r = -0.172$ ) and market organizational culture ( $r = -0.131$ ). Although several organizational cultural measurement scales have been developed in different industries (such as manufacturing, insurance, service,

banking, and government agencies), little attention to scale development has been given to the hospitality industry (Tepeci & Bartlett, 2002). The following section introduced several instruments developed and used to measure the organizational culture in the hospitality industry.

#### Measuring Organizational Culture in Hospitality Industry

Two main approaches to organizational culture measurement in the hospitality industry have been used in previous studies. The first approach is to modify previously developed organizational culture scales used in general or other industries to test the same dimensions in the hospitality industry. For instance, Sparrowe (1994) examined the relationship between organizational culture, job satisfaction, and employee empowerment among 182 employees in 33 hospitality industries by using the Organizational Culture Inventory (OCI; Cooke & Lafferty, 1987), which has been used by thousands of organizations throughout the world (Cooke & Szumal, 2000). OCI is a quantitative instrument that categorizes culture into three types, including constructive culture, passive-defensive culture, and aggressive-defensive culture.

In addition, using a sample of 346 chain hotel managers in the UK, Rahimi and Gunlu (2016) adapted from Denison Organizational Culture Survey (DOCS; Denison & Mishra, 1995) to investigate that four organizational culture factors in the hotel industry, which are mission ( $r = 0.717$ ), involvement ( $r = 0.551$ ), consistency ( $r = 0.595$ ) and adaptability ( $r = 0.553$ ), have significant positive impacts on employees' working of customer relationship management. The original DOCS was created to measure the

organizational culture from five major industries (manufacturing, business services, between organizational culture and effectiveness.

The second approach is the development of organizational culture-specific scales in the hospitality industry. Based on the Organizational Culture Profile (OCP; O'Reilly III, et al., 1991), Tepeci and Bartlett (2002) developed the Hospitality Industry Culture Profile (HICP) to assess organizational culture in the hospitality industry. With a sample of 182 junior and senior hospitality management students currently employed in a hospitality job, participants answered the survey based on their most recent hospitality employment. Table 4 presents an eight-dimension structure of employee perceived organization culture through principal components analysis and six dimensions explored as the employee's preferred organizational culture. These dimensions were similar to the previously identified literature results and supported the organizational culture that is unique to the hospitality industry.

Table 4

*Factor Analysis Scores for the Perceived and Preferred Organizational Culture*

*Dimensions*

| Perceived organizational culture dimensions |             | Preferred organizational culture dimensions |             |
|---|-------------|---|-------------|
| Factors                                     | Scale alpha | Factors                                     | Scale alpha |
| Team/people-orientation                     | 0.8793      | Ideal work setting                          | 0.9237      |
| innovation                                  | 0.8569      | Valuing customers                           | 0.8258      |
| Fair compensation                           | 0.8484      | Innovation                                  | 0.7835      |
| Attention de detail                         | 0.8299      | Team/people-orientation                     | 0.8514      |

|                      |        |                     |        |
|----------------------|--------|---------------------|--------|
| Valuing customers    | 0.8173 | Attention to detail | 0.8414 |
| Employee development | 0.8609 | Results orientation | 0.7735 |
| Honesty and ethics   | 0.7562 |                     |        |
| Results orientation  | 0.5580 |                     |        |

---

Based on HICP, using a sample of 174 junior and senior hospitality and tourism management students, Tepeci (2005) assessed organizational culture in the hospitality industry in Turkey and investigated the impacts of culture dimensions on employees' job satisfaction and intent to stay. Except for the proposed "Attention to Detail" factor in original HICP, the other culture dimensions found in the study were very similar to honesty and people-orientation ( $\alpha = 0.89$ ); team orientation ( $\alpha = 0.87$ ); innovation ( $\alpha = 0.85$ ); valuing customers or service quality ( $\alpha = 0.86$ ); employee development ( $\alpha = 0.85$ ); results orientation ( $\alpha = 0.79$ ) and fair compensation ( $\alpha = 0.93$ ). "Honesty and people orientation" (39.72%) and "team orientation" (8.07%) were paramount in explaining variance in culture. In addition, the mean of "valuing customers or service quality" and "results orientation" dimensions demonstrated higher means than in the U.S. (Tepeci & Bartlett, 2002). The research findings support the utility of adopting the HICP for use in other countries.

However, Dawson et al. (2011) indicated one weakness of HICP is the limited participants who were hospitality students, with only an average tenure of 19 months' work experience, and 64% of these students were not currently employed when they participated in the survey. Thus, to overcome the shortfalls of the HICP, the researchers developed the Hospitality Culture Scale (HCS) by using a sample of 741 hospitality

professionals to measure employees' understanding of the organizational culture in the hospitality industry. The results yielded four dimensions of organizational culture: management principles ( $\alpha = 0.899$ ), customer relationships ( $\alpha = 0.854$ ), job variety ( $\alpha = 0.658$ ), and job satisfaction ( $\alpha = 0.536$ ). Researchers suggested that the HCS can be utilized to determine high school students' or college recruiters' intention to work in the hospitality industry.

Bavid (2016) employed a multidisciplinary and mixed-method research approach to develop a new hospitality industry organizational scale (HIOCS) to identify the scope of organizational culture aligned with the hospitality context. Due to the hospitality industry being labor-intensive and highly dependent on employees' knowledge, skills, and attitudes to accomplish the tasks efficiently, the findings suggested that the hospitality industry's cultural characteristics were different from other industries.

The confirmatory factor analysis identified that the following nine factors were valid in the HIOCS: level of cohesiveness ( $\alpha = 0.83$ ), communication ( $\alpha = 0.76$ ), social motivation ( $\alpha = 0.89$ ), ongoing onboarding ( $\alpha = 0.85$ ), guest focus ( $\alpha = 0.71$ ), innovation ( $\alpha = 0.73$ ), job variety ( $\alpha = 0.74$ ), human resource management practices ( $\alpha = 0.86$ ) and work norms ( $\alpha = 0.88$ ). The level of cohesiveness is proposed as the most important cultural element of the hospitality industry. Further, "communication" and "innovation" have been proposed as another two important organizational culture dimensions in several different industries (Keyton, 2010; Lau & Ngo, 2004). In addition, "job variety" and "guest focus" were also identified in the aforementioned Dawson et al.'s (2011) study. Table 5 shows a brief summary of studies that used the above approaches to measure organizational climate in the hospitality industry.

Table 5

*A Brief Summary of Studies Used the above Approaches to Measure Organizational Culture in the Hospitality Industry*

| Article Citation  | Climate Dimensions  | Sample   | Major Contribution  |
|---|---|--|---|
| <p>Fernandes, A. L.,<br/>                     Alturas, B. A. B., &amp;<br/>                     Laureano, R. M. S.<br/>                     (2018). Validation of<br/>                     the Hospitality Culture<br/>                     Scale in the context of<br/>                     hotel industry. <i>Tourism<br/>                     &amp; Management<br/>                     Studies</i>, 14(1), 43-52.</p> | <p>Based on HCS:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>· management principles</li> <li>· customer relationships</li> <li>· job variety</li> <li>· job satisfaction</li> </ul> | <p>Two hundred fifty-nine<br/>                     effective online<br/>                     questionnaires were<br/>                     collected from the<br/>                     professionals from a list<br/>                     of hotels which was<br/>                     provided by ABIH in<br/>                     Brazil and by<br/>                     Associação da Hotelaria<br/>                     de Portugal (AHP) in<br/>                     Portugal.</p> | <ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Validated the Hospitality Culture Scale's<br/>                         final factors in the context of hotel industry<br/>                         organizations both in Brazil and Portugal.</li> <li>2. CFA concluded that the factor "job<br/>                         satisfaction" does not contribute to the<br/>                         formation of the Organizational Culture<br/>                         construct.</li> <li>3. Indicated organizational culture to the<br/>                         hospitality environment can make employees<br/>                         feel valued, impacting job satisfaction, but job<br/>                         satisfaction cannot be considered part of the<br/>                         organization's values.</li> </ol> |

|   |  |  |   |
|---|--|--|---|
| <p>Zimmerman, K. L. (2017). <i>Perceived and preferred organizational culture on behavior intentions in the hospitality industry</i> (Doctoral dissertation, Capella University).</p> | <p>Based on HICP:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>· Innovation</li> <li>· Attention to detail</li> <li>· Outcome orientation</li> <li>· Aggressiveness</li> <li>· Team orientation</li> <li>· Stability</li> <li>· Respect for people</li> <li>· Decisiveness</li> <li>· Supportiveness</li> <li>· Emphasis on rewards</li> </ul> | <p>One hundred forty-three full-time employees who were actively working in the hospitality industry in Georgia.</p> | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>· There is a statistically significant relationship between an employee's perceived organizational culture and job satisfaction.</li> <li>· There is a statistically significant relationship between an employee's perceived organizational culture and their intent to remain.</li> <li>· There is a statistically significant relationship between an employee's perceived organizational culture and their willingness to recommend the organization.</li> </ul> |
| <p>Bhuyan, R., McIntyre, J., &amp; Klieb, L. (2018, June). Examining the relationship between</p>   | <p>Based on HIOCS:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>· Level of Cohesiveness</li> <li>· Ongoing Onboarding</li> <li>· Work Norms</li> </ul>   | <p>A total of 214 questionnaires were returned from a five-star hotel in Bangkok,</p>                                | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>· The turnover intention is associated with following 8 dimensions of HIOCS: level of cohesiveness (<math>r = - 0.334</math>), ongoing onboarding (<math>r = - 0.174</math>), social motivation (r</li> </ul>  |



|   |   |                  |  |
|---|---|------------------|--|
| <p>organizational culture and turnover intention: a study of a five-star hotel in Bangkok, Thailand. In 8th Advanced in Hospitality and Tourism Marketing and Management Conference (p. 183).</p> | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>· Social Motivation</li> <li>· Guest Focus</li> <li>· Human Resource Management Practices</li> <li>· Job Variety</li> <li>· Communication</li> <li>· Innovation</li> </ul> | <p>Thailand.</p> | <p>= 0.318), guest focus (r = - 0.166), human resource management practices (r = - 0.340), job variety (r = - 0.214), communication (r = - 0.270), and innovation (r = - 0.199).</p> |
|---|---|------------------|--|

## Organizational Climate and Organizational Culture

In the aforementioned, the construct of organizational culture was introduced earlier than the construct of organizational climate. Organizational culture was examined as a perspective as early as the 1930s (Trice & Beyer, 1993), even if it did not become a popular research topic until the 1980s. However, the organizational climate was formally introduced in Lewin's (1951) field theory and has emerged in much empirical research as a structural characteristic of an organization (Colquitt et al., 2002; Fey & Beamish, 2001; Glick, 1985; Zohar & Luria, 2005). Studies on whether organizational culture and organizational climate are identical or different, as well as on how and why these two concepts can be linked to provide a more comprehensive view of an organization, were widely discussed (Mahal, 2009; McMurray & Scott, 2003; Yahyagil, 2006). Although most studies indicated that organizational culture and organizational climate are two different concepts with an interaction effect, some key similarities have to be discussed (Ehrhart et al., 2013):

- focus on a macro view of the organizational context
- focus on the organizational environment or context in which people work
- focus on sharedness of perceptions, meanings, and/or understandings
- leaders and leadership are viewed as playing a critical role
- the relationship of climate and culture to organizational effectiveness
- strength and alignment as crucial in understanding organizational climate and organizational culture effects

It is unnecessary to review all subtle differences between organizational climate and organizational culture, but rather highlight some critical differences in Table 6

followed by a detailed explanation.

Table 6

*A Brief Summary of Differences between Organizational Climate and Culture*

| <b>Difference</b>                         | <b>Organizational climate</b>  | <b>Organizational culture</b>  |
|---|--|--|
| <b>Definition</b>                         | Perceptions of <i>what</i> happens in the organization (behaviors, support, expectations)  | <i>Why</i> these things happen (basic assumptions, values, and beliefs)  |
| <b>Theoretical roots</b>                  | Psychology   | Anthropology   |
| <b>Methodology</b>                        | Quantitative method  | Qualitative/quantitative method  |
| <b>The breadth of operationalizations</b> | Observables almost exclusively   | More levels of inferred and observable variables   |
| <b>Property</b>                           | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>· Immediate, temporal, subjective</li> <li>· Possibly subject to manipulation by authority</li> </ul> | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>· Lasting, stable, collective</li> <li>· Resistant to manipulate</li> </ul> |

The straightforward meaning of organizational climate is experientially defined as *what* employees "see" and *what* "happens" to them in an organizational situation (Schneider et al., 2011). Organizational climate resides within employees' intuitive sense of the organization, which is based on their shared perceptions around them, including the emotionality exhibited by employees, the visual feeling of the organization, and the feelings and experiences sensed by visitors and new employee members (Ostroff et al., 2012). The property of organizational climate is defined as temporal, immediate,

subjective, and possibly manipulated by authority (Denison, 1996). In contrast, organizational culture is more stable than the organizational climate and is resistant to manipulation (Ostroff et al., 2012). Organizational culture is defined as fundamental ideologies and assumptions to explain *why* the above things happen (Schein, 2010; Trice & Beyer, 1993).

In addition, the theoretical roots of the two constructs are different.

Organizational climate research was rooted in psychology to analyze and compare various dimensions of climate across individuals and groups. In comparison, organizational culture research was rooted in anthropology to explore in-depth understanding of social groups from an insider's view. Although organizational climate and organizational culture are both considered effective measurements for understanding psychological phenomena, the traditional research methodology on these two constructs is different. Research on organizational climate has mainly been used quantitative method using the survey to investigate employees' perceptions of the organizational context (Ostroff et al., 2012), while organizational culture was usually investigated with either qualitative method or a virtually indistinguishable quantitative method to assess people's values and beliefs since the 1990s (Dodge et al., 2017; Scott et al., 2003).

Another clear difference between organizational climate and organizational culture is the breadth of operationalizations, which is the range of organizational variables included (Ehrhart et al., 2013). Organizational culture is broader than organizational climate. The subject of organizational culture research included everything that occurs within the organization, why things happen, and how individuals experience the various facets of the organization (Schein, 2010), while the subject of organizational

climate research included all aspects of the organizational environment as perceived by employees. Organizational climate research is much more focused on process-relevant observables than organizational culture research, such as practices, policies, procedures, routines, and rewards (Schneider et al., 2011).

Researchers indicated that actual practices, policies, and procedures are the factors of linking mechanisms between organizational climate and organizational culture (Figure 3; Ostroff et al., 2012). The results indicated the organizational culture could lead to the deeper assumptions and values of a set of practices, policies, and procedures consistent with the underlying cultural values (Chow & Lin, 2009; Ehrhart et al., 2013). After practices, policies, and procedures formulated by organizational culture, employees perceived the basic organizational climate, which was formed by the practices, policies, and procedures consistent with the underlying values of organizational culture (Ostroff & Bowen, 2000).

Due to this interaction effect, working on organizational culture and organizational climate is a useful method for measuring organizational effectiveness. In this study, organizational climate and organizational culture were investigated as two distinguishable constructs in organizations' psychological life to provide a context for understanding interns' level of satisfaction during the internship program in the Chinese hospitality industry.

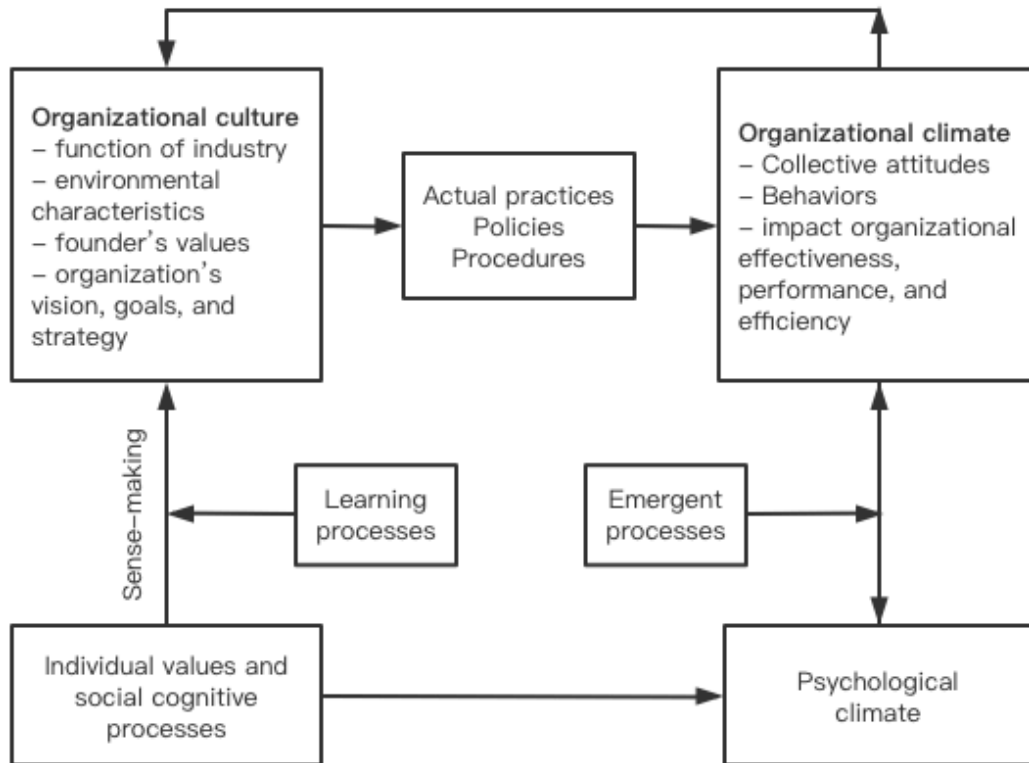


Figure 3 *Linkage between Organizational Climate and Organizational Culture*

### Career Decision

Frank Parsons firstly introduced the concept of career decision in his book “*Choosing a Vocation*” in 1909 and indicated that career decision should be based on three broad factors:

- (1) a clear understanding of yourself, your aptitudes, abilities, interests, ambition, resources, limitations and knowledge of their causes;
- (2) knowledge of the requirements, conditions of success, advantages and disadvantages, compensation, opportunities, and prospects in different lines of work;
- (3) true reasoning on the relations of these two groups of facts” (Parsons, 1909, p. 5).

For individuals, these three broad factors provided not only simple guidelines and

alternatives information for rational career decisions, but also a better understanding of themselves (Jones, 1994). However, the concept of career decision has been formally acknowledged since the 1950s (Patton & McMahon, 1999). Michael Krumboltz (1979) firstly used the term "career decision-making" as the terminology in his "social learning theory of career decision-making" (Brown, 2002). To better understand an individual's career decisions during different life stages, Krumboltz's theory provided a conceptual framework for future research.

In recent years, examining career decisions among university students and graduates has been a popular research topic. The results of research on graduates' career decisions were meaningful to academic institutions to define students' career interests and facilitate career opportunities (Jeffreys, 2012). Studies suggested a variety of factors associated with students' career decisions, such as gender differences (Chunag & Dellmann-Jenkins, 2010; Danziger & Eden 2007), family background (Mau et al., 2008), and socioeconomic background (Greenbank & Hepworth, 2008). Although working experience during the internship program was evaluated as the most profound influence factor affecting students' career decisions (Chen & Shen, 2012; Richardson, 2010), many scholars have begun to question the merit of internship for students (Jenkins, 2001; Odio et al., 2014). Further studies have evidenced that the working experience during the internship program has negatively influenced students' career decisions after graduation (Chan, 2017; Dixon et al., 2005; Richardson, 2009).

Focusing on this study, although many career opportunities are provided for students in the hospitality industry, there are considerable issues with getting students to

stay in the industry; thus, it has become both a short- and long-term managerial issue (Choudhury & McIntosh, 2013). Of great concern is the fact that too few graduates are willing to pursue a hospitality industry career after graduation (Jenkins, 2001). Previous studies have found a variety of factors that may influence students' career decision to stay working in the hospitality industry, such as irregular working hours (Akış Roney & Öztin, 2007), low pay (Chen & Shen, 2012), no overtime compensation (Srivastava, 2007), poor supervision and unchallenged (Dickerson, 2009) and lack of training or career support from the organization (Lam & Ching, 2007). One main reason leading to students' career decisions relate to their perceptions of work experience during the internship program (e.g., Park et al., 2017; Richardson, 2008; Siu et al., 2012). Poor internship experiences led to dissatisfaction and negative career decisions to stay in the hospitality industry.

Using a sample of 603 students across Turkey who participated in summer internship programs, Koc et al. (2014) revealed that the main reason driving students to leave the hospitality industry is the large difference between their expectations and job satisfaction during the internship program. In addition, drawing upon qualitative data with 30 students who pursued an undergraduate hospitality management degree in Cyprus, Farmaki (2018) revealed that negative internship experiences minimized students' intention to stay in the hospitality industry after graduation.

#### Proposed Level of Satisfaction-Career Decision to Stay Model

While conceptual and empirical connections were highlighted, the literature review revealed that student internship level of satisfaction and career decision intention to stay should be directly linked; this relationship was hypothesized to be moderated by



organizational climate and culture as well. Based on the various theories and concepts reviewed in the literature, a hypothesized model in Figure 1 was proposed to test the hypotheses.

### Summary

Chapter 2 examined the literature surrounding interns' level of satisfaction, organizational climate, organizational culture, and career decision intention to stay. Finally, a proposed student's level of satisfaction-career decision intention to stay model was presented. Chapter 3 will discuss the method used in this study. Chapter 4 presents the findings, and Chapter 5 concludes with a discussion of the results and implications for theory, research, and practice.

## CHAPTER III

### METHOD

This chapter starts by presenting the purpose of the study, research questions, and hypotheses from chapter 1. Next, research design, population and sample size, variables and instrument, procedures, data analysis, and a summary are provided.

#### Purpose of the Study

The primary aim of this study is to examine the relationships among internship level of satisfaction, organizational climate, organizational culture, and students' career decision intention to stay in the Chinese hospitality industry. A second aim is to examine the extent to which the internship level of satisfaction-career decision intention to stay relationship is moderated both by organizational climate and organizational culture.

#### Research Questions and Hypotheses

Three overarching research questions guided this study: (a) What are the relationships between organizational climate, the organizational culture of the internship workplace, and students' career decision intention to stay when they graduate in the Chinese hospitality industry? (b) What is the relation between Chinese students' level of satisfaction with internship experience and career decision intention to stay when they graduate? And (c) Does the internship workplace's organizational climate or organizational culture moderate the relationship between students' level of

satisfaction and career decision intention to stay in the Chinese hospitality industry when they graduate? Consequently, the researcher hypothesizes the following:

H1: There is a relationship between student's perception of the organizational climate of the internship workplace and their career decision intention to stay in the Chinese hospitality industry.

H2: There is a relationship between student's perception of the organizational culture of the internship workplace and their career decision intention to stay in the Chinese hospitality industry.

H3: There is a relationship between students' level of satisfaction with internship experience and their career decision intention to stay in the Chinese hospitality industry.

H4: The relationship between students' level of satisfaction with their internship experience and their career decision intention to stay in the Chinese hospitality industry will be moderated by organizational climate.

H5: The relationship between students' level of satisfaction with their internship experience and their career decision intention to stay in the Chinese hospitality industry will be moderated by organizational culture.

### Research Design

Because this research does not involve the manipulation of variables and randomization of samples but does propose to collect data via survey, it is therefore a

nonexperimental, quantitative study. Further, as the research questions aim to examine if the organizational climate and culture of the internship workplace could moderate the relationship between interns' level of satisfaction and their career decision intention to stay, the nonexperimental, explanatory research design is the most appropriate (Pedhazur & Schmelkin, 1991). This nonexperimental, explanatory research is undergirded by theory and prior empirical research that supports predicting career decision to stay in the hospitality industry, as well as the moderator variables' influence on the dependent variable.

#### Population and Sample Size

Although there are numerous hospitality and tourism graduate programs throughout the world, this site was selected because of its preeminence and its unique setting in North China. Little hospitality and tourism research related to internships has been conducted in this setting, and the findings would enrich theoretical, research, and practical understandings of internships.

The population for this study consisted of students with an internship experience from the Marriott Tianjin China Program, which is a branch of the School of Hospitality & Tourism Management at Florida International University (FIU). Marriott Tianjin China Program is FIU's most extensive overseas program located within a multi-million-dollar center, which was fully funded by the Chinese governmental agencies and the Tianjin University of Commerce (TUC) in China. The Department of Career Development in the Marriott Tianjin China Program offers

planning and placement assistance to help students find appropriate practical opportunities in the hospitality industry. With appropriate FIU Institutional Review Board guidance, Meng Shen, the Marriott Tianjin China Program's academic advisor, was the contact person for distributing questionnaires to Chinese students who enrolled the HFT 4945 Advanced Internship in Fall 2020, Spring 2021, and Summer 2021. The course requests that a minimum of 1,000 hours of industry experience must be completed and verified. The sample consist strictly of volunteers recruited directly from the population; this increases the external validity of the study.

The sample size used in this study is estimated by Cochran's sample size formula (1977) for continuous data.

$$n_0 = \frac{(t)^2 * (s)^2}{(d)^2} = \frac{(1.96)^2 * (1.25)^2}{(5 * 0.03)^2} = 267$$

Where  $n_0$  = required sample size.

Where  $t$  = value for selected alpha level of .05 in each tail = 1.96

Where  $s$  = estimate of standard deviation in the population = 1.25

Where  $d$  = acceptable margin of error for mean being estimated = 0.15

The alpha level of .05 indicates the level of risk the researcher is willing to take that the true margin of error may exceed the acceptable margin of error. The  $s$  value of 1.25 indicated an estimate of variance deviation for 5-point Likert scales calculated using 5 divided by 4, the number of standard deviations that include almost all (approximately 98%) of the possible values in the range. The  $d$  value of 0.15 indicated the number of points on the primary scale (5) \* acceptable margins of error

(0.03). Therefore, if the population of this special group is 2000, the required sample size would be 267. However, because the sample size exceeds 5% of the population ( $2000 * 0.05 = 100$ ), Cochran's (1977) correction formula should be used to calculate the final sample size. These calculations are as follows:

$$n = \frac{n_0}{\left(1 + \frac{n_0}{\text{Population}}\right)} = \frac{267}{\left(1 + \frac{267}{2000}\right)} = 236$$

These procedures result in a minimum estimated sample size of 236.

Additionally, it was anticipated that an average response rate of 75% would be achieved based on prior similar research experience (Crawford et al., 2001). Given a required minimum sample size (corrected) of 236, the following calculations were used to determine the minimum sample size:

$$N = \frac{n}{\text{anticipated return rate}} = \frac{236}{0.75} = 315$$

Therefore, a sample size of a minimum of 315 participants should be recruited in this study. Ultimately, three hundred and eighteen respondents were collected by the researcher in this study.

### Variables and Instrumentation

The following section details survey instruments used in measuring each research variable, including career decision intention to stay, interns' level of satisfaction, organizational climate, organizational culture, and demographics. All instruments, except the demographics, scored using 5-point Likert scales. Full versions of the survey can be found in Appendix I.

Both composite and individual scores were reported, and composite scores of the variables were used in the final analyses. The model hypothesized relationships among each observed variable which refers to using the average/sum scores of all the items measuring the variables; for example, the final level of satisfaction used in the hierarchical regression analysis is the average or sum score of the 31 items. Bauer and Curran (2015) noted that it is much more common in psychology to score scales by sum scoring whereby the researchers simply add (or averages) responses from multiple-item scales to create scores for variables that are not directly measurable rather than by performing a latent variable analysis. Whether sum scores are sufficient depends on the research context (McNeish & Wolf, 2020).

The main reasons for using total scores rather than subscale scores the researcher wanted to understand how each variable as a whole, and each interaction, individually contributed to explaining the dependent variable (Waters & Zakrajsek, 1990). In this study, given the interns' limited working experiences during the internship, the average sum score on each scale could be adequate as a rough approximation of their perceptions on variables.

#### Interns' Level of Satisfaction

Interns' level of satisfaction was measured using the General Job Satisfaction scale (GJS; Hackman & Oldham, 1975) and Job Dissatisfaction Questionnaire (JDQ; Sithiphand, 1983), which is based on Herzberg's Two-Factor Theory (1959).

Herzberg et al. (1959) interviewed 200 engineers and accountants to understand motivating factors related to employee's satisfaction or dissatisfaction with their work. Two turnover models have been devised from this theory: Turnover Models (Price & Mueller, 1986) and the Model of Voluntary Turnover (Greenhaus et al., 1997). According to Herzberg's findings, hygiene factors can cause dissatisfaction when not satisfied. Herzberg's Two-Factor Theory of work motivation has demonstrated considerable predictive and discriminate validity when tested empirically in the hospitality industry (Herzberg et al., 2005; Lundberg et al., 2009).

Sithiphand (1983) devised the JDQ by selecting 29 items with negative meanings from Herzberg's (1959) 16 job factor categories; 385 responders were asked to check all the factors that made them feel dissatisfied about their present job. The measure was designed to collect data related to sources of dissatisfaction (factors) that made employees have low feelings and dissatisfaction in their job situation. The findings indicated that salary, work itself, company policy and administration, recognition, and interpersonal relations, respectively, were considered by non-supervisors to be the five greatest sources of job dissatisfaction. It reported a reliability coefficient of 0.89 for the original questionnaire. The instrument can be used to measure interns' dissatisfaction where a high score on the measure means that the student is dissatisfied. On the other hand, a low score on the measure means the student is not dissatisfied, meaning then they are satisfied with the items (even though they are hygiene factor items); therefore, this measure can be used as a proxy for student level of satisfaction (see D'abate et al., 2009). Again, a high score means the



student is dissatisfied, while a low score means the student is satisfied.

Based on the original JDS, items in Table 6 were used for the present study.

Participants were asked to respond along a 5-point Likert continuum from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 5 (*strongly agree*). The five subscale scores were summed to obtain an overall interns' dissatisfaction/level of satisfaction score.

Table 7

*Job Dissatisfaction/Level of Satisfaction Items*

|                                   |  |
|-----------------------------------|--|
| Satisfaction                      | <ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. In general, I was very satisfied with my internship.</li> <li>2. I frequently thought of quitting my internship.</li> <li>3. I was general satisfied with the kind of work I did at my internship.</li> </ol>  |
| Salary                            | <ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>4. Low pay</li> <li>5. Did not receive the expected wage increase.</li> <li>6. Wages compare unfavorably with others doing a similar or same job.</li> </ol>  |
| Work itself                       | <ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>7. Not seeing results of work.</li> <li>8. Routine job.</li> <li>9. Lack of responsibility.</li> <li>10. Lack of opportunity for growth.</li> <li>11. Too little work.</li> <li>12. Too much work.</li> <li>13. Too easy job.</li> <li>14. Too difficult job.</li> <li>15. Lack of objective signs of security (i.e., company instability).</li> <li>16. Poor physical surroundings.</li> </ol> |
| Company policy and administration | <ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>17. Harmful or ineffective organization of work.</li> <li>18. Harmful personnel policies.</li> <li>19. Low hotel status.</li> </ol>   |
| Recognition                       | <ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>20. Good idea(s) not accepted.</li> <li>21. Failed to receive expected advancement.</li> <li>22. Work blamed or criticized.</li> <li>23. Not having a given status.</li> </ol>  |

|                         |  |
|-------------------------|--|
| Interpersonal relations | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>24. Supervisor incompetent.</li> <li>25. Supervisor tried to do everything himself.</li> <li>26. Poor working relationship with your co-workers.</li> <li>27. Supervisor did not support you with management.</li> <li>28. Did not like people you work with.</li> <li>29. Supervisor is unwilling to listen to suggestions.</li> <li>30. Lack of cooperation on the part of your co-workers.</li> <li>31. Supervisor withheld credit.</li> </ul> |
|-------------------------|--|

### Organizational Climate

Organizational climate was measured using the Tourism and Hospitality Organizational Climate Scale-Revised (THOCS-R; Manning et al., 2004) for this study. The THOCS-R is a revised 35-item version of the THOCS (2001) that was validated with 409 employees of a single tourism organization. Davidson et al. (2001) originally developed the THOCS, a 70-item instrument where participants responded along a 7-point Likert-type scale from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 7 (*strongly agree*). The THOCS, designed to measure organizational climate in the Tourism and Hospitality industry, demonstrates solid psychometric properties (Davidson et al., 2001). Davidson et al. (2001), via principal components analysis (PCA), analyzed the seventy-item THOCS. The authors collected data from 1,401 employees employed in 14 four- and five-star hotels in Australia. The PCA revealed seven underlying components of organizational climate for this sample: leader facilitation and support (29% of the variance); professional and organizational esprit (4.5% of the variance); conflict and ambiguity (3.6% of the variance); regulations, organization, and pressure (3.3% of the variance); job variety, challenge and autonomy (2.7% of the variance);

work-group cooperation, friendliness and warmth (2.5% of the variance); and job standards (2.1% of the variance). The 70-item survey instrument displayed a high degree of reliability (Cronbach's alpha = .959).

Through factor-analytic work, Manning et al. (2004) evaluated a four-factor model as supported by the chi-square difference test, indicating a significant improvement of the four-factor model over the originally hypothesized seven-factor model ( $\chi^2_{diff} = 1,045.503, p < .0005$ ). Based on the four-factor model, Crawford (2008) supported a three-factor structure. The scale overall performed well (Cronbach's alpha = .91). The factors extracted were supervisory support, esprit de corps, and personal development. The coefficient alpha scores for each subscale per sample as follows: supervisory support ( $\alpha = .85$ ), esprit de corps ( $\alpha = .82$ ), and personal development ( $\alpha = .76$ ). The original THOCS-R in Crawford's study is a 13-item scale where participants responded along a 5-point Likert continuum from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 5 (*strongly agree*). Based on the above results, items in Table 7 were used for the present study.

Table 8

*Organizational Climate Items*

|                     |   |
|---------------------|---|
| Supervisory Support | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>·My supervisor understands and responds to my needs.</li> <li>·My supervisor makes me feel important and worthy.</li> <li>·My supervisor provides me with the resources I need to meet group goals.</li> <li>·Changes in policy and procedures are given to me.</li> <li>·I have the supplies I need in order to do my job.</li> </ul> |
| Esprit de corps     | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>·We have a team effort in completing difficult tasks.</li> </ul>   |

|                      |   |
|----------------------|---|
|                      | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>·I take pride in the team I work with.</li> <li>·There is open communication and trust among my team members.</li> <li>·I work in a friendly environment.</li> <li>·Each department interacts in a friendly and cooperative way with other departments.</li> </ul> |
| Personal development | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>·Tasks are clear in demands and criteria.</li> <li>·I help meet organizational goals through my job behaviors.</li> <li>·My organization provides me the opportunity for the development of goals and skills.</li> </ul>   |

### Organizational Culture

Organizational culture was measured using the Hospitality Industry Culture Profile (HICP; Tepeci, 2001). The HICP was developed to assess comparable dimensions of organizational values (perceived culture) and individual values (preferred culture) in the hospitality industry. It included 36 items to measure nine dimensions in the hospitality industry. Tepeci and Bartlett (2002) combined team orientation and people orientation to form a joint factor structure and resulted in an 8-factor structure for organizational culture with 182 junior and senior hospitality management students, who responded along a 7-point Likert continuum from 1 (*very uncharacteristic*) to 7 (*very characteristic*). The coefficient alpha scores for each of the scales were reported as follows: (1) team/people-orientation,  $\alpha = 0.88$ ; (2) innovation,  $\alpha = 0.86$ ; (3) fair compensation,  $\alpha = 0.84$ ; (4) attention to detail,  $\alpha = 0.83$ ; (5) valuing customers,  $\alpha = 0.82$ ; (6) employee development,  $\alpha = 0.86$ ; (7) honesty and ethics,  $\alpha = 0.77$ ; and (8) results orientation,  $\alpha = 0.56$ .

Several studies used HICP as the framework to define the values and culture of hospitality organizations and confirmed the HICP is an effective scale for

measuring the organizational culture in the hospitality industry (e.g., Bavik, 2016; Dawson & Abbott, 2011; Kokt & Ramarumo, 2015). Tepeci (2005) adapted the HICP with 174 junior and senior hospitality students in Turkey to investigate the impacts of organizational culture on their job satisfaction and intent to stay. The results indicated that Cronbach's alpha for each of the culture dimensions ranged between .79 to .93. The original HICP is a 21-item scale where participants responded along a 5-point Likert continuum from 1 (*very uncharacteristic*) to 5 (*very characteristic*).

Factor analysis yielded seven-factor organizational culture dimensions, which are the same as the original HICP except for the attention to detail. Attention to detail factor did not emerge, and none of the four attentions to detail items loaded on any other factor. The coefficient alpha scores for each of the scales were reported as follows: (1) honesty and people orientation,  $\alpha = 0.89$ ; (2) team orientation,  $\alpha = 0.88$ ; (3) innovation,  $\alpha = 0.85$ ; (4) valuing customers or service quality,  $\alpha = 0.86$ ; (5) employee development,  $\alpha = 0.85$ ; (6) fair compensation,  $\alpha = 0.93$ ; and (7) results orientation,  $\alpha = 0.79$ . For the present research, twenty items were adopted from the HICP (Table 9).

Table 9

*Organizational Culture Items*

|                                |   |
|--------------------------------|---|
| Honesty and people orientation | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>· Truthfulness and honesty</li> <li>· Keeping promises</li> <li>· Respect for an individual's right</li> </ul> |
| Team orientation               | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>· Working in collaboration with others</li> <li>· Cooperating with coworkers</li> </ul>                        |

|                                      |  |
|--------------------------------------|--|
|                                      | ·Team orientation  |
| Innovation                           | ·A willingness to experiment<br>·Risk-taking<br>·Creativity                              |
| Valuing customers or service quality | ·Giving customers what they expect<br>·Emphasis on service quality<br>·Valuing customers |
| Employee Development                 | ·Employee Development<br>·Promotion from within<br>·Personal / career development        |
| Fair Compensation                    | ·Fair compensations<br>·High pay for good performance                                    |
| Results Orientation                  | ·Focus on getting the job done<br>·Results orientations<br>·Task accomplishment          |

#### Career Decision Intention to Stay

Career decision intention to stay was measured by the Career Decision Scale (CDS; Osipow et al., 1976). It was initially developed as a tool to promote self-counseling about indecision, appropriate for use with both high school and college students (Westbrook et al., 1980). The CDS, comprised of 18 items that ask the participant to rate each along a 4-point Likert scale ranging from 1 "*not at all like me,*" to 4 "*exactly like me,*" measures the degree of uncertainty or indecision one has in making a career or college major choice decision. The 19th question is open-ended; it asks participants to explain their earlier responses if needed. The authors reported the Cronbach's alpha for the overall CDS was 0.91. The overall scale consists of five subscales (generalized indecisiveness, need for career information, need for self-knowledge, anxiety about a career decision, and self-confidence); scores from each

subscale were tallied to create an overall career decision intention to stay scores for the purposes of testing the hypotheses.

In a review of the CDS, Harmon (1985) described the CDS as "extremely well developed and researched" (p. 270). Multiple studies used the CDS to examine college students' career indecisiveness; Harmon reported test-retest reliability coefficients ranged from 0.70 to 0.90 (Haislett & Hafer, 1990; Garis & Niles, 1990; Osipow & Reed, 1985). Carney (1977) used the CDS as an outcome measure after students completed a career exploration course. Pre- and post-results showed a reduction in the group's overall indecision score. Slaney (1988) found the CDS to have construct and concurrent validity and to be free from gender bias.

Using the CDS, Neapolitan (1992) indicated that internship experiences helped students significantly in clarifying career decisions. This result was obtained using 30 students who were junior/senior sociology majors and were required to do at least 105 hours of internship. As per Neapolitan's suggestion, that there are two items concerning the choice of major for high school students, the author in the present study dropped them from the original survey for further analysis and discussion due to the subjects in this study were students in hospitality majors in college.

As shown in Table 10, sixteen items are adopted from Neapolitan's (1992) research to fit this study with responses on the scale ranging from 1 (*most "not like me"*) to 5 (*most "like me"*). The items were summed and averaged to obtain an overall career decision intention to stay score.

Table 10

*Career Decision Intention to Stay Items*

1. I have decided on a career and feel comfortable with it. I also know how to go about implementing my choice.
2. If I had the skills or the opportunity, I know I would be work in the hotel industry, but this choice is really not possible for me. I haven't given much consideration to any other alternative, however.
3. Several careers have equal appeal to me. I'm having a difficult time deciding among them.
4. I know I will have to go to work eventually, but none of the careers I know about the appeal to me.
5. I would like to work in the hotel industry, but I'd to go against the wishes of someone who is important to me if I did so. Because of this, it's difficult for me to make a career decision right now. I hope I can find a way to please them and myself.
6. Until now, I haven't given much thought to choosing a career. I feel lost when I think about it because I haven't had many experiences in making decisions on my own, and I don't have enough information to make a career decision right now.
7. After the internship, I feel discouraged because everything about choosing a career seems so "iffy" and uncertain; I feel discouraged, so much so that I'd like to put off making a decision for the time being.
8. I thought I knew what I wanted for a career, but after the internship, I found out that it wouldn't be possible for me to pursue it. Now I've got to start looking for other possible careers.
9. I want to be absolutely certain that my career choice is the "right" one but working in the hotel industry seems not ideal for me.
10. Having to make the career decision on working in the hotel industry when I graduate bothers me. I'd like to make a decision quickly and get it over with. I wish I could take a test that would tell me what kind of career I should pursue.
11. I know what I'd like to major in, but I don't know if working in the hotel industry can lead to that would satisfy me.
12. I can't make the career decision on working in the hotel industry right now because I don't know what my abilities.
13. I don't know what my interests are. A few things "turn me on," but I'm not certain that they are related in any way to my career possibilities.
14. So many things interest me, and I know I have the ability to do well regardless of what career I choose. It's hard for me to decide to work in the hotel industry as a career.



15. I have decided to work in the hotel industry, but I'm not sure how to go about implementing a choice.
16. I need more information about what different occupations are like to make a career decision.

Demographics, because they are relevant for describing the participants and using them as possible control variables in the regression equations, included participants' gender, age, current academic level, internship position, and internship length.

### Internet Survey Research

An Internet survey was used to collect data for this study. Internet surveys have become far more common for both academic and organizational researchers due to the rapid development of low-cost information technology (Dillman et al., 2014; Evans & Mathur, 2005). It is a useful way to gather information about participants' attitudes and opinions (Isaac & Michael, 1995). Surveys posted on the Internet can be generated as a URL for the researcher to share through social media or in a different online platform (Sue & Ritter, 2012), such as (a) sending/posting a message with the survey link as a part of the message text on the social media (e.g., Facebook, Twitter); (b) sending an email message with a URL-embedded-message in the text which the respondent clicks; then taken to a host site where they view and respond to a survey instrument (Simsek & Veiga, 2001).

Internet survey research has both advantages and disadvantages that were considered in the present study. The advantages of Internet survey include the following: flexibility (Schonlau et al., 2002), more truthful answers (Dillman, 2002),

speed and timeliness (Kannan et al., 1998), technological innovations (Mullarkey, 2004), convenience (Hogg, 2003), ease of data entry and analysis (Wilson & Laskey, 2003), low administration cost (Jackson, 2003), ease of follow-up (Jackson, 2003), relative ease of realizing a large sample (Schonlau et al., 2002) and required completion of answers (Healey et al., 2002). Disadvantages include the following: perception as junk mail (Bannan, 2003), respondent lack of online experience/expertise, technological variations (Ray & Tabor, 2003), unclear answering instructions (Ray & Tabor, 2003), impersonal (Scholl et al., 2002), privacy and security issues (Rubin, 2000), and low response rate (Wilson & Laskey, 2003). Notwithstanding the possible disadvantages, survey research is very heavily utilized in social science research like this study; thus, it will be utilized in this research as well.

## Procedures

### Instrument Translation

After permission to conduct the study sought from Florida International University's Graduate School and Institutional Review Board, the researcher prepared the survey instrument for distribution. Because the current study was conducted in China, the original research survey in English has to be translated into Mandarin Chinese, which is the native language of the target population in this study. One of the most valid translation methods is the double translation method, which is also called the back-translations method; it has been shown to provide the best translation results

(Forbes, 2010). Two bilingual individuals were invited to participate independently in the translation process, which included the following three major steps in this study (McGorry, 2000):

1. The original version in English is translated by the first translator, a native Mandarin and proficient English speaker, into Mandarin Chinese.
2. The second independent translator who is proficient in both languages independently translates the instrument from the previous step back to English.
3. The researcher compares two English versions for any inconsistencies, mistranslations, meaning, cultural gaps, and/or lost words or phrases. If any differences are found, the researcher can consult with the translators to determine why this occurred and/or how the instrument can be revised (Marin & Marin, 1991).

#### Pre-administration/preparation

After completing the translation for the survey instrument, the researcher followed the three-stage recommendations for survey research based on the Tailored Design Method (TDM; Dillman et al., 2014). TDM was developed as a framework in the early 1970s for designing mail and telephone surveys. TDM emphasizes paying attention to the entire survey and questionnaire experience, with the idea that a three-part focus on reducing cost, increasing benefits, and generating trust would maximize response rates to make the cost-benefit consideration of respondents more compelling. The first step is inviting knowledgeable colleagues to review the survey statements to elicit suggestions from those who have experience with previous surveys or this

research area, for example, the researcher's major advisor and committee members.

The second step is conducting a pilot study with a group of targeted participants (sample like the proposed participants) ( $N = 20$ ) to test the clarity of instructions and time to completion. This step is important because it can emulate the procedures used for the research study and assess the administrative feasibility.

Permission was then requested to conduct the study from the research sponsor, which helps identify potential participants when conducting research (Bogdan & Biklen, 2007). The present study's research sponsor was the Dean of the School of Hospitality & Tourism Management at Florida International University. Student's email addresses were accessed through the sponsor, who gave the researcher connection with the Department of Career Development in the Marriott Tianjin China Program.

#### Administering the Survey

Once an agreement is reached and permission is granted, the survey was prepared for the Department of Career Development. Based on Dillman et al.'s (2009) interval scheduling framework, the research administered the survey followed the five steps in Table 11

Table 11

#### *Interval Scheduling Framework*

---

| Time Frame | Action |
|------------|--------|
|------------|--------|

---

---

|   |   |
|---|---|
| Week One                                      | Pre-notification and research           |
|   | Introduction                            |
| Three days after invitation, pre-notification | Survey email sent                       |
| One week after the initial survey e-mail      | Reminder email sent                     |
| Two weeks after the initial survey e-mail     | Reminder email sent                     |
| Conclusion of the survey                      | Thank you for participating e-mail sent |

---

In the beginning, participants received a pre-notification invitation and a brief introduction to this research. Three days after the pre-notification invitation, participants received an e-mail with a welcome message and the link to the survey. To increase the survey response rate and draw maximum attention, the reminder email was sent out twice with a confidentiality notice and instructions to assist in completing the survey. Additionally, the second reminder email included a precaution message to remind participants not to retake the survey if they already filled it out before to reduce duplication.

The survey was placed in Wenjuanxing, which is an online survey collection platform to collect data. It can monitor the Internet Protocol (IP) address of each responder to prevent participants from responding to the survey more than once. Participation is strictly voluntary, and participants can opt-out of the survey at any point. After participants submit the completed survey, the data results were downloaded in an electronic file that only the researcher can access. This electronic file does not include any information related to personal information so that

participant confidentiality can be assured. Data will be kept for three years from the completion of the study, after which time the data will be destroyed.

### Data Analysis

All quantitative data were analyzed by IBM SPSS Statistics (version 27.0 for macOS). Correlational and hierarchical multiple regression analyses were used to analyze the statistically significant relationships and moderation effects. In this study, all the main research variables were continuous. Descriptive statistics of the variables were reported, including frequency, mean, standard deviation, and chi-square tests of homogeneity. An alpha level of .05 (one-tailed) was used in all three hypothesis tests.

*H1: There is a relationship between student's perception of the organizational climate of the internship workplace and their career decision intention to stay in the Chinese hospitality industry.*

To test H1, a correlational analysis was conducted to test the student's perception of the organizational climate of the internship workplace and their career decision intention to stay in the hospitality industry. The correlation coefficient indicated the strength and direction of the relationship between these two variables.

*H2: There is a relationship between student's perception of the organizational culture of the internship workplace and their career decision intention to stay in the Chinese hospitality industry.*

To test H2, a correlational analysis was conducted to test the student's perception of the organizational culture of the internship workplace and their career

decision intention to stay in the hospitality industry. As in the H1, the result of the correlation coefficient indicated the strength and direction of the relationship between the variables.

*H3: There is a relation between students' level of satisfaction with the internship experience and their career decision intention to stay in the Chinese hospitality industry.*

To test H3, a correlational analysis was conducted to test interns' level of satisfaction with internship experience and their career decision intention to stay in the Chinese hospitality industry.

*H4: The relationship between students' level of satisfaction with their internship experience and their career decision intention to stay in the Chinese hospitality industry will be moderated by organizational climate (climate will dampen the relationship).*

To test H4, moderation analysis was conducted using hierarchical multiple regression to test that the organizational climate of the internship workplace could moderate the relationship between interns' level of satisfaction and career decision intention to stay in the hospitality industry.

*H5: The relationship between students' level of satisfaction with their internship experience and their career decision intention to stay in the Chinese hospitality industry will be moderated by organizational culture (culture will dampen the relationship).*

To test H5, moderation analysis was conducted using hierarchical multiple regression to test that the organizational culture of the internship workplace could moderate the relationship between interns' level of satisfaction and career decision intention to stay in the hospitality industry.

### Summary

Chapter 3 detailed the research processes, including the research design, sample and population, variables and instruments, data collection in the present study. Chapter 4 present detailed findings.



## CHAPTER IV

### RESULTS

This chapter presents the results of the study and is organized into three main sections: background of the sample, examination of the hypotheses, and a brief summary of the chapter. To examine the hypotheses, the author used correlation and hierarchical regression analyses to test the hypothesized model of the relationship between interns' level of satisfaction, perceptions of organizational climate, perceptions of organizational culture, and career decision intention to stay.

#### Background of the Sample

Three hundred and eighteen respondents participated in this study. The participants' demographic information, including gender, age, current academic level, internship position, and internship length, are examined in the following sections.

#### *Gender*

Approximately 62% ( $n = 197$ ) of the sample was female and 38% ( $n = 121$ ) of the sample was male. There are no respondents who did not report their gender.

#### *Current academic level*

A frequency analysis of student's current academic year indicated that 13% ( $n = 41$ ) of the respondents are in the junior year, and 87% ( $n = 277$ ) of the respondents are in the senior year. There are no respondents who did not report their current academic level.

### *Internship position*

Question asking respondents to choose a term that best described their position during the internship indicated that 32% ( $n = 102$ ) of respondents worked in the front office, 24% ( $n = 76$ ) of respondents worked in room operation, 21% ( $n = 67$ ) of respondents worked in food and beverage department, 13% ( $n = 41$ ) of respondents worked in human resource department, 5% ( $n = 16$ ) of respondents worked in the admin office, 4% ( $n = 13$ ) of respondents worked in sale and marketing department, and 1% ( $n = 3$ ) of respondents worked in the accounting and finance department.

### *Internship length*

The frequency analysis of internship length shows that 11% ( $n = 36$ ) of respondents had internship for less than 1 month, 26% ( $n = 82$ ) of respondents had internship for 1-2 months, 48% ( $n = 154$ ) of respondents had internship for 2-3 months, 8% ( $n = 27$ ) of respondents had internship for 3-4 months, 4% ( $n = 14$ ) of respondents had internship for 4-5 months, 2% ( $n = 5$ ) of respondents had internship for over 5 months.

Table 12 provides a frequency table of all demographic variables examined in this study.

Table 12

*Frequency Table of Demographic Variables*

| Category | Variable | $f$ | Percent |
|----------|----------|-----|---------|
| Gender   | Male     | 121 | 38.0    |

|                       |                      |     |      |
|-----------------------|----------------------|-----|------|
|                       | Female               | 197 | 62.3 |
| Age                   | 20                   | 22  | 2.2  |
|                       | 21                   | 108 | 34.0 |
|                       | 22                   | 153 | 48.1 |
|                       | 23                   | 35  | 11.0 |
| Current Academic year | Junior               | 41  | 12.9 |
|                       | Senior               | 277 | 87.1 |
| Internship length     | Less than 1          | 36  | 11.3 |
|                       | 1-2                  | 82  | 25.8 |
|                       | 2-3                  | 154 | 48.4 |
|                       | 3-4                  | 27  | 8.5  |
|                       | 4-5                  | 14  | 4.4  |
|                       | Over 5               | 5   | 1.6  |
| Internship position   | Front office         | 102 | 32.1 |
|                       | Room operation       | 76  | 23.9 |
|                       | Human Resource       | 41  | 12.9 |
|                       | Food & Beverage      | 67  | 21.1 |
|                       | Sale & Marketing     | 13  | 4.1  |
|                       | Accounting & Finance | 3   | 0.9  |
|                       | Admin & Office       | 16  | 5.0  |
|                       | Other                | 0   | 0    |

#### Examination of the Hypotheses

The first three hypotheses were tested using correlational analyses. The fourth and fifth hypothesis was tested through hierarchical regression analyses. The model

hypothesized relationships among each observed variable which refers to using the average/sum scores of all the items measuring the variables; for example, the final level of satisfaction used in the hierarchical regression analysis is the average or sum score of the 31 items. Bauer and Curran (2015) noted that it is much more common in social science disciplines like psychology and education to score scales by sum scoring, whereby the researchers simply add (or averages) responses from multiple-item scales to create scores for variables that are not directly measurable rather than by performing a latent variable analysis. Whether sum scores are sufficient depends on the research context (McNeish & Wolf, 2020).

The main reasons for using total scores rather than subscales because the researcher wanted to understand how each variable as a whole, and each interaction, individually contributed to explaining the dependent variable. In this study, given the interns' limited working experiences during the internship, averages of the sum score on each scale could be adequate as a rough approximation of their perceptions on variables (Waters & Zakrajsek, 1990).

Moreover, confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) in AMOS was used to check the measurement model, and the results provide validity related to the internal structure. Underlying normality assumptions (mean, standard deviation, skewness, and kurtosis) and statistical assumptions about linearity and multicollinearity (Hinkle et al., 2005) were examined for correlational and hierarchical regression analyses. Underlying implications from the two conditions examined may make inferences

drawn from the results of this study untrustworthy and were thus carefully reviewed.

### Linearity

Linearity is a statistical term used to describe the mathematical straight-line relationship between the independent and dependent variables (Cohen & Cohen, 1983). Bivariate scatterplots can be used to test linearity (Green, 1991). An examination of bivariate scatterplot in this study indicated inherently linear lines; thus, there were no violations of linearity. The linear analysis assumes that there is no perfect exact relationship among exploratory variables.

### Multicollinearity

The term multicollinearity refers to the phenomenon generally occurring when an independent variable in a regression model can be linearly predicted from the other variables with a substantial degree of accuracy (Cohen & Cohen, 1983). When the degree of correlation between two variables is high enough, it basically can be understood as the same phenomenon or construct is being measured, which can cause problems when fitting the model and interpreting the results (Green & Salkind, 2005). The high correlation between predictor variables greater than .90 should be removed or combined to avoid multicollinearity due to the increased standard error of beta coefficients and the potential negation of the utility of assessing the roles of predictor variables (Green, 1991; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007).

### Measures

Table 13 presents the means and standard deviations for the questionnaire

items measuring all variables and the reliability of the items measuring the observed variables. Reliability estimates ranged from good (Cronbach's  $\alpha = .73$ ) to excellent (Cronbach's  $\alpha = .94$ ).

The first variable, level of satisfaction, was measured with a total of 31 items from six subscales on a 1-5 Likert scale, with 1 being "strongly disagree" and 5 being "strongly agree." The reliability among the items was high (Cronbach's  $\alpha = .936$ ). The coefficient alpha scores for each subscale are as follows: general job satisfaction ( $\alpha = .735$ ), salary ( $\alpha = .783$ ), work itself ( $\alpha = .891$ ), company policy and administration ( $\alpha = .731$ ), recognition, ( $\alpha = .796$ ) and interpersonal relations ( $\alpha = .903$ ).

The second variable, organizational climate, was measured with a total of 13 items from three subscales on a 1-5 Likert scale, with 1 being "strongly disagree" and 5 being "strongly agree." The reliability among the items was high (Cronbach's  $\alpha = .866$ ). The coefficient alpha scores for each subscale are as follows: supervisory support ( $\alpha = .851$ ), esprit de corps ( $\alpha = .845$ ), and personal development ( $\alpha = .791$ ).

The third variable, organizational culture, was measured with a total of 20 items from seven subscales on a 1-5 Likert scale, with 1 being "strongly disagree" and 5 being "strongly agree." The reliability among the items was high (Cronbach's  $\alpha = .913$ ). The coefficient alpha scores for each subscale are as follows: honesty and people-orientation ( $\alpha = .873$ ), team orientation ( $\alpha = .793$ ), innovation ( $\alpha = .835$ ), valuing customers or service quality ( $\alpha = .728$ ), employee development ( $\alpha = .821$ ), fair compensation ( $\alpha = .745$ ) and results orientation ( $\alpha = .749$ ).

The fourth variable, career decision intention to stay, was measured with 16 items on a 1-5 Likert scale, with 1 being "strongly disagree" and 5 being "strongly agree." The reliability among the items was high (Cronbach's  $\alpha = .936$ ).

Table 13

*Scale Reliability Scores and Means/Standard Deviations of Questionnaire Items*

| Variables                                     | Subscale                             | Cronbach's Alpha | Mean  | SD   | # items |
|---|--------------------------------------|------------------|-------|------|---------|
| Level of satisfaction<br>( $\alpha = .936$ )  | General job satisfaction             | 0.735            | 3.216 | .799 | 3       |
|   | Salary                               | 0.783            | 3.870 | .774 | 3       |
|   | Work itself                          | 0.891            | 3.722 | .706 | 10      |
|   | Company policy and administration    | 0.731            | 3.492 | .784 | 3       |
|   | Recognition                          | 0.796            | 3.594 | .771 | 4       |
|   | Interpersonal relations              | 0.903            | 2.880 | .773 | 8       |
| Organizational climate<br>( $\alpha = .866$ ) | Supervisory support                  | 0.851            | 3.287 | .758 | 5       |
|   | Esprit de corps                      | 0.845            | 3.598 | .756 | 5       |
|   | Personal development                 | 0.791            | 3.370 | .759 | 3       |
| Organizational culture<br>( $\alpha = .913$ ) | Honesty and people orientation       | 0.873            | 3.627 | .798 | 3       |
|   | Team orientation                     | 0.793            | 3.750 | .820 | 3       |
|   | Innovation                           | 0.835            | 3.791 | .755 | 3       |
|   | Valuing customers or service quality | 0.728            | 3.846 | .754 | 3       |

|                           |                                   |       |        |      |    |
|---------------------------|-----------------------------------|-------|--------|------|----|
|                           | Employee development              | 0.821 | 3.646  | .775 | 3  |
|                           | Fair compensation                 | 0.745 | 3.9412 | .739 | 2  |
|                           | Results orientation               | 0.749 | 3.890  | .756 | 3  |
| Career decision intention | Career decision intention to stay | 0.936 | 3.498  | .693 | 16 |

### Confirmatory Factor Analysis

Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA), a variance-covariance structure analysis, is the most commonly and widely used data analytic tool in the organizational sciences (Crede & Harms, 2019). Confirmatory factor analysis focuses on the covariation between the observed variables (Lewis, 2017). Measurement models in previous studies based on CFA usually provides validity related to the internal structure of the model (Crede & Harms, 2019). The results of this study were evaluated with the SPSS 27.0 and Analysis of a Moment Structures (AMOS) 21.0 to test the validity and reliability of the scale through CFA and Cronbach's alpha coefficient. AMOS, the analysis of moment structures, is specially used for Structural Equation Modeling (SEM), path analysis, and CFA (Chan et al., 2007). Model fit indices in AMOS include Chi-square test, Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA), Goodness-of-Fit statistic (GFI), Adjusted Goodness-of-Fit Statistic (AGFI), Normed Fit Index (NFI), and Comparative Fit Index (CFI).

The Chi-square value is the traditional measure for evaluating overall model



fit and assessing the magnitude of discrepancy between the sample and fitted covariances matrices (Joreskog & Sorbom, 1993). However, the Chi-square value may not discriminate between good fitting models and poor fitting models when using small samples (Kenny & McCoach, 2003). Instead of the Chi-square value, relative/normed chi-square ( $\chi^2/df$ ) was sought by researchers as the alternative indices to assess the model fit (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007; Wheaton et al., 1977). The criterion for acceptance varies across researchers, ranging from less than 2 to less than 5 (Schumacker & Lomax, 2004).

The RMSEA, as one of the most informative fit indices, is sensitive to the number of estimated parameters in the model. It is worth mentioning that its confidence interval can be calculated around its value due to precisely testing for the poor fit (MacCallum et al., 1996; McQuitty, 2004). The range of RMSEA between 0.05 to 0.10 was generally reported as an indication of fair fit, and values above 0.10 indicated poor fit (MacCallum et al., 1996). The range of RMSEA between 0.08 to 0.10 provides a mediocre fit and below 0.08 shows a good fit (MacCallum et al., 1996; Marsh et al., 2004).

The GFI, as an alternative to the Chi-square test, calculates the proportion of variance accounted for by the estimated covariance and variances, indicating how closely the model comes to replicating the observed covariance matrix (Diammantopoulos et al., 2000; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). An omnibus cut-off point of 0.90 has been traditionally recommended for the GFI. Additionally, the AGFI

adjusts the GFI based upon degrees of freedom. The range of AGFI is between 0 and 1, and it is generally accepted that values of 0.90 or greater indicate well-fitting models (Hooper et al., 2008).

The NFI range between 0 and 1 assesses the model by comparing the  $\chi^2$  of the model to the  $\chi^2$  of the null model. Hu and Bentler (1999) suggest values of NFI greater than 0.90 indicating a good fit. The CFI, one of the most popularly reported fit indices, assumes that all observed variables are uncorrelated and compares the sample covariance matrix with the null model (Kline, 2015). The value of CFI range between 0.0 and 1.0, with values closer to 1.0 indicating a good fit. A value of  $CFI \geq 0.95$  is presently recognized as indicative of a good fit (Hu & Bentler, 1999; Shi et al., 2019).

The results of this study indicated that the model fit indicators of the proposed confirmatory factor analysis model are all good. As can be seen from Table 14, the model fit values of the first variable are  $\chi^2/df = 1.780$ , RMSEA = 0.050, SRMR = 0.046, CFI = 0.929, TLI = 0.922, IFI = 0.930 for the interns' level of satisfaction; the values of the second variable are  $\chi^2/df = 2.711$ , RMSEA = 0.073, SRMR = 0.043, CFI = 0.939, TLI = 0.923, IFI = 0.939 for the organizational climate; the values of the third variable are  $\chi^2/df = 1.840$ , RMSEA = 0.051, SRMR = 0.045, CFI = 0.958, TLI = 0.946, IFI = 0.958 for the organizational culture; the values of the fourth variable are  $\chi^2/df = 2.341$ , RMSEA = 0.065, SRMR = 0.036, CFI = 0.947, TLI = 0.939, IFI = 0.947 for the career decision intention to stay.

Table 14

*Model Fit*

| Index             | $\chi^2$ | $f$ | $\chi^2/df$ | RMSEA | SRMR  | CFI   | TLI   | IFI   |
|-------------------|----------|-----|-------------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|
| Standard criteria |          |     | <3.00       | <0.08 | <0.08 | >0.9  | >0.9  | >0.9  |
| Satisfaction      | 745.773  | 419 | 1.780       | 0.050 | 0.046 | 0.929 | 0.922 | 0.930 |
| OCLI              | 168.103  | 62  | 2.711       | 0.073 | 0.043 | 0.939 | 0.923 | 0.939 |
| OCUL              | 274.151  | 149 | 1.840       | 0.051 | 0.045 | 0.958 | 0.946 | 0.958 |
| CDI               | 243.428  | 104 | 2.341       | 0.065 | 0.036 | 0.947 | 0.939 | 0.947 |

Discriminant Validity Analysis

To confirm the discriminant validity of interns' level of satisfaction, organizational climate, organizational culture, and career decision intention to stay in this study, the author proposed the following three alternative models based on the benchmark model: 1) three factors model, combining interns' level of satisfaction and career decision intention to stay as one factor; 2) two factors model, combining interns' level of satisfaction and career decision intention to stay as one factor and combining organizational climate and organizational culture as another factor; 3) one-factor model, combining interns' level of satisfaction, organizational climate, organizational culture and career decision intention to stay as one factor. As shown in Table 15, these results show that a model where interns' level of satisfaction, organizational climate, organizational culture, and career decision intention to stay are separate factors providing the best fit to the data compared to the other three specifications. It means that the four factors (or benchmark) model fit the data well and better than the

other three models ( $\chi^2/df = 1.459$ , RMSEA = 0.038, SRMR = 0.041, CFI = 0.951, TLI = 0.947, IFI = 0.952). The four variables are distinct observed constructs.

Table 15

*Discriminant validity*

|                     | $\chi^2$ | <i>df</i> | $\chi^2/df$ | RMSEA | SRMR  | CFI   | TLI   | IFI   |
|---------------------|----------|-----------|-------------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|
| Standard criteria   |          |           | <3.00       | <0.08 | <0.08 | >0.9  | >0.9  | >0.9  |
| Proposed model      | 668.004  | 458       | 1.459       | 0.038 | 0.041 | 0,951 | 0.947 | 0.952 |
| Three factors model | 1054.397 | 461       | 2.287       | 0.064 | 0.065 | 0.862 | 0.852 | 0.863 |
| Two factors model   | 1185.667 | 463       | 2.561       | 0.070 | 0.075 | 0.832 | 0.820 | 0.834 |
| One factor model    | 1785.241 | 464       | 3.848       | 0.095 | 0.101 | 0.693 | 0.672 | 0.696 |

Correlational Analysis for Testing H1, H2 and H3

To analyze the meaningfulness of data, the author examined zero-order correlation coefficients between students' satisfaction, organizational climate, organizational culture, and intern's career decision intention under Cohen's effect size evaluation criterion (Cohen, 2013). Following Cohen's (2013) effect size evaluation criterion, correlation coefficients less than +/- 0.28 imply small effects; between +/-

0.28 and 0.49 imply medium effects, and greater than +/- 0.49 imply large effects.

H1 stated that there is a relationship between students' perception of the organizational climate of the internship workplace and their career decision intention to stay in the Chinese hospitality industry.

H2 stated that there is a relationship between students' perception of the organizational culture of the internship workplace and their career decision intention to stay in the Chinese hospitality industry.

H3 stated that there is a relationship between students' level of satisfaction with the internship experience and their career decision intention to stay in the Chinese hospitality industry.

Table 16 provides detailed correlational statistics regarding the relations between each variable. The results shown that interns' level of satisfaction was positively correlated with organizational climate ( $r = 0.192, p < 0.01$ ), organizational culture ( $r = 0.306, p < 0.01$ ) and career decision intention to stay ( $r = 0.503, p < 0.01$ ). Organizational climate was positively correlated with organizational culture ( $r = 0.193, p < 0.01$ ) and career decision intention to stay ( $r = 0.225, p < 0.01$ ). Organizational culture was positively correlated with career decision intention to stay ( $r = 0.296, p < 0.01$ ). Thus, the research evidence supports H1, H2 and H3.

Table 16

*Zero-Order Correlation Coefficients*

|              | Mean  | SD    | Satisfaction | OCLI   | OCUL   | CDI |
|--------------|-------|-------|--------------|--------|--------|-----|
| Satisfaction | 3.431 | 0.575 | 1            |        |        |     |
| OCLI         | 3.426 | 0.587 | .192**       | 1      |        |     |
| OCUL         | 3.777 | 0.558 | .306**       | .193** | 1      |     |
| CDI          | 3.498 | 0.693 | .503**       | .225** | .296** | 1   |

Note.  $N = 318$ . \*\* $p < .01$ . OCLI is organizational climate. OCUL is organizational culture. CDI is career decision intention to stay.

In summary, results indicated that interns' level of satisfaction, perceptions of organizational climate, perceptions of organizational culture, and career decision intention to stay were all significantly and positively related, providing empirical support for H1, H2, and H3. Students who scored highly on their career decision intention to stay reported high levels of satisfaction, perceived organizational climate, and organizational culture.

#### Hierarchical Regression Analysis for Testing H4 and H5

H4 stated that the relationship between students' level of satisfaction with their internship experience and their career decision intention to stay in the Chinese hospitality industry will be moderated by organizational climate.

H5 stated that the relationship between students' level of satisfaction with their internship experience and their career decision intention to stay in the Chinese hospitality industry will be moderated by organizational culture.

Hierarchical regression was employed to test H4 and H5. As an advanced

form of linear regression, hierarchical regression analysis, including two-way interaction terms, is an alternative to comparing betas when assessing the unique variance contributed by independent variables (Aiken & West, 1991). Hierarchical regression analysis allows the author to examine the extent to which regression coefficients vary across different variables while borrowing strength from the full sample. It was appropriate for testing the hypotheses because of its ability to detect unique variance in the outcome variables from the pooled variance of independents (Hinkle et al., 2006), meanwhile using centered predictor variables to reduce multicollinearity (Aiken & West, 1991; Cohen & Cohen, 1983).

Four models were tested, and the changes in the resulting  $R^2$  values were analyzed. Table 17 presents the results of the hierarchical regression analyses. The first model indicated that interns' level of satisfaction contributed significantly to the regression model and accounted for 25.3% of variation in career decision intention to stay ( $\beta = 0.503, p < 0.001$ ), contributing unique variance to the prediction of career decision intention to stay in the regression equation ( $R^2 = 0.253$ ). Adding the organizational climate variable to the regression model explained an additional 3.6% of variation in career decision intention to stay and this change in  $R^2$  was significant ( $\beta = 0.186, p < 0.001$ ). Adding the organizational culture variable to the regression model explained an additional 3.2% of variation in career decision intention to stay and this change in  $R^2$  was not significant. Finally, the addition of both of organizational climate and organizational culture to the regression model explained an

additional 5.5% of variation in career decision intention to stay and this change in  $R^2$  was significant ( $R^2 = 0.342, p < 0.001$ ). Together the three independent variables accounted for 34.2% of variance in career decision intention to stay.

Table 17

*Results of the hierarchical regression analysis*

|                   | Model 1    |           | Model 2   |          | Model 3 |          | Model 4   |          |
|-------------------|------------|-----------|-----------|----------|---------|----------|-----------|----------|
|                   | $\beta$    | $t$       | $\beta$   | $t$      | $\beta$ | $t$      | $\beta$   | $t$      |
| Satisfaction      | 0.503      | 10.340*** | 0.441     | 9.057*** | 0.443   | 8.957*** | 0.397     | 8.000*** |
| OCLI              |            |           | 0.134     | 2.805**  |         |          | 0.114     | 2.402**  |
| OCUL              |            |           |           |          | 0.160   | 3.247**  | 0.151     | 3.097*   |
| Satisfaction*OCLI |            |           | 0.186     | 4.041*** |         |          | 0.155     | 3.284**  |
| Satisfaction*OCUL |            |           |           |          | 0.170   | 3.807*** | 0.126     | 2.753**  |
| $R^2$             | 0.253      |           | 0.306     |          | 0.307   |          | 0.342     |          |
| adj $R^2$         | 0.250      |           | 0.299     |          | 0.301   |          | 0.332     |          |
| $\Delta R^2$      | 0.253      |           | 0.036***  |          | 0.032   |          | 0.055***  |          |
| $F$               | 106.907*** |           | 46.140*** |          | 46.415  |          | 32.456*** |          |

Note: \* $p < 0.05$ ; \*\* $p < 0.01$ ; \*\*\* $p < 0.001$ . All coefficients reported are standardized

betas. OCLI is Organizational climate. OCUL is Organizational Culture.  $N = 318$ .

To further test the moderating effect, the bootstrapping procedure with 5,000 iterations was performed in this study to examine the statistical significance of the path coefficients (Chin et al., 2008). Bootstrap percentile confidence intervals of the path coefficients could help assess the relevance of the estimated parameters (Chin,



1998). The bootstrapping generates *t*-statistics, and confidence intervals for the standardized regression coefficients are used to identify the relevance of each direct effect (Henseler et al., 2009).

As shown in Table 18 and Figure 4, for interns who have a high or low level of perceived organizational climate, there is a significant positive relationship between their level of satisfaction and career decision intention to stay. However, the simple slope effect of those having a high level of perceived organizational climate (simple slope = 0.628,  $t = 10.344$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ) is much higher than that of those having a low level of perceived organizational climate (simple slope = 0.255,  $t = 3.497$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ). This indicates the protective effect of a high perceived organizational climate. Therefore, the H4 was supported.

Table 18

*Simple slope analysis - organizational climate*

| OCLI         | Effect | se    | <i>t</i> | <i>p</i> | LLCI  | ULCI  |
|--------------|--------|-------|----------|----------|-------|-------|
| <i>M-1SD</i> | 0.255  | 0.073 | 3.497    | 0.001    | 0.112 | 0.398 |
| <i>M</i>     | 0.441  | 0.049 | 9.057    | 0.000    | 0.345 | 0.537 |
| <i>M+1SD</i> | 0.628  | 0.061 | 10.344   | 0.000    | 0.508 | 0.747 |

*Note.* OCLI is Organizational climate. LLCI is Lower Limit Confidence Interval.

ULCI is upper limit confidence interval.  $N = 318$ .

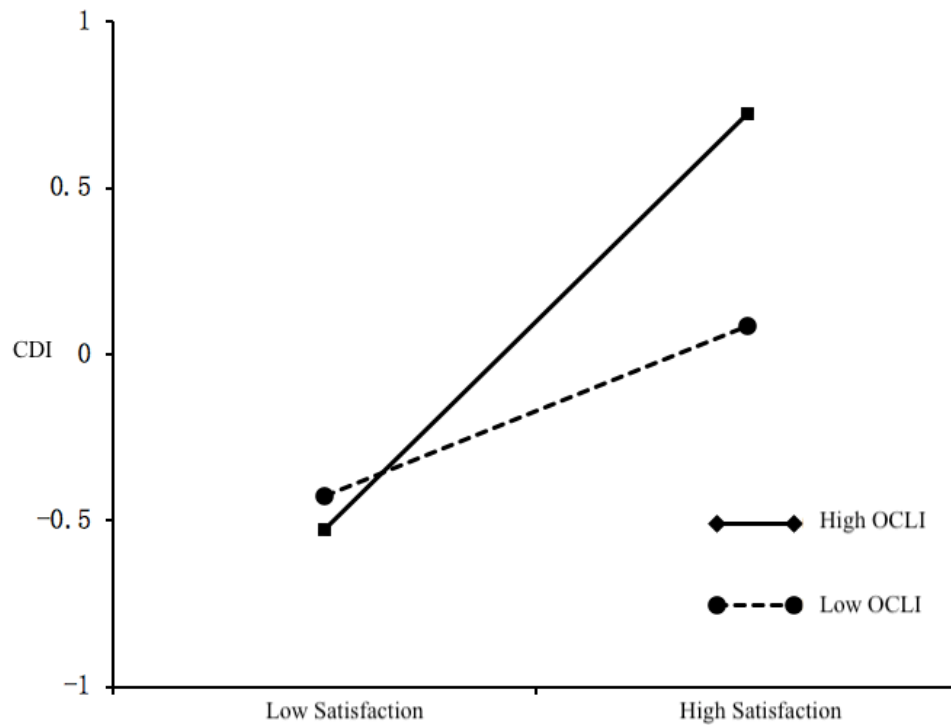


Figure 4. *Simple slope for the interaction effect of interns' level of satisfaction and perceived organizational climate on career decision intention to stay*

As shown in Table 19 and Figure 5, for interns who have a high or low level of perceived organizational culture, there is a significant positive relationship between their level of satisfaction and career decision intention to stay. But the simple slope effect of those having a high level of perceived organizational culture (simple slope = 0.612,  $t = 9.507$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ) is much higher than that of those having a low level of perceived organizational culture (simple slope = 0.273,  $t = 3.978$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ). This indicates the protective effect of high perceived organizational culture. Therefore, H5 was supported.

Table 19

*Simple slope analysis - organizational culture*

| OCUL  | Effect | se    | <i>t</i> | <i>p</i> | LLCI  | ULCI  |
|-------|--------|-------|----------|----------|-------|-------|
| M-1SD | 0.273  | 0.069 | 3.978    | 0.000    | 0.138 | 0.408 |
| M     | 0.443  | 0.049 | 8.957    | 0.000    | 0.345 | 0.540 |
| M+1SD | 0.612  | 0.064 | 9.507    | 0.000    | 0.486 | 0.739 |

*Note.* OCUL is Organizational Culture. LLCI is Lower Limit Confidence Interval. ULCI is upper limit confidence interval. *N* = 318.

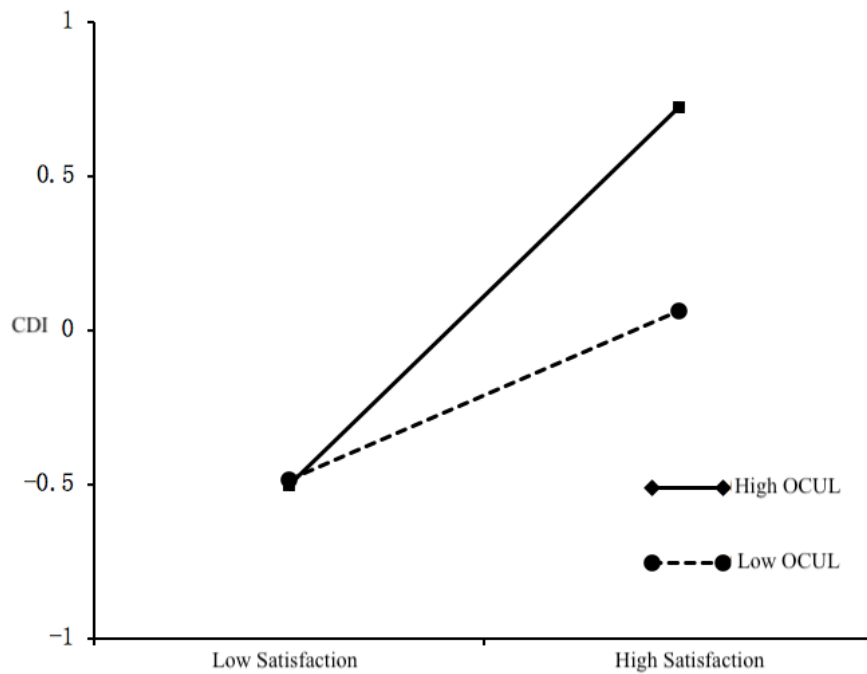


Figure 5. Simple slope for the interaction effect of interns' level of satisfaction and perceived organizational culture on career decision intention to stay

### Summary

The results of this study completely support the five proposed hypotheses in this study. The variables interns' satisfaction, perceived organizational climate, perceived organizational culture were all significantly and positively associated with

career decision intention to stay. Furthermore, the results confirmed that the relationship between interns' level of satisfaction and their career decision intention to stay was moderated by organizational climate and organizational culture. Chapter 5 discusses the result of findings and implications for research, theory, and practical applications.

## CHAPTER V

### DISCUSSION

Chapter 5 provides a brief summary of the study, followed by a discussion of the results. Implications for research, theory, and practical applications are also offered in this chapter followed by limitations of the study and recommendations for future research.

#### Summary of the Study

In this study, the researcher focused on examining the relationship among internship level of satisfaction, organizational climate, organizational culture, and students' career decision intention to stay in the Chinese hospitality industry and examining the extent to which the internship satisfaction-career decision intention to stay relationship is moderated by organizational climate and organizational culture.

In Chapter 1, the researcher pointed out that internships in the hotel industry, as an opportunity for students to apply knowledge of theories to practical problems in a real workplace setting, is the most significant practical link for students to feel and evaluate whether this career is compatible with their interests and personality (Zopiatis, 2007). However, few students who participate in hotel industry internships have high job satisfaction and subsequently choose the hotel industry as their future career (Daskin, 2016; Koc et al., 2014). Moreover, due to the high level of turnover, retaining graduates is an important practical problem to solve in the Chinese hotel industry. Managers need not only to better understand students' internship experiences

and their low intentions to stay in the hospitality industry, but also how to reduce the cost of training associated with retaining graduates, developing competent employees, and hiring new employees.

Important concepts explored in this study are level of satisfaction, organizational climate, organizational culture, and career decision intention to stay. As an antecedent variable in this study, the intern's level of satisfaction refers to the status of a student's feeling and perception during the internship resulting mainly from the environmental conditions or other affective factors surrounding the job. The discrepancy between students' expectations and perceptions of internship experiences mostly resulted in lower satisfaction levels (Luo & Lam, 2019). Low satisfaction during the internship in the hotel industry has been linked to less student interest to choose to work in the hotel as a future career. Decreasing interns' dissatisfaction is vital because it can increase productivity, decrease training costs, and intern turnover rates (Dixon et al., 2005).

Organizational climate is viewed as the aggregate perceptions of the characteristics in the organizations, and it has been shown in several studies to correlate with job satisfaction and turnover intentions (Subramanian & Shin, 2013; Thakre & Shroff, 2016). Organizational culture is used to investigate the evolution of social systems of the organization over time and the importance of deep underlying assumptions. It has long been viewed as an important factor associated with employees' job performance and intention to stay (Liang, 2011; Tepeci, 2005).

The purpose of this nonexperimental, quantitative study was to examine the relationship among interns' level of satisfaction, organizational climate, organizational culture, and career decision intention to stay in the Chinese hospitality industry, as well as to examine the extent to which the internship satisfaction-career decision intention to stay relationship is moderated both by organizational climate and organizational culture.

Three overarching research questions guided this study: (a) What are the relationships between organizational climate, the organizational culture of the internship workplace, and students' career decision intention to stay when they graduate in the Chinese hospitality industry? (b) What is the relation between Chinese students' level of satisfaction with the internship experience and career decision intention to stay when they graduate? And (c) Does the internship workplace's organizational climate or culture moderate the relationship between interns' level of satisfaction and career decision intention to stay in the Chinese hospitality industry when they graduate? Consequently, the researcher hypothesizes the following:

H1: There is a relationship between students' perception of the organizational climate of the internship workplace and their career decision intention to stay in the Chinese hospitality industry.

H2: There is a relationship between students' perception of the organizational culture of the internship workplace and their career decision intention to stay in the Chinese hospitality industry.

H3: There is a relationship between students' level of satisfaction with the internship experience and their career decision intention to stay in the Chinese hospitality industry.

H4: The relationship between students' level of satisfaction with their internship experience and their career decision intention to stay in the Chinese hospitality industry will be moderated by organizational climate (climate will facilitate the relationship).

H5: The relationship between students' level of satisfaction with their internship experience and their career decision intention to stay in the Chinese hospitality industry will be moderated by organizational culture (culture will facilitate the relationship).

Based on survey results, confirmatory factor analysis, discriminant validity analysis, correlational analysis and hierarchical regression analysis were used to test the hypothesized model and examine the hypotheses. Results suggested that there was a positive relationship between students' career decision intention to stay in the Chinese hospitality industry and their level of satisfaction, organizational climate, organizational culture, respectively. Furthermore, the results indicated that the relationship between students' level of satisfaction with their internship experience and their career decision intention to stay in the Chinese hospitality industry can be moderated by organizational climate and organizational culture.



## Discussion of the Results

In this section, the researcher discusses the results from this study and their implications, going through each of the five proposed hypotheses. The results were statistically significant and indicated potential relationships among the variables of interest. A brief summary closes the section.

### Hypothesis 1

The first hypothesis stated that there is a relationship between interns' perception of the organizational climate of the internship workplace and their career decision intention to stay in the Chinese hospitality industry. The correlational analysis indicated that interns' perception of the organizational climate of the internship workplace is positively and significantly correlated with their career decision intention to stay in the hospitality industry when they graduate ( $r = 0.225, p < 0.01$ ).

This finding is consistent with previous research by other scholars (Shanker et al., 2017; Subramanian & Shin, 2013; Vong et al., 2018) who have studied the relationship between organizational climate and career intentions. Masaiti and Naluyele (2011) indicated that, except for motivating tools such as bonuses, the other attracting factor retaining employees is organizational climate. So that, when employees feel the link with the organization and co-employees, understand the vision, goals, and expressed purpose of the organization, work can be engaged more effectively in the hotel industry (Subramanian & Shin, 2013). Consequently, a healthy

organizational climate promotes the sense of belonging of the employees, while an unhealthy, discouraging organizational climate may expedite employee turnover (Alkahtani, 2015; Rashid et al., 2009; Schyns et al., 2009). Employees who perceived a positive organizational climate were more likely to remain or stay in their current job, meaning a positive organizational climate is necessary to keep them engaged (Vong et al., 2018).

Although there is little to no research using students as a sample to examine the relationship between perceived organizational climate during the internship and intention to stay in the hospitality industry upon graduation, previous educational research has emphasized that students' academic performances and their adaption to school during an internship were influenced by school climate (Brand et al., 2003; Calik & Kurt, 010). Therefore, this research extends those findings by providing empirical evidence of the effect of organizational climate on individual learners through a satisfactory internship experience to adapting and consequently intending to make a career in the hospitality industry.

## Hypothesis 2

H2 stated that there would be a relationship between interns' perception of the organizational culture of the internship workplace and their career decision intention to stay in the Chinese hospitality industry. The correlational analysis indicated that interns' perception of the organizational culture of the internship workplace was positively and significantly correlated with their career decision intention to stay ( $r =$

0.296,  $p < 0.01$ ). Findings show support for H2.

The role of organizational culture in employee turnover intention has been studied from several angles in different industries (e.g., Alzubi, 2018; Bosomtwe & Obeng, 2018; Gavartina et al., 2013). Shim (2014) found the relationship between organizational culture and turnover in a sample of employees at public child welfare agencies, such that low turnover agencies had a more positive organizational culture than high turnover agencies. Idiegbeyan-Ose et al. (2018) revealed a significant relationship between organizational culture and turnover intention of library staff in private University Libraries and suggested that organizational culture that is human-friendly leads to a reduction in employees' turnover intentions. Several recent research also indicated that maintaining a positive organizational culture is necessary to increase productivity and keep happy, engaged employees (e.g., Abbas et al., 2020; Hakro et al., 2021; Lee & Jang, 2020; Park & Jeong, 2020).

A previous study indicated that graduates whose personal values were a good fit with organizational culture values would tend to have significantly higher job satisfaction and intentions to continue working in their firms than those who did not (Chatman, 1989). Individuals are more likely to be satisfied in their employment with the organizations and have a low turnover intention when they can feel the organization is supportive and empowered (Gavartina et al., 2013). Satisfied employees are more likely to increase market share and profit (Swarnalatha & Sureshkrishna, 2013). It would stand to reason that organizations would benefit from

a supportive organizational culture, with better profits and healthier teamwork (Wright, 2021).

Moreover, some qualitative studies also support this relationship. For instance, Mulcahy and Betts (2005) reported that improving organizational culture was associated with decreases in the turnover intentions of neonatal nurses. However, some studies have failed to support the relationship between organizational culture and turnover intention. For instance, in a nationwide study of mental health clinics, the differences in culture profiles were not significantly influence the turnover rates (Glisson et al., 2008). Although there are mixed findings for the relationship between organizational culture and turnover intention, no existing study was found that discusses this relationship in the hospitality internship using a sample of students. Present results added support to the notion that organizational culture during the internship plays a critical role in students' career decisions intention to stay in the hospitality industry and provided insight into the potential complexity in this relationship in the context of China.

### Hypothesis 3

H3 stated that there would be a relationship between interns' level of satisfaction with the internship experience and their career decision intention to stay in the Chinese hospitality industry. Results from the correlational analysis indicated that interns' level of satisfaction with the internship experience was positively and significantly correlated with their career decision intention to stay in the Chinese

hospitality industry ( $r = 0.503, p < 0.01$ ).

A high level of job satisfaction does not mean that turnover will be low, but suggests that it may help (Luthans, 2005). As a key motivational variable determining an employee's career decision intention behavior, job satisfaction was revealed by several recent researchers that it is positively related with employees' intention to stay or negatively related with employees' turnover intention (e.g., Aburumman et al., 2020; Chan & Mai, 2015; Chen & Wang, 2019; Guan et al., 2017). In the hospitality industry, a high level of job satisfaction could lead to organizational commitment, loyalty, and intention to stay, while employees who cannot achieve job satisfaction are more like to quit the job (Jang & George, 2012; Kong et al., 2018). Kim et al. (2018) indicated that Gen-Y employees generally showed a lower level of job satisfaction and loyalty and a higher level of turnover intention.

In the context of internship in the hospitality industry, the findings of this study align with research conducted by others that indicate there is a positive relationship between interns' satisfaction and their career decision intention when they graduate (e.g., Farmaki, 2018; Lopez, 2019). Low internship satisfaction may cause a student to quickly turn away from the industry (Siu et al., 2012). Previous studies pointed out that hotel management students are not satisfied with working conditions and environment during the internship, which in turn negatively influences their intention to seek a future career in the hospitality industry after graduation (Chen et al., 2018; Jenkins, 2001). Present results provide support for and parallel other

research (e.g., Eason et al., 2018; Song & Chathoth, 2011), suggesting that to the degree a student can perceive a higher level of job satisfaction during the internship, they could potentially have a higher level of career intention to stay in the hospitality industry upon graduation.

#### Hypothesis 4

H4 stated that the relationship between students' level of satisfaction with their internship experience and their career decision intention to stay in the Chinese hospitality industry would be moderated by organizational climate. Having a moderation effect means the moderator variable, organizational climate, may strengthen or dampen the relationship between interns' satisfaction and career decision intention to stay in the hospitality industry. The researcher used hierarchical regression analysis to investigate the direct and indirect relationships between variables to investigate this hypothesis. Results from the hierarchical regression analysis presented evidence of the protective effect of positive perceived organizational climate. Therefore, organizational climate has a moderation effect between interns' satisfaction and career decision intention to stay in the hospitality industry when they graduate, which means interns' satisfaction has an impact on how they decide their future work through organizational climate. Organizational climate plays a significant moderating role between interns' satisfaction and career decision intention to stay in the hospitality industry.

This result seems logical because organizational climate can be seen as a key

variable of organizational success (Sugiarto, 2018). An individual's sense of organizational climate can likely impact their interpretation of job satisfaction during the internship and their career decision intention. Bhaesajsanguan (2010) found evidence to support the notion that organizational climate has a positive relationship with organizational commitment and positively affects job satisfaction in the telecommunications industry. A conducive organizational climate will lead to a higher level of job satisfaction and commitment to each individual working within the organization. Research from Vong et al. (2018) supports the wider idea that organizational climate affects employees' commitment. Similarly, their study also identified organizational climate as a moderator in the relationship between job stress and intent to stay. Moreover, Diab et al. (2021) indicated that creating a positive organizational climate that has an orientation towards change encourages and supports employees' new ideas and innovative approaches.

#### Hypothesis 5

H5 stated that the relationship between students' level of satisfaction with their internship experience and their career decision intention to stay in the Chinese hospitality industry would be moderated by organizational culture. By using the hierarchical regression analysis, the research investigated the direct and indirect relationships between variables to investigate this hypothesis. Results from the hierarchical regression analysis presented evidence of the protective effect of high perceived organizational culture. Therefore, organizational culture has a moderation

effect between interns' satisfaction and career decision intention to stay in the hospitality industry, which means interns' satisfaction has an impact on their career decision intention when they graduate through organizational culture.

This result aligns with previous Western studies that indicate the relationship between intention to stay and job satisfaction is moderated by organizational culture, suggesting that organizational culture may help to enhance intention to stay by improving job satisfaction. As far back as the 1990s, O'Reilly et al. (1991) and Kelly (1998) investigated the relationship between organizational culture and job satisfaction, and they found that organizations with strong cultures tend to express greater organizational commitment and thus result in greater job satisfaction. Moreover, by conducting the research in a large not-for-profit organization in the USA, Saha and Kumar (2018) confirmed the moderator role of two kinds of organizational culture - supportive and innovative cultures - and indicated that organizational culture not only enhances the positive influence of employees' commitments on job satisfaction but also mitigates the negative influences of commitments on job satisfaction.

Although it is evident that organizational culture is linked to job satisfaction and career decision intention, little research has been done on how organizational culture affects graduates' satisfaction during the internship and career decision intention when they graduate. Many of the available studies focused on employees rather than concentrating solely on graduates during the internship in the hotel



industry (Jusoh et al., 2011). Using the sample of Indonesian student trainees in restaurants, Widjaja et al. (2007) found that it is imperative to make the trainees feel comfortable with the organizational culture; otherwise, they will not be satisfied and perform well, leading to customer dissatisfaction and quitting their jobs. Therefore, based upon this study's findings, organizational culture moderates the relation between students' satisfaction during the internship and their career decision intention when they graduate.

#### Implications for Theory, Research and Practice

Due to the difficulty of retaining interns in the Chinese hospitality industry, which is quickly growing and labor-intensive, interns' job satisfaction and their engagements have been embraced by human resource researchers and practitioners as something of emerging significance (Qu et al., 2021; Teng & Cheng, 2021). Results in this study suggested that organizational climate and organizational culture are important organizational variables with links to interns' job satisfaction and their intention to stay in the hospitality industry. The present study makes contributions to both the fields of human resource development and hospitality management. The following sections review this study's implications on theory, research, and practice.

#### Implications for Theory

First, while previous studies have emphasized the role of job satisfaction on career intention (e.g., Aburumman et al., 2020; Chen & Wang, 2019; Chan & Mai, 2015; Guan et al., 2017), very few studies have considered the relevance of

Herzberg's (1959) two-factor theory and Parsons' (1909) theory of career decision to an internship program in the hotel industry. From a theoretical perspective, the present results extended these two theories into the hotel internship field and identified that, as predicted by these theories, students' satisfaction during the internship had a significant and positive relationship with their career decision intention when they graduate. This study supports the utility of these theories for research in the Chinese hospitality industry and demonstrates the need for a thorough understanding of interns' satisfaction factors for long-term industry success. Getting a certain level of satisfaction during the internship will foster a positive emotional feeling about an individual's future job (Saham & Kumar, 2018).

Second, although most previous studies have investigated job satisfaction in the hotel industry, few have been done with undergraduate students who majored in hospitality management. This study represents the first attempt to explore the hotel internship through the student's perception in the context of Chinese culture. This study firstly applied and empirically tested the General Job Satisfaction Scale (Hackman & Oldham, 1975), Job Dissatisfaction Questionnaire (Sithiphand, 1983), Tourism and Hospitality Organizational Climate Scale-Revised (Manning et al., 2004), Hospitality Industry Culture Profile (Tepeci, 2001) and Career Decision Scale (Osipow et al., 1976) for the internship in the hotel industry among Chinese undergraduate students. The combination of these five measurements has yielded a valuable research instrument, supported by the CFA results, that could be used

effectively in future studies of this nature.

### Implications for Research

First, this research has provided an extension of research about students' perceptions during the internship, particularly in a Chinese hotel industry context. The results provided stronger support for the positive relationship between interns' satisfaction and their intention to stay and the moderating role of organizational climate and organizational culture. This in turn opens avenues to further investigate hospitality students' working experiences during the internship, which was viewed as a transient working period. The literature relating to the hospitality internship program is relatively small compared to other departments of the hospitality literature. The research has provided a foundation for future research to build upon when studying the hospitality internship program.

Second, the data analysis indicated that all variables measured in this research are reliable indicators of organizational climate and organizational culture. In summary, the reliability of the items measured by Cronbach's  $\alpha$  range from .86 to .94, which ranks from acceptable to excellent. These results ultimately supported using these measures as reliable and valid, meaning each measurement is a useful tool to measure important aspects of the workplace environment, job satisfaction, and career intention in a Chinese cultural context. Further, future research measuring organizational climate or organizational culture can utilize the same scales in different industries or departments. Upgraded scales also can be developed by future

researchers based on current scales.

Third, the HR/D researcher could further test this proposed research model, and the antecedent and outcome variables examined in this study. Casual comparative methods could be used in future research with diverse department settings (e.g., front desk, back-office position), diverse demographic (e.g., gender, education, skill), and other organizationally pertinent variables (e.g., organizational trust, organizational justice). Longitudinal research would also benefit to better understand how employees' perceptions of each variable in this model changeover periods of time. For example, HR/D researchers could focus on a group of employees over a month, year, or even 3-year period to examine how the relationship between employees' perceptions of organizational culture and their intention to stay changes throughout the work cycle or how employees' perceptions of organizational climate changes when there are some new employees joining the department.

Finally, qualitative research methods (e.g., single case study, structured interview) also could be used to provide a more in-depth understanding of the variables. It would be interesting to conduct interviews with individuals who voluntarily quit the industry, perhaps by gender, providing more direct insights into each organizational variable. The convergence of qualitative research findings along with quantitative findings in a mixed-method study could increase the external validity of this research.

## Implications for Practice

The first practical implication is discussed from a university perspective. As a trial period for students stepping into the real workplace, the internship should be acknowledged by universities as to its importance and actively introduced when providing an overview of the hospitality internship. Students who lack work experience are easily confused about their futures and often perplexed by an unsatisfactory internship experience. Career advisors at the university should take the initiative to understand students' needs before the internships are implemented. Advisors need to help the students mentally prepare for their internship and prevent them from having unrealistic expectations of the internships that might affect their career intention in the hospitality industry when they graduate. Career advisors also should provide timely guidance and help students address the confusion encountered at work to increase their satisfaction and elevate their levels of job confidence. Establishing an effective evaluation system that includes a student satisfaction survey should be able to help students understand their own strengths and weaknesses, as well as to advise university update courses context based on the latest industry situation, rather than simply assigning a grade to the internship course.

Furthermore, successful alumni working in the hospitality industry should be invited to share information and suggestions with students to be prepared and have realistic workplace expectations. These first-hand experiences from alumni may effectively help students prepare themselves mentally towards a smoother transition

into a realistic working environment (Jusoh et al., 2011). Once hospitality students have an understanding of the support provided by the university and set realistic goals related to their future career, they are likely to be more committed to not only their jobs, but also careers (Chuang & Dellmann-Jenkins, 2010).

The second practical implication is discussed from a hospitality industry perspective. According to the psychological factors being increasingly important for job satisfaction and intention to stay (Benevene et al., 2018; Kong et al., 2018; Wang et al., 2020), the manager should create a pro-diversity climate and harmonious environment to help reduce employees' stress (Madera et al., 2013; Vong et al., 2018) and increase their engagement (Ayutthaya et al., 2016; Ghanem & Mahmoud, 2019). Individuals who perceived a high level of organizational climate or culture show relatively more job satisfaction and less intention to leave (Ehrhart & Kuenzi, 2017; MacIntosh & Doherty, 2010). Leaders in the hospitality industry should understand that the loss of valuable employees could potentially impact service quality, subsequently causing financial distress to the company (Yang et al., 2012). To reduce employee turnover and create a healthier and more profitable company, managers could improve factors such as personal security, interpersonal relationships, performance support, organizational learning, and work overload (Holston-Okae & Mushi, 2018; Marin-Pantelescu, & Maniu, 2015). More specifically, managers could provide clear work roles and job descriptions, support adequate equipment, and give employees the opportunities to improve skills for jobs that have variety and security.

The following three indicators from organizational climate and organizational culture provide further implications for HR/D practitioners to design socialization efforts for retaining interns.

*Interpersonal recognition.* As an important motivator of behavior, interpersonal recognition received by interns from colleagues could make interns acquire a sense of belonging, such as acknowledging interns' behaviors, attitudes, and efforts, giving proper and timely feedback, smiling, calling interns by their names, or simply verbalizing their appreciation could also make student interns feel valued (Lee & Chao, 2013). HR/D practitioners could invite interns to join informal meetings or social events in or outside the organization to make employees' feelings valued which led to lower turnover (Rhoades et al., 2001).

*Fair compensation.* Managers should be acutely aware of the need to build a fair compensation system because most participants in this research indicated "fair compensation" as the most important dimension they care about. Employees should be paid for what they are worth and not only standard salary guidelines. This result is consistent with previous research, which indicated that compensation and benefits positively impact young people's intention to stay in the organizations (Ertas, 2015; Islam et al., 2020; Johari et al., 2012). A fair compensation system should be based on seniority rather than performance. HR/D practitioners also could make an effort to improve the employees' perception of the rewards dimension, such as providing succession planning, professional development program, and benefits packages

(Subramanian & Shin, 2013). Employees are more likely to stay in organizations that offer more opportunities for career advancement and interpersonal support (Riley, 2006). Wanggroup, the leader of the food and beverage industry in Taiwan, developed a monthly bonus and stock bonus plan for student interns and successfully keeps qualified interns and achieves a competitive advantage (Wu & Wu, 2006).

*Supervisor leadership and support.* The leadership of supervisors affects interns greatly during the internship in the hospitality industry (Su, 2006). Previous research indicated that under poor supervision, interns commonly feel that their work is not valued by the organization, and loyalty is difficult to form; while when interns are being too much watched and policed, they feel the organization does not trust or respect them. Thus, as the main resource to execute supervision, HR/D practitioners should not only be rule enforcers but also understand and support interns. An approachable HR/D practitioner should acknowledge efforts, communicate with them more explicitly and reward them through non-material incentives, for example, praising them in the department meeting for their excellent working performance (Michel et al., 2013). HR/D practitioners also could establish counseling programs for helping interns relieve negative emotions, get them through difficult times and cultivate their self-confidence (Dagsland et al., 2011).

Moreover, the alignment of senior managers, subordinates, and HR/D practitioners on articulating and implementing organizational climate and culture is important to increase job satisfaction and employee retention and, correspondingly,



reduce turnover costs (Dawson & Abbott, 2009). This unity confers consistency on organizational climate and culture, suggesting effective knowing, articulating, and implementing. Active communication by HR/D practitioners is also very important in the unity, resulting in employee cooperation, higher market profitability, greater organizational performance, and efficiencies, which helps organizations operate in environmentally sustainable business practices (Li et al., 2011).

Furthermore, the Tourism and Hospitality Organizational Climate Scale-Revised (Manning et al., 2004) and Hospitality Industry Culture Profile (Tepeci, 2001) can be used by the hospitality industry to gather long-term employees' perceptions about the organizational climate and organizational culture and generate profiles of their ideal organizational climate and culture. Based on these two scales, managers could decide what they should take specific action to achieve for the organization. These two scales could be used in between different hierarchical levels, which may provide multilevel analysis of organizational culture and climate, as well as used to identify the similarities and discrepancies if a hotel brand has numerous branches (Bavik, 2016; Deery & Shaw, 1999).

#### Limitations of the Study

The present study has limitations as is the case for all research. This section discusses the possible limitations, including constraints of sample characteristics from utilizing convenience sampling, self-reported data, social desirability bias, and limitations related to variables.

The first limitation in this study was the use of nonprobability convenience sampling, which focused on students who majored in Hospitality and Tourism Management from TUC-FIU. Although using nonprobability convenience samples is common in exploratory research, it made it difficult generalizing the present results to the entire population and decreasing its potential generalizability to different majors using internships and industry (Goldberg et al., 2018; Jager et al., 2017). Because the results of this nonexperimental research cannot handle internal validity or rival explanation issues sufficiently well (Bullock et al., 2010; Stone-Romero & Rosopa, 2008).

The second limitation is using self-reported data from online questionnaires, which is a common research method to collect data measuring a subject's perceptions. Although self-reports tend to be inexpensive and relatively easy to distribute, it raises the possibility of common method variance bias resulting in inflated or deflated correlations among the variables (Herzog & Bowman, 2011; Paulhus & Vazire, 2007). Due to the data collected from a single source, common method variance (CMV) may be a potential problem in the present study (Podsakoff et al., 2003). Guided by Reio (2010), the following ways were undertaken in this research to reduce the likelihood of CMV bias. First, participant anonymity and confidentiality were ensured. Second, participants were informed there was no correct or preferred answer, focusing instead on an honest response. Third, instructions for the survey were presented, minimizing potential participants confusion. A pilot study was conducted

by the current researcher to reduce the chance of nonresponse error, sampling error, and measurement error during the data collection process.

Based on the concept of social desirability bias, the third limitation is that participants may tend to deny socially undesirable traits and claim instead socially desirable ones because they were asked to report some sensitive information about the organization (Kelly et al., 2017; Miller, 2011). Thus, social desirability bias could influence responses as questions in this research asked individuals to report students' own thoughts and feelings about the internship workplace. The following steps were completed by the researcher to reduce social desirability bias: 1) offering anonymity survey without having to leave any identifying detail; 2) self-administered survey; and 3) using neutral questions (Krosnick, 2018; Nederhof, 1985).

Lastly, further studies need to be conducted to examine other possible factors that may influence students' career decision intention, as well as analyze perceptions from different job positions in the hotel industry. Because even there is a strong and supportive organizational culture among administrative employees, much of the effects of the positive culture may be diluted if the organizational culture does not extend to front-line employees (Cronley & Kyoung, 2017).

#### Recommendations for Future Research

First, this study is a cross-sectional study in the hotel industry from Chinese interns' perceptions, so a longitudinal study is suggested to be conducted for future research to find possible relationships and trends among the subjects studied, as well

as potential future shifts of interns' perceptions. Future research might compare data obtained during the final week of internship with that obtained at the beginning of the internship to test this hypothesis. Given that human society evolves, utilizing multiple years of data and results could reveal trends changing and influence of underlying variables across time such as age, job position, education, etc.

The second recommendation for future research is to gain the perspective of the experienced workers in the hospitality industry, which may add insight to their behavioral intentions regarding job satisfaction, organizational climate, and organizational culture. Conducting a study directed at employees who are in different working experience levels may add to the body of knowledge and have a practical application for managers and HR/D professionals when making adjustments to organizational climate and organizational culture.

Third, future research could investigate other factors besides organizational climate and organizational culture that could moderate the relationship between job satisfaction and employee career decision intention, including factors such as gender, leadership behavior, affective commitment, and motivation. The research method is also suggested by the research to consider qualitative research method or a mixed-research method to collect more comprehensive data to better understand the variables that drive employee job satisfaction and intention to stay. Future researchers can utilize the research method, including interviews, focus groups, observations, and experiments.

Finally, future research is suggested to target a larger sample by incorporating more cities and/or industries in China or worldwide instead of Tianjin in this study. Outside of China, further research can investigate the applicability of this study's findings in other regions and cultures worldwide. It will be interesting to investigate potential differences in the same industry among different countries. The implications for this further research may be useful to HR/D practitioners and corporations better understand cultural fit and other characteristics that may lead to more successful operations. Differences in prioritization of organizational factors can impact how researchers utilize human resource development theory in different cultures and how organizations determine their human resource prioritization in different countries. In addition, future research applying to other human capital-intensive industries also could gain benefits, such as the manufacturing industry and food and beverage industry.

### Conclusions

The findings of this study help contribute to our better understanding of Chinese interns' satisfaction during the internship, their perceptions of organizational climate and organizational culture, and career decision intention. The results of this paper have demonstrated the positive relationship between organizational climate and career decision intention, the positive relationship between organizational culture and career decision intention, the positive relationship between interns' satisfaction during the internship and their career decision intention, and finally, the relationship between

interns' satisfaction and their career decision intention is mediated by organizational climate and organizational culture, respectively.

The findings of this study furthermore confirm the applicability of concepts behind Herzberg's (1959) two-factor theory, Parsons' (1909) theory of career decision, organizational climate, and organizational culture in a Chinese cultural context. As the largest growing tourism market in the world today, China is an important area for educators, corporations, human resource development professionals, and researchers to explore and better understand the nuances that can impact processes and outcomes in the hospitality industry specifically. In addition to collecting statistically significant results that explore these concepts, this paper also makes recommendations for future research to improve our understanding of human resource development concepts in the Chinese hospitality industry and internship period contexts specifically.

## APPENDIX

### Survey Item English Version

Please rate the following questions using the scale below:

1= Strongly Disagree

2= Disagree

3= Neutral

4= Agree

5= Strongly Agree

*General Job Satisfaction Scale (Hackman & Oldham, 1975)*

*Job Dissatisfaction Questionnaire (Sithiphand, 1983)*

|                                   |  |
|-----------------------------------|--|
| Satisfaction                      | 1. In general, I was very satisfied with my internship.<br>2. I frequently thought of quitting my internship.<br>3. I was general satisfied with the kind of work I did at my internship.  |
| Salary                            | 4. Amount of salary.<br>5. Did not receive the expected wage increase.<br>6. Wages compare unfavorably with others doing a similar or same job.  |
| Work itself                       | 7. Not seeing results of work.<br>8. Routine job.<br>9. Lack of responsibility.<br>10. Lack of opportunity for growth.<br>11. Too little work.<br>12. Too much work.<br>13. Too easy job.<br>14. Too difficult job.<br>15. Lack of objective signs of security (i.e., company instability).<br>16. Poor physical surroundings. |
| Company policy and administration | 17. Harmful or ineffective organization of work.<br>18. Harmful personnel policies.<br>19. Low hotel status.   |
| Recognition                       | 20. Good idea(s) not accepted.<br>21. Failed to receive expected advancement.<br>22. Work blamed or criticized.<br>23. Not having a given status.  |
| Interpersonal relations           | 24. Supervisor incompetent.<br>25. Supervisor tried to do everything himself.<br>26. Poor working relationship with your co-workers.   |

|  |  |
|--|--|
|  | 27. Supervisor did not support you with management.<br>28. Did not like people you work with.<br>29. Supervisor is unwilling to listen to suggestions.<br>30. Lack of cooperation on the part of your co-workers.<br>31. Supervisor withheld credit. |
|--|--|

*Tourism and Hospitality Organizational Climate Scale-Revised* (Manning et al., 2004)

|                      |   |
|----------------------|---|
| Supervisory Support  | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>·My supervisor understands and responds to my needs.</li> <li>·My supervisor makes me feel important and worthy.</li> <li>·My supervisor provides me with the resources I need to meet group goals.</li> <li>·Changes in policy and procedures are given to me.</li> <li>·I have the supplies I need in order to do my job.</li> </ul> |
| Esprit de corps      | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>·We have a team effort in completing difficult tasks.</li> <li>·I take pride in the team I work with.</li> <li>·There is open communication and trust among my team members.</li> <li>·I work in a friendly environment.</li> <li>·Each department interacts in a friendly and cooperative way with other departments.</li> </ul>      |
| Personal development | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>·Tasks are clear in demands and criteria.</li> <li>·I help meet organizational goals through my job behaviors.</li> <li>·My organization provides me the opportunity for the development of goals and skills.</li> </ul>   |

Please rate the following questions using the scale below:

1= Very Uncharacteristic

2= Uncharacteristic

3= Neutral

4= Characteristic

5= Very Characteristic

*Hospitality Industry Culture Profile* (Tepeci, 2001)

|                                |   |
|--------------------------------|---|
| Honesty and people orientation | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>·Truthfulness and honesty</li> <li>·Keeping promises</li> <li>·Respect for an individual's right</li> </ul>      |
| Team orientation               | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>·Working in collaboration with others</li> <li>·Cooperating with coworkers</li> <li>·Team orientation</li> </ul> |



|                                      |  |
|--------------------------------------|--|
| Innovation                           | ·A willingness to experiment<br>·Risk-taking<br>·Creativity                              |
| Valuing customers or service quality | ·Giving customers what they expect<br>·Emphasis on service quality<br>·Valuing customers |
| Employee Development                 | ·Employee Development<br>·Promotion from within<br>·Personal / career development        |
| Fair Compensation                    | ·Fair compensations<br>·High pay for good performance                                    |
| Results Orientation                  | ·Focus on getting the job done<br>·Results orientations<br>·Task accomplishment          |

*Career Decision Scale (Osipow et al., 1976)*

Please rate the following questions using the scale below:

1= most “not like me”

2= “not like me”

3= Neutral

4= Characteristic

5= most “like me”

1. I have decided on a career and feel comfortable with it. I also know how to go about implementing my choice.
2. If I had the skills or the opportunity, I know I would be work in the hotel industry, but this choice is really not possible for me. I haven't given much consideration to any other alternative, however.
3. Several careers have equal appeal to me. I'm having a difficult time deciding among them.
4. I know I will have to go to work eventually, but none of the careers I know about the appeal to me.
5. I would like to work in the hotel industry, but I'd to go against the wishes of someone who is important to me if I did so. Because of this, it's difficult for me to make a career decision right now. I hope I can find a way to please them and myself.
6. Until now, I haven't given much thought to choosing a career. I feel lost when I think about it because I haven't had many experiences in making decisions on my own, and I don't have enough information to make a career decision right now.

7. After the internship, I feel discouraged because everything about choosing a career seems so “iffy” and uncertain; I feel discouraged, so much so that I’d like to put off making a decision for the time being.
8. I thought I knew what I wanted for a career, but after the internship, I found out that it wouldn’t be possible for me to pursue it. Now I've got to start looking for other possible careers.
9. I want to be absolutely certain that my career choice is the “right” one but working in the hotel industry seems not ideal for me.
10. Having to make the career decision on working in the hotel industry when I graduate bothers me. I'd like to make a decision quickly and get it over with. I wish I could take a test that would tell me what kind of career I should pursue.
11. I know what I'd like to major in, but I don't know if working in the hotel industry can lead to that would satisfy me.
12. I can’t make the career decision on working in the hotel industry right now because I don't know what my abilities.
13. I don’t know what my interests are. A few things "turn me on," but I'm not certain that they are related in any way to my career possibilities.
14. So many things interest me, and I know I have the ability to do well regardless of what career I choose. It's hard for me to decide to work in the hotel industry as a career.
15. I have decided to work in the hotel industry, but I'm not sure how to go about implementing a choice.
16. I need more information about what different occupations are like to make a career decision.

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## VITA

### LAN LU

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|-------------|--|
| 2011 – 2015 | B.S., Hospitality & Tourism Management<br>Florida International University<br>Miami, Florida |
| 2015 – 2017 | M.S., Hospitality & Tourism Management<br>Florida International University<br>Miami, Florida |
| 2018 – 2022 | Doctoral Candidate<br>Florida International University<br>Miami, Florida                     |

### PUBLICATIONS AND PRESENTATIONS

1. Lu, L., & Zhao, J. (2022). Customers' purchasing intentions for enhanced cleaning services in hotels during COVID-19: establishing price strategies. *Consumer Behavior in Tourism and Hospitality*, Vol. ahead-of-print No. ahead-of-print. <https://doi.org/10.1108/CBTH-04-2021-0105>
2. Lu, L., & Zhao, J. (Under review). Transformational leadership and perceived job risk during the COVID-19 pandemic in the budget hotel industry in China. *Current Issues in Tourism*.
3. Lu, L., Long, H., & Cheng, M. (Under review). Impact of organizational justice during the internship program in the hotel industry: Domestic students versus international students. *Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Education*
4. Lan Lu, Chunhao Wei, Jinlin Zhao, Which type of negative online reviews hurts restaurants the most? An experimental design to understand customers' cognitive, affective, and behavior change on negative online reviews. 27th Annual Graduate Education & Graduate Student Research Conference in Hospitality and Tourism, Virtual, January 7-8, 2022
5. Lan Lu, Investigating consumer decision-making on the green program of online travel agencies in China: The moderating effect of online travel agency involvement. ENTER22 e-Tourism Conference, January 11-14, 2022
6. Lan Lu, Jinlin Zhao, COVID-19 drives future hotels: Investigating customers'

intention to visit contactless unmanned smart hotels in China. 26th Annual Graduate Education and Graduate Student Research Conference in Hospitality & Tourism, January 2021

7. Lan Lu, Haiying Long, Impact of organizational justice during the internship program in the hotel industry: Domestic students versus international students. 2021 Annual ICHRIE Summer Conference, July 2021
8. Lan Lu, Jinlin Zhao, Implications of millennials' pro-environmental behavior of value co-creation in Chinese hotels. 2021 Annual ICHRIE Summer Conference, July 2021
9. Chunhao Wei, Lan Lu, Jinlin Zhao, A netnography study of tourists from China: How could "Mojito" and its music video attract Chinese tourists to visit Havana? 26th Annual Graduate Education and Graduate Student Research Conference in Hospitality & Tourism, January 2021