

**EMPOWERMENT IN ORGANISATIONS:  
A STUDY OF THE TAIWANESE HOTEL INDUSTRY**

**BY**

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## ABSTRACT

This study synthesises Spreitzer's work on psychological empowerment, the job characteristics model (Hackman and Oldham, 1980) and Porter's attitudinal organisational commitment, and is linked to the philosophy that work empowerment is an organic procedure, energising people at work. Empowerment is conceptualised as a self-developing capacity generalised from interactive motivation reinforcing elements within and between the following sets of variables – motivating job characteristics, constructive contextual conditions, commitment, and internal work motivation. Data from 468 employees at 16 Taiwanese hotels were examined.

The concept of empowerment was factor analysed into a multidimensional construct – the perceived control, efficacy, and meaningfulness. Results of the hypotheses proposed indicate that: (1) empowerment is an on-going process, interwoven with interdependent variables, individuals and situations; (2) knowledge enlargement is more empowering than task enlargement and job rotation; and (3) there are additive effects of variety, autonomy and feedback upon empowerment, commitment, and internal motivation of employees. The concept of task interdependence within the groups and organisations is also a central issue in different aspects of this study. It is argued that empowerment in service organisations should recognise the importance of cross-functional collaboration in attempts to improve group effectiveness and maintain the quality cycle.

In addition, this study investigates the interactions between the multidimensional constructs of perceived empowerment and commitment and illuminates that commitment is a synergistic outcome at the individual and organisational levels, deriving from motivating job design, constructive structural conditions, and the service workers' three aspects of empowerment. Such outcomes lead to newly enhanced outcomes at the very core of all organisational functions. This outcome is the interaction of individuals and work experience in an ongoing process in which people's work attitudes, values and beliefs are shaped.

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# CHAPTER 1

## INTRODUCTION

### **1.1 Background to the thesis**

In a competitive environment, efforts to foster empowerment among service workers have become commonplace in the hospitality industry. Much hospitality literature has concluded that empowering employees will ultimately lead to increased employee job satisfaction, work motivation, better service, lower turnover intention and corporate profitability. Similarly, antecedents such as supportive organisational climate, job enrichment and commitment are seen to affect employees' perceptions of being empowered (Bowen and Lawler, 1995; Lashley, 1996; Corsun and Enz, 1999). However, relatively little research has assessed the factors and impact of empowerment in an interdisciplinary approach. Hence, research on both the interactions between those antecedents and outcomes is clearly warranted.

Questions that guide this research are:

- How do we distinguish what we call “empowerment” and traditional enrichment and involvement research?
- How should one assess hospitality workers' perception of being empowered?
- Which strategies could management turn to so as to foster greater workers' feelings of empowerment that would directly enhance the intended beneficial outcomes?
- How should one go about establishing theoretical empowerment research studies that hinge on the interdisciplinary paradigms of well-established commitment and work motivation theories?
- Do job characteristics and contextual conditions really affect the hospitality employee's feelings of empowerment in a positive manner, and how can empowerment be related to organisational commitment, internal work motivation, and other work attitudes and behaviours?
- Is there a shared vision in the hospitality workplace, and how can it be elicited?

In service industries, the simultaneous production and consumption of the product takes place at the premises of the supplier. What satisfies the customer is not only the physical product, but also the delivery of quality service. It is the employees who have a tremendous impact on the customers' perceptions of the quality of both the product and the service. Therefore, in essence, the employee is the key ingredient to improve organisational competitiveness. In addition to the constant encounters with guests, one attribute that characterises hospitably (especially hotel) work is its intensive task interdependence, and this remains one of the main themes throughout this study. It is also the rationale upon which this thesis proposes a modified multidimensional empowerment construct in relation to other facets of the framework – motivating job characteristics, contextual conditions, organisational commitment, and work motivation.

Empowerment research has proposed several intuitive propositions, claiming along the way that job enrichment, involvement, shared values and task enlargement should be the key instrument set needed to empower employees. The literature would have it that hospitality front-line workers really appreciate enriched tasks, and enjoy taking responsibility for work autonomy (Lashley, 1995; Cacioppe, 1998). At the same time, there is an assumption amongst some critics of empowerment that in virtue of acquiring empowerment, hospitality employees would become more marketable and are increasingly likely to leave the organisation for better job prospects (i.e., easily poached employees, high turnover culture, etc.). However, there is little theoretical evidence that empowered hospitality employees are any more likely to seek better job alternatives than to remain within their organisations. In fact, many researchers have discussed the elements that link job involvement and organisational commitment but have failed to provide clear-cut operational definitions specific to empowerment, job enrichment, involvement, and commitment. The potential outcomes of empowerment thus become rather intuitive or even self-contradictory. This research places an emphasis on the fundamental conceptualisation of the perceptions of empowerment and their antecedents and consequences. Psychological empowerment is the pivot that links to other components. Results from an empirical study of 16 deluxe hotels in Taiwan are presented. The relative strength of each

variable pertinent to empowerment is rigorously examined. Thus, the results are not only essential to the understanding of empowerment in hospitality research, but also the first empirical investigation of this topic with regard to Taiwanese hotel employees.

## **1.2 Conceptualisation underlying this study**

There are four main themes constituting this empowerment study – psychological empowerment, motivating job characteristics, constructive work environment, and organisational commitment. Each of them consists of several interactive elements, and has cyclical feedback loops that would contribute to synergistic outcomes at individual and organisational levels, and will proceed to newly enhanced outcomes at the very core of all organisational functioning. It is the interactions of individuals in an ongoing organisational process in which people’s work attitudes and values are shaped and intrinsic work motivation are elicited. This study scrutinises their intricate interweavings in hotel organisations, and integrates them into a holistic view of hospitality employee empowerment procedures.

At the early stage of empowerment research, the term was loosely defined and used. Despite increasing attention on the topic of empowerment, our understanding of this construct and its underlying meanings remained confined in the already established work motivation paradigms (i.e., enrichment, involvement, leadership, commitment, etc.). It is only recently that cognitive research (Conger and Kanungo, 1988; Thomas and Velthouse, 1990; Spreitzer, 1995) integrated motivation theories and practices and provided an alternative view of this terminology. Conger and Konungo’s work draws heavily upon Bandura’s (1986) self-efficacy research, and they resort to the five-stage of efficacy-enhancing model. Thomas and Velthouse (1990) expand Conger and Konungo’s work and include the job characteristic model’s three critical psychological states (meaningfulness, knowledge, and responsibility for the performance) and Deci’s (Deci and Ryan, 1985, Deci *et al*, 1989) self-determination theory into their conceptual work on empowerment dimension– the cognitions of impact, competence, meaningfulness, and choice. Also they conceptualise these four

dimensions as a result of the employee's task assessment (a set of cognitions shaped by a work environment) which would thereafter lead to workers' intrinsic work motivation. Thomas and Velthouse's task assessment can be thought of as the internal mechanisms involved in the processing of information, decision-making and control, and the properties of a jobholder's mind. Building upon Thomas and Velthouse's work, Spreitzer (1992, 1995) validates a multidimensional empowerment measure and give the four dimensions a clear-cut operational definition. In a study of private club service workers, Fulford and Enz (1995) combine Spreitzer's self-determination and impact into a dimension – perceived influence. The rationale of this revision allows for an exploration of the nature of work in small private club: less bureaucratic organisational level and constant encounter with consumers.

Considering the intensive “sequential” and “pooled” task interdependence in hotel work, this thesis believes the hotel employee's perceived empowerment should better be referred to as feelings of control, efficacy, and meaningfulness. In a large quality hotel, one's task activities must closely fit into the upstream and downstream of service delivery. Delivering service is to provide a consuming experience in the premises, and there is rarely a service that can be done individually. Thus, an individual's efficacy involves some elements of Spreitzer's impact in that a hotel worker's perceived competence must be influenced by the collective outcomes and collective efficacy, and his or her perceived discretion and initiative should immediately affect other members' work procedures and outcomes at team or organisation level. This proposition was supported by factor analysis and further used in the subsequent quantitative analyses in relation to other themes of this study.

The second theme is the core job characteristics in the job characteristics model (Hackman and Oldham, 1975, 1980) – skill variety, task identity, task significant, autonomy, internally and externally generated feedback, and dealing with others. This set of motivating job scope is believed to be enriching and would contribute to improved cognitive empowerment and internal work motivation (Hackman and Oldham, 1980; Thomas and Velthouse, 1990; Gangé, Sénécal, and Koestner 1997).

Although Hackman and Oldham propose the interdependence of job characteristics, the interactive effects of the core job characteristics on the outcomes were not seriously investigated in the series of JCM development. Based on job characteristics research, Dodd and Ganster (1996) took a further step. In their intensive review of job dimension research, three job characteristics – variety, autonomy and feedback – emerge as the most robust predictors of the intended outcomes. They hypothesise and quantitatively justify the two-way interactions between skill variety and autonomy, and autonomy and feedback in their experimental study of university students. The results indicated that any of the three job characteristics in isolation is less likely or unable to increase the degree of job satisfaction and job performance. Inspired by Dodd and Ganster’s experimental study, the current study attempts to test their findings by taking their experiment out of the laboratory and into the field. The two sets of two-way additive effects were tested on perceived empowerment, internal motivation, and organisational commitment in hotel work environment.

Job characteristics research was taken forward as a result of Campion and McClelland’s (1993) task enlargement and knowledge enlargement 2-year follow-up study of the clerical tasks in a financial services company. In their study, a distinction is made between task enlargement (adding requirements to the job for doing other tasks on the same product) and knowledge enlargement (adding requirements to the job for understanding procedures or rules relating to different products), with the former shown to reduce satisfaction and the latter to increase it. Their idea was combined with the concept of hotel job rotation, and a research design was devised and tested in the current study. In addition, some fundamental theories and studies concerning job design, job enrichment, and job enlargement are linked to the hospitality literature. Many studies on motivation/empowerment and the literature on the phenomena of hospitality work, events, environment, and demographic factors are critically reviewed and put into the interpretations of this study’s findings.

The third theme is the interplay between cognitive empowerment and commitment. Given the amount of research that has been devoted to organisational commitment,

no direct investigation on the causal relationships between these two constructs has been employed. In order to conceptualise this link, this thesis views it as an acting and reacting process, in which the service workers are empowered by intrinsic and extrinsic rewards, and personal values and organisational interests could then possibly be shared. It is proposed that service workers' organisational commitment is initiated by a rationalisation process through which individuals make sense of their current situation that shapes their perceived meaningfulness, impact, choice and efficacy in their ongoing task assessment process. Further, people are more empowered because of the internalised values, personal and team member's collective efforts (extra role behaviour), and intention to remain with the organisation. In this sense, perceived empowerment is both the antecedent and correlate of organisation commitment through an ongoing reciprocal chain. In support of this proposition, literature on work values, two types (intrinsic and extrinsic) of rewards, collective efficacy, and the concepts of task interdependence and group cohesiveness are analysed.

The fourth theme is the constructive work environment (supervision, peer relationships, pay and job security). In their job characteristics model (JCM), Hackman and Oldham propose that individuals who are satisfied with co-workers, supervisors, pay and job security will respond more positively to enriched and challenging jobs and higher level of internal work motivation would thereafter be expected. Virtually, all compensation studies note that pay is intended to attract and retain employees as well as motivate greater individual performance (Boal and Cummings, 1981; Lawler, 1987, 1992). Satisfaction with pay was found to be an important ingredient to motivate hotel workers in two motivation studies conducted in Hong Kong and North America respectively (Simon and Enz, 1995; Siu *et al*, 1997). Job security can be seen as a sort of organisation dependability (Fuchana, 1974; Steers, 1977; Grenny, 1993). Dependable organisation could encourage employees to take initiative and give them a good reason to exert effort (Quinn and Spreitzer, 1997). Besides, two contextual conditions in the JCM are focused on the quality of supervisors' support, guidance, and fairness and the features of co-workers' affiliation and helping behaviour on the jobs. Taking the classical JCM as a

starting point and building on a course of research set out by psychological empowerment, this study extends Hackman and Oldham's work by specifying and scrutinising this constructive work environment into the work empowerment research in the highly task-interdependent hospitality setting. Four contextual conditions – supervision, co-workers, pay and job security were borrowed from the JCM in this cognitive empowerment study. In order to bridge the gap between the JCM and cognitive empowerment research, work climate and organisational culture were specifically conceptualised in the service work domain. Notions such as citizenship behaviour (peer helping behaviour) and leader-member exchange (power is an expandable pie) are utilised in strengthening this study's conceptual framework of constructive work environment.

Fundamentally, this is an interdisciplinary study, which draws on a wide variety of theories and research models. However, through the extensive critical review and analyses of the origin of those theories, a holistic and organic empowerment research framework was developed. This framework stresses the internal procedure evolved from motivating job content and work environment and leading to commitment and internal work motivation. It refers to the self-developing capacity (perceived control and efficacy) and meaning (perceived meaningfulness) generated from service workers' interpretations of their work rather than the equivalence of any antecedents that are delegated to or designed for the employee. To quantitatively examine these propositions, instruments developed in the JCM and Spreitzer's psychological empowerment, as well as Porter's organisational commitment models were adopted in the methodological and data analytical chapters. Several demographic factors were also analysed.

### **1.3 Hypotheses**

Following the line of the reasoning discussed above, eight hypotheses (from h1 to h8) pivoting on perceived empowerment and additional five hypotheses (from h9 to h13), focused on the antecedents of organisational commitment were proposed:

**Hypothesis 1:** In a deluxe hotel, the motivating job characteristics (variety, identity, significance, autonomy, feedback from the jobs and agents, and dealing with others) could differently predict the employee's feelings of empowerment.

**Hypothesis 2:** Hotel employees' perceptions of empowerment will account for a significant proportion of the variance in their reported levels of perceived internal work motivation and general job satisfaction, and growth needs satisfaction.

**Hypothesis 3:** Four contextual characteristics (job security, pay satisfaction, constructive supervision and supportive peers) in a hotel moderate the proposed causal relationships between motivating job characteristics and the employee's experienced empowerment as well as their internal work motivation.

**Hypothesis 4:** Hotel employees' perceived empowerment can significantly predict the level of attitudinal commitment in a positive manner. Further, these two constructs are reciprocal, so they are significantly correlated.

**Hypothesis 5:** In a hotel setting, adding varied tasks to those who have opportunities to rotate or get trained in different work units leads to better motivation outcomes than those who do not have. The outcomes are tested in terms of overall organisational commitment, overall perceived empowerment, and internal work motivation.

**Hypothesis 6:** For the hotel employee, there is two-way interaction between support for autonomy and feedback; thus, the presence of autonomy support can influence (and partly explain) the relationships of feedback to internal motivation, perceived empowerment, and organisational commitment. Likewise, the presence of feedback can influence (and partly explain) the relationships of autonomy to internal motivation, perceived empowerment, and organisational commitment.

**Hypothesis 7:** For the hotel employee, the degree of job variety will influence (and partly explain) the links of autonomy to internal motivation, empowerment, and



commitment. Likewise, the relationships between skill variety and the three outcome variables are influenced by the presence of autonomy support.

**Hypothesis 8:** When empowering practices are implemented, some personal factors are related to perceived empowerment in the hotel setting; in other words, some demographic characteristics have significant effects on empowerment, beyond that accounted for by motivating job and structural characteristics.

In addition to the direct assessment of the relationships between multidimensional perceived empowerment and organisational commitment constructs, five hypotheses specific to how job characteristics, contextual conditions, and personal factors would be associated with commitment were also structured in a separate chapter.

**Hypothesis 9:** Job characteristics in JCM are one set of work attributes that might significantly affect the hotel employee's identification toward the organisation, In other words, the hotel employees' job characteristics will account for a significant proportion of the variance in their reported levels of organisational commitment.

**Hypothesis 10:** Hotel employees' four elements of working experience, job security, pay satisfaction, peer relationship, and leadership, are significantly but differentially associated with organisational commitment.

**Hypothesis 11:** Job enrichment is related to hotel employees' organisational commitment, but moderated by growth needs strength.

**Hypothesis 12:** Hotel employees' organisational commitment is inversely related to intention to leave (ITL) the company. In addition, high growth-needs-strength (GNS) employees tend to search for better alternative employment opportunities; thus the employee's GNS is related to ITL.

**Hypothesis 13:** Motivating job and contextual characteristics have positive effects on organisational commitment; in addition, some demographic characteristics have

additive effects on commitment, beyond that accounted for by job and contextual characteristics.

In addition to analysing the hypotheses proposed, Chapter 9 presents a table (Table 9.1) that profile the variables studied on the basis of the full sample and the five departments – restaurant, kitchen, front office, housekeeping, and administration.

Focused on work empowerment procedure, this table includes the core job characteristics, contextual conditions, affective motivation outcomes in Hackman and Oldham's (1980) Job Diagnosis Survey (JDS), Spreitzer's psychological empowerment scale, and Porter's commitment scales. It profiles the current conditions of each score in the Taiwanese hotel industry. Since the hotels studied are all international tourist hotel standard (which is officially evaluated as high quality hotels), this table is not only useful for description but could also serve as primary data source for comparison and diagnosis. The means of the sub-groups on each variable reflect areas of work empowerment "strength" and "weakness" in the five departments. However, it could be argued that: (1) some hotel jobs might tend to be more empowering; (2) some other jobs may have been deliberately rationalised to meet hotel staffing needs, and thus are less empowered; and (3) workers in certain departments (e.g., chambermaids) may not want their jobs as enriched as those in other departments (e.g., front office staff). Yet, it is extremely rare to find a work situation in which nothing can be changed or improved (Lee-Ross, 1998).

## **1.4 Methodology**

### **Sampling**

The survey was conducted from November 1998 through to mid-February 1999. Data was collected from a sample of full-time workers including operational employees, supervisors, and middle-level managers. 16 international tourist hotels (as rated by the Taiwanese Tourism Bureau) participated in this survey. Stratified random sampling in five departments were conducted. A total of 468 valid responses from fulltime employees was returned. Of this sample, restaurant employees accounted for 182, or 38.9%; kitchen staff amounted to 34, or 7.3%; front office staff

numbered 66, or 14.1%; housekeeping members numbered 103, or 22%; administration staff accounted for 83, or 17.7%. It is reasonably in proportion to the international tourist hotel population in Taiwanese hotel industry.

### **Procedure**

After discussions with the supervisory team at the Scottish Hotel School, the questionnaire was brought to Taiwan for a pilot study. During the translation of the questionnaire into Chinese, a number of teaching staff with PhD or MSc in business and hospitality management at Jin-Wen Institute of Technology were asked to diagnose the translated items that might seem unusual to local hotel workers. To ascertain that the questionnaire was formed effectively, without bias and avoiding leading questions, in-depth interviews were also conducted with two middle managers to seek constructive suggestions. A pilot test was then conducted. The results of the pilot test provided useable information for the questionnaire design, wording and measurement scales.

25 hospitality students and several fulltime hotel employees voluntarily acted as contact persons. They were trained before the administration of questionnaires. After management approval, personal visits were made to each hotel. Face-to-face interviews were conducted with personnel managers and line managers to explain the purpose of the study, inform them of the importance and objectives of each section in the questionnaire and the subsequent procedure of the survey. Contact persons were empowered to explain the response method to respondents, answered questions, and administer and collect the survey at the studied hotels.

Eight in-depth unstructured interviews were conducted in order to enhance the interpretation of the findings from this study's quantitative analyses. The interviews were focused on questions in relation to the proposed hypotheses. Interviewees included one deputy general manager, two front-desk managers, one house keeping manager, one F&B manager, one chef, and two HR managers. They provided precious management concerns and what things were really going on in their

departments and hotels. Their managerial considerations are addressed in the data analysis and discussion chapters (e.g., job rotation, monetary rewards, etc.).

## **1.5 Contributions**

### **Contributions to academia**

This study contributes to the literature in a number of ways. First, it integrates the three models – JCM, psychological empowerment and commitment, and makes a new interpretation of their interplay in service workers’ empowerment procedure.

Second, this thesis scrutinises the interactions between each dimension of empowerment and commitment. The notions and suggestions about the results in chapter 10 are made as a result of abundant interdisciplinary considerations, including work values research, collective motivation research (Lawler, 1982), organisational culture research (O’Reilly, 1989), leader-member exchange research (Keller and Dansereau, 1995), etc. Its purpose is to articulate some points that researchers and practitioners have so far ignored.

Third, this study goes beyond Campion and McClelland’s knowledge and task enlargement research of clerical tasks by drawing on the concept of job rotation in a hospitality study, and links these three concepts (knowledge/task enlargement and job rotation) to empowerment, internal work motivation, and commitment. This is an important attempt, given that flexibility is a likely trend in future hospitality management.

Fourth, this study exemplifies Quinn and Spreitzer’s (1997) “organic empowerment” by designing four contextual considerations as a set of moderating variables in the relationships of motivating job design to the constructs of empowerment and work motivation in hospitality research.

There are many other features of this study. For example, in the literature review, conceptualisation of research design and this chapter, the author applies various

disciplines in illuminating concepts, creating research design, and interpreting the findings. More importantly, this is an empirical work employed in Taiwanese hotel industry, which adds to its originality and makes it more valuable.

### **Contributions to practitioners**

Perhaps one of the most important lessons to learn from the data investigated here is that if hospitality managers truly want to improve service employees' work attitudes and commitment, they must take an active role in understanding how the dynamic nature of empowerment is enhanced. It is a two-way influence that integrates views, ideas, and interests of top management and line employees without coercive authority and deceitful gestures. It is a respect of the law of reciprocity that can be reinforced by various value-added motivating job characteristics and social/contextual supports. Any attempt by managers to improve hospitality employees' empowerment should be prefaced by examining the nature of the tasks which employees are asked to perform. In a broader sense, managers should give increased attention to creating supportive environments. They must be sensitive enough to know what is empowering and what is disempowering.

Followed by the interpretations of the results of data analyses, this study provides fourteen implications in the discussion chapter. In addition to the richness of the academic considerations, they provide a valuable opportunity for top managers to rethink the issues below:

**Implication 1:** More efforts need to be made to stretch workers' skills and develop their talents in the Taiwanese hotel industry if job enlargement is to lead to intended empowerment.

**Implication 2:** It is suggested that actions to change feedback orientation towards a more informative, specific, reliable, positive, evaluative, and appreciative manner might be appropriate in the Taiwanese hotel industry. The deliberate and nondeliberated feedback source will contain:

- more reliable and consistent messages that employees can trust and accept (relating feedback to efficacy);
- more expressions of high appreciation, encouragement, and support (relating feedback to efficacy); and
- more specific information which would become an important reference to the employees for initiating and regulating actions, and influencing process or operating outcomes at work (relating feedback to perceived control).

**Implication 3:** Since autonomy, variety and feedback are proved to influence one another, the considerations suggested in implications 1 and 2 will directly affect autonomous job design. The emergence and effectiveness of autonomy support will be facilitated to the extent to which:

- there is an opportunity for substantial two-way communication to enhance the mechanisms of feedback-autonomy interactions;
- the organisational culture values participation, open discussion, and a creative problem solving process;
- there is an opportunity for knowledge and skills development to enhance the mechanisms of variety-autonomy interactions; and
- human resource management emphasises flexibility and decentralisation.

**Implication 4:** In hotel work, perceived efficacy may not have the expected effects on growth need satisfaction, unless the jobs are challenging and can stretch employees' skills and talents.

**Implication 5:** Perceived control should not simply be "delegated" or "conferred". It needs informative guidance and appropriate rewards in order to facilitate hotel employees' internal work motivation.

**Implication 6:** In order for a compensation system to be an effective motivator, hotel compensation systems must consider:

- the behaviour and results desired (why);
- the rewards that motivate employees (what); and

- the conditions necessary to facilitate this relationship (how and when).

**Implication 7:** Teams have become a popular way for hotels to organise business because they enable management to be responsive to the ever-changing business arena. One way to support and reinforce this team concept is through the compensation system at the team level. Specifically, the ideal team compensation system must:

- assure perceived equity and justice;
- support cohesive and coactive teams;
- compliment and reward organisational citizenship behaviour which reinforces synergistic energy; and
- foster teamwork and organisational goals.

**Implication 8:** Although job-hopping is common in the hospitality industry, it by no means implies that hotel employees do not care about organisational dependability. Without corporate loyalty to employees, we cannot expect increased commitment from them.

**Implication 9:** Service organisations must not overlook the important role of constructive peer relationships. To improve the chances of success in structuring empowerment efforts and attaining high organisational commitment, supportive and helping relationships should be developed. As these values come to be shared and lived, the quality of work and service provided is likely to increase in work groups.

**Implication 10:** A supportive manager should be a proactive coach who builds employees' capacity prior to sharing authority; empowering procedure is an "enabling" procedure. To ask the question – "how far could an empowered employee go to make decisions?" Before answering this question, management may well ask themselves – "what training have they undertaken?"

**Implication 11:** The more the hotel workers perceive that their jobs are meaningful, the more the hotel employees will demonstrate their organisational commitment.

However, organisational values and goals installed by top management should be congruent with the existing values and identities held by line employees, and the messages from top management should contain more reference to values and moral justification in order to promote the intended work climate. One pragmatic way to identify employees' concerns and beliefs is to create a participative climate.

**Implication 12:** Actions to relate shared values to employees' efficacy should be taken for the Taiwanese hotel industry in order to go beyond the limitations of Lawler's (1982) calculative collective motivation model and obtain higher group morale as well as group potency.

**Implication 13:** Manager should not think of job rotation as a primary move; instead, they should treat rotation as the "grease" that allows the wheels of job enlargement design to turn smoothly.

**Implication 14:** Job enrichment is a critical mechanism in developing organisational commitment for all hotel employees, whether the individual's growth needs strength is high or low. In order to be effective, the presence of certain external situational characteristics, such as pay and supervision support may be contingent with the adoption of enrichment interventions especially for low-growth-needs hotel workers.

## **1.6 Organisation of the thesis**

Since much of the foregoing discussion has generally illustrated the structure of the thesis, this section will only sketch out the objectives of each chapter. The first chapter provides the general background of the study, outlines of the various hypotheses, methodology, and implications of the findings.

The second chapter consists of the conceptual analysis of cognitive (psychological) empowerment and its dimensionality. Relevant empowerment studies on the service sector and specifically the hospitality industry are analysed from the cognitive



empowerment standpoint. This chapter provides the basis upon which the following chapters are built.

The third chapter analyses the motivating job characteristics model (JCM), the additive effects between three core job characteristics, and the innovative knowledge/task enlargement research. In closing this chapter, a theoretical comparison between job enrichment (JCM) and psychological empowerment are discussed. Each section draws on the fundamental hospitality studies relevant to the above-mentioned research.

The fourth chapter seeks to create a new research avenue linking traditional organisational commitment research to the newly developed psychological empowerment model. In support of the study's proposition, several studies are analysed, including intrinsic/extrinsic work values and rewards (e.g., motivating job characteristics, job security, monetary rewards, etc.). This includes some research critical to the objectives of the current study.

The fifth chapter focuses two contextual issues discussed in JCM – supervision and co-workers and its relation to psychological empowerment. In order to illuminate these two constructs in a hospitality empowerment study, research on organisational culture, citizenship behaviour and leader-member exchange are analysed.

The sixth chapter explains the research design, hypotheses proposed in this thesis, sampling techniques, questionnaire development, administration of fieldwork, and two factor analyses used in the subsequent data analytical chapters (dimensionality of perceived empowerment and organisational commitment).

Chapters 7 to 9 present the data analysis procedure and results. Chapter 7 pivots on perceived empowerment. The antecedents, demographic factors and consequences of empowerment are examined. Chapter 8 focuses on the construct of organisational commitment. The predictive power of job characteristics, contextual factors, and demographic factors are analysed. Chapter 9 is a supplementary data analysis

chapter. It profiles the variables studied on the basis of the full sample and the five departments – restaurant, kitchen, front office, housekeeping, and administration.

Chapter 10 generalises the findings derived from the data analytical chapters. The implications (suggestions) for academic and practitioner consideration are proposed. The wider implications of this research are discussed in Chapter 11. It seeks to draw some conclusions and assess the prospects for empowerment in organisations. This chapter also considers methodological limitations and directions for future research.

In sum, this thesis is primarily concerned with hospitality workers' empowerment procedure. It exemplifies an organic, self-developing, reasoning, and enabling work empowerment cycle. It addresses some topics (e.g., interactions between the dimensions of commitment and empowerment; interplay between perceived empowerment and knowledge/task enlargement, commitment and international motivation; and many others) which the literature has not looked at before. This thesis, making a new interpretation of JCM, empowerment model and organisational commitment, seeks to chart a course for further empirical work.

## **CHAPTER 2**

### **LITERATURE REVIEW**

#### **2.1 Introduction**

This chapter starts with a general discussion of the terminology, empowerment and the cognitive empowerment research stream. It then turns to a detailed review of the dimensionality of psychological empowerment proposed by Spreitzer (1995). This approach attempts to identify the fundamental theoretical background of cognitive empowerment, which serves as a foundation for the development of this study. This chapter concludes with a proposed empowerment dimensionality specific to hospitality and hotel empowerment research.

#### **2.2 Empowerment in work motivation paradigm**

Empowerment is a widely used term within the literature of organisational science. At the early stage of its usage, empowerment had no agreed-upon definition, and its terminology has been used loosely to capture a family of somewhat related meanings (Thomas and Velthouse, 1990; Lashley, 1996). Much of this literature referred to it as structural, programmatic managerial efforts, such as participative management, involvement, job enlargement, and enrichment (Lashley, 1995a; 1999). These practices conform to what Quinn and Spreitzer (1997) term the mechanistic model of empowerment. Psychological empowerment researchers (Quinn and Spreitzer, 1997; Corsun and Enz, 1999) argue that viewing empowerment as something managers do to their people is an incomplete assumption. They stress that whether an individual perceives her- or himself as empowered is the function of perceptions, and empowerment should be a psychological state existing as a result of factors in the work domain. The exact nature of the feeling that underlies the experience of empowerment has been open to debate. However, in the nineties, research has come to a general consensus – empowerment reflects feeling effective, feeling in control, and feeling influential.

Conger and Kanungo (1988) took an important step toward clarifying empowerment, and discuss it in terms of motivational processes. They use it to describe a variety of specific factors, as well as the presumed effects on jobholders. More specifically, empowerment is the increased effort-performance expectancies (Conger and Kanungo, 1988), or using Bandura's (1986) term, the feelings of self-efficacy. In this sense, empowerment enables workers to feel that they can perform their work competently, and it, in turn, would increase both initiation and persistence of subordinates' work behaviour.

To empower means to give power. However, the meanings of power are diverse. Thomas and Velthouse (1990) term power as, authority, capacity, and energy. Therefore:

- In the sense of control: power means authority, influence, or the right possessed by or given to a person or group. Empowerment can thus mean to give authorisation.
- Following self-efficacy theory (Conger and Kanungo, 1988, Spreitzer, 1995): power is used to describe capacity to do or act. In addition,
- Rooted in self-efficacy and self-expectancy theory (Conger and Kanungo, 1988), power also means energy that can be harnessed and used to do work; thus, to empower is to energise.

These three meanings converge with motivation theories, and best capture the present usage of the term in this research.

Thomas and Velthouse (1990) note that why the word empowerment has become so popular is because it provides a label for a non-traditional paradigm of motivation. Some empowerment literature emphasises the importance of making work meaningful (Block, 1987; Thomas and Velthouse, 1990), identifying with the task (Bennis and Nanus, 1985), intrinsic motivation (Gagné *et al* 1997), and supportive relationships (Corsun and Enz, 1999). Research also involves identification with organisational goals and values (Lashley, 1995a). In fact, the available evidence in

work motivation and commitment literature has long indicated many popularly discussed empowerment issues, such as the sense of control, the opportunity to learn, participative decision-making, supportive relationships, shared values, creativity, productivity, job satisfaction, and intrinsic motivation (Herzberg, 1968; Herzberg, 1974; Hackman and Lawler, 1971; Shamir, House and Arthur, 1993).

### **2.2.1 Empowerment: a conceptual analysis — service sector in general and hospitality industry in particular**

Empowerment is fundamentally a motivational process of an individual's experience of enabling feeling (Corsun and Enz, 1999). Conger and Kanungo (1988) conceptualised empowerment in terms of Bandura's (1986) model that empowerment refers to a process whereby an individual's belief in his or her self-efficacy is enhanced. They assume that everyone has an internal need for self-determination and a need to control and cope with environmental demands. Thus, they follow the process theory approach to empowerment as a motivational phenomena by relating it to expectancy (Lawler, 1973) and self-efficacy theories (Bandura, 1986). This approach has since become the origin of this decade's psychological empowerment research in industrial, service sector, and hospitality industry workers (Sparrow, 1994; Fulford and Enz, 1995; Spreizer, 1992, 1995, 1996; Gagné, Sené and Koestner, 1997).

On the basis of expectancy theory, an individual's motivation to increase his or her effort in a given task will depend on two types of expectations:

- Their effort will result in a desired level of performance, and
- Their performance will become an instrument leading to desired outcomes.

Bandura (1986) referred to the former as the self-efficacy expectation and the latter as outcome expectation. Self-efficacy, hence, is the sense power that sustains and generates capacity to do or act (Conger and Kanungo, 1988; Thomas and Velthouse, 1990). On the other hand, it is also a "process of enhancing feelings of self-efficacy

among organisational members through the identification of conditions that foster powerlessness and through their removal both by formal organisational practices and informal techniques of providing self-efficacy information” (Conger and Kanungo, 1988: 474). The process constructed by Conger and Kanungo is called a five-stage model of empowerment:

- Stage one is the diagnosis of organisational conditions that are responsible for feelings of powerlessness among subordinates.
- In stage two, managers use practices including participative management, goal setting, job enrichment, feedback system, modelling, and competence based rewards to remove some of the conditions leading to powerlessness.
- In stage three, subordinates are provided with self-efficacy information from four sources, which are enactive attainment, vicarious experience, verbal persuasion and emotional arousal.
- As a result of receiving such information, subordinates feel empowered. The state of personal efficacy could help to strengthen effort and stretch performance expectancy.
- Finally, the empowered individual demonstrates positive attitudes towards task objectives with initiation and persistence.

Since Conger and Kanungo’s (1988) work, voluminous research has concerned the construct of self-efficacy and found that self-efficacy directly influences both performance efficiency and obtaining difficult goals (Locke and Latham, 1990; Earley and Lituchy, 1991; Gellatly & Meyer, 1992; Mento, Locke, and Klein, 1992). Sparrowe (1994) applied it to assess the antecedents of organisational culture and leader-member relationships and the consequential intent to turnover in his hospitality research. Corsun and Enz (1999) examined the support-based job climax in private clubs and found that self-efficacy is a significant predictor of work attitude of loyalty. On the other hand, the relationship between self-efficacy and goal commitment has also been hypothesised and supported (Locke, Fredrick, Lee, and Bobko, 1984; Earley, 1986). Self-efficacy could also induce an individual’s convictions (or confidence) about his or her abilities to mobilise motivation,

cognitive resources, and courses of action needed to successfully execute a specific task within a given organisational context (Stajkovic and Luthans, 1998). Before employees select their choices and initiate their effort, employees tend to weigh, evaluate, and integrate information about their perceived capabilities. Hence, expectations of personal efficacy determine whether an employee's coping behaviour will be initiated, how much task-related effort will be expended, and how long that effort will be sustained despite undesired or even adverse evidences. If employees perceive themselves as highly efficacious, they will activate sufficient effort and thereafter produce successful outcomes. On the contrary, those who perceive low self-efficacy are less likely to strive for success, and low self-efficacy is often detrimental to work effectiveness.

Self-efficacy only grows in a support-based environment. When the workforce feel powerless, it is critical to empower them. However employees need help to find out the reasons why there is this sense of powerlessness. Once these conditions are detected, empowerment strategies and tactics can be used to resolve them. Thus, this state can only succeed if superiors or co-workers directly provide employees the information of personal efficacy (Appelbaum and Honeggar, 1998). Self-efficacy theory has much to offer with respect to understanding the impact of such changes on employees and specific actions to take in terms of training as well as retaining communication programmes, feedback systems, participative decision making and goal-setting activities. Rafiq and Ahmed (1998), for instance, support the argument that increasing self-efficacy and autonomy allows employees to choose the best way to perform a given task, which leads to employees becoming more adaptive, and more responsive.

To briefly summarise, self-efficacy empowerment is a process whereby an individual's belief in his or her self-efficacy is enhanced. How to empower employees is the issue of strengthening faith in one's abilities as well as weakening the belief of powerlessness. Their work creates an avenue for Thomas and Velthouse's cognitive empowerment research.

### 2.2.2 Cognitive empowerment

Thomas and Velthouse (1990) built on Conger and Kanungo's work with their cognitive model of empowerment. They adopt Deci and Ryan's (1985) self-determination theory and identify four types of cognition – sense of impact, competence, meaningfulness and choice, which they assert to be the basis of perception of empowerment. The four types of sense can be summarised.

- “Impact” is the degree to which behaviour is seen as making a difference regarding the accomplishment of the task purpose; namely, producing the intended effects in one's working context. The general notion of perceived impact has also been studied under the labels of locus of control (Rotter, 1966) and learned helplessness (Abramson, Seligman and Teasdale, 1978). It is the belief with which an individual produces intended effects and has control over desired outcomes through behaviour. Within the Hackman and Oldham (1975, 1980) job characteristics model, “impact is analogous to knowledge of results” (Thomas and Velthouse, 1990: 672). Lashley's restaurant delayering study (1995b) can be perceived as an approach concerned with increasing one's control over a wider scope of knowledge enlargement (which will be discussed in the section of job variety later), and the individual's impact could be more likely to be seen in a flattened restaurant structure. Fulford and Enz's (1995) research on private club staff also claimed those service workers in a participative and supportive environment would have an improved satisfaction of personal influence. Faulkner and Patiar (1997) investigated work stress among hotel workers and found that front-desk clerks often see controlling their job as unlikely and the feeling of helplessness consequently incurs.
- “Competence” refers to the extent to which a person can manage task activities skilfully when he or she tries. In Thomas and Velthouse's work, the definition of the term “competence” is a synonym for self-efficacy discussed above. It is the belief in one's ability to perform a job successfully. A unique approach to skill development implemented in the hotel industry is discussed by John Beckert and his associate in their research (Beckert and Walsh, 1991). Rejecting conventional



performance review, Harvey Hotel came up with a new form, called the Personal Development Plan (PDP). Through the two-way communication, the PDP has the managers and employees preparing goals based on technical skills, interpersonal skills, and supervisory or self-management skills. PDP is a performance-review cycle consisting of five steps, as follows:

**Step 1:** The managers list the technical goals required of a new employee as soon as he or she is hired.

**Step 2:** Shortly after a new employee is hired, the manager outlines how he or she will be trained to achieve the goals outlined in step 1.

**Step 3:** After a set period of time (90 days in Harvey Hotel) from the hire date, the manager evaluates the employee's performance against the goals from step 1 as either "meets standards" or "needs improvement".

**Step 4:** At the same time, the employee records his or her comments on the form, some of which will be the result of the review meeting with the manager.

**Step 5:** During the half interview, a new PDP performance cycle is prepared. Goals marked as "needs improvement" are carried forward. New objects are added as well. The cycle will be repeated for each performance-review period.

The results of the on-going review indicated that managers indeed had improved the performance of their departments. Those employees enjoyed having goals to achieve instead of just falling into a daily routine or passively learning new skills required from management level. They could really see the payoff and felt they had a great deal more control over their own success (Beckert and Walsh, 1991).

In addition, the use of interviews instead of written instructions in the personal development plans can also contribute to employees' identification with organisational value. Through personal contact in the performance review, employees are more likely to behave in ways desired by the corporation. They adapt more quickly to the values and beliefs of the organisation, and thus become more committed to their organisation (the in-depth conceptualisation between commitment and empowerment is discussed latter).

- “Meaningfulness” is consistent with Hackman and Oldham’s (1980) definition of this term. It “concerns the value of the task, goal or purpose, judged in relation to the individual’s own ideals or standards” (Thomas and Velthouse, 1990: 672). While at work, it refers to the perceived value of one’s job in relation to one’s personal belief, attitudes and values. Research on job enrichment has supported the view that the individual’s perception of task meaningfulness is an important dynamics to work motivation and job satisfaction (Herzberg, 1968, 1974; Hackman and Oldham, 1980). Lee-Ross (1998) looked at seasonal hotel workers in the UK, and the results were in agreement with prevalent enrichment research. In commitment literature, researchers have stressed the interplay between personal meanings of the tasks and affective commitment, identification with organisational values, and the values as well as goals internalisation. The general conclusion shows that the feeling of meaningfulness is positively associated with intrinsic motivation, less intention to leave, and extra-role behaviour (Porter, Steers, Mowday and Boulian, 1974; Steers, 1977; Staw, 1984; O’Reilly and Chatman, 1986; Putti, Aryee and Liang, 1989).
  
- “Choice” is an individual’s assessment involving causal responsibility for his or her actions. Its definition is rooted in locus of causality (deCharms, 1968) and self-determination (Deci and Ryan 1989). Deci and Ryan (1985) distinguished locus of causality from locus of control and noted that locus of control involved outcome contingencies, whereas locus of causality involved the issue of whether a person’s behaviour is perceived as self-determined. It is a sense of freedom on making choices about how to do one’s work, and the result of feelings of personal responsibility for these choices. In a series of Deci and his associates’ self-determination research, the perception of oneself as the locus of causality for one’s behaviour along with competence is the fundamental requirement for intrinsic motivation (Deci, 1971; Deci, Nezlek and Cheinman, 1981; Deci, Schwartz, Sheinman, and Ryan. 1981; Deci, and Ryan, 1987; Deci, Connell, and Ryan, 1989). This notion echoes Hackman and Oldham’s job characteristics model (1975, 1980) in which the “autonomy support” would be more likely to

give rise to the experienced job responsibility, proximal to internal work motivation.

The cognitive empowerment model stresses an individual's needs for feeling in control, the sense of personal freedom to use power, the importance of personal efficacy and self-determination (Conger, 1989, Alpander, 1991; Appelbaum and Hare, 1996). These four aspects of empowerment are fundamental to understanding the concept of empowerment and its application in organisations. Thomas and Velthouse improved upon Conger and Kanungo's self-efficacy model by more precisely describing the concept of empowerment as motivation and by identifying the type of motivation. These four aspects of empowerment are conceptualised by Thomas and Velthouse as cognitive components that are proximal to intrinsic task motivation. An empowered person views the goals and objects associated with his or her work activities as consequential. Each of the four aspects is the critical ingredient of intrinsic work motivation.

### **2.2.3 Psychological empowerment**

Spreitzer (1992, 1995, 1996) built her psychological empowerment model on the work of Conger and Kanungo (1988) and Thomas and Velthouse (1990). She developed and validated a multidimensional empowerment measure from her survey of the employees from a Fortune 50 industrial organisation (Spreitzer, 1995, 1996). In accordance with cognitive empowerment, psychological empowerment is defined as "intrinsic motivation manifested in four cognitions reflecting an individual's orientation to his or her work role" (Spreitzer, 1996: 484). These four cognitions identified in her work are meaning, competence, self-determination, and impact which is termed choice by Thomas and Velthouse. Since then, these four dimensions of empowerment have been rigorously examined and validated in both manufacturing and service sectors (Spreitzer, 1995; Fulford and Enz, 1995; Gagné, Senécal, and Koestner, 1997). It is suggested that empowerment should be conceptualised as a person's changes in relation to cognitive variables (also called task assessments) and is "a gestalt of four types of feelings that are related, yet

somewhat independent of one another” (Gagné, Senécal, and Koestner, 1997: 1223).

Spreitzer (1996: 484) gave each dimension a clear-cut definition:

- Meaning involves a fit between the requirements of a work role and a person’s beliefs, values, and behaviour (Hackman and Oldham 1980; Brief and Nord, 1990).
- Competence refers to self-efficacy specific to work — a belief in one’s capability to perform work activities with skill (Gist, 1987) — and is analogous to agency beliefs, personal mastery, or effort-performance expectancy (Bandura, 1989).
- Self-determination is a sense of choice in initiating and regulating actions (Deci, Connell, & Ryan, 1989). Self-determination reflects autonomy over the initiation and continuation of work behaviour and processes; making decisions about work methods, pace, and effort are examples (Bell & Staw, 1989).
- Impact is the degree to which a person can influence strategic, administrative, or operating outcomes at work (Ashforth, 1989). The notion of impact has been studied implicitly in research on learned helplessness (Martinko and Gardner, 1982); definitions of learned helplessness emphasise a lack of perceived influence over workplace forces built upon a history of past experiences.

Most empowered people have these four types of feeling in common (Quinn and Spreitzer, 1997). Empowered people have a sense of self-determination which means that they are free to choose how to do their work; they are not micro-managed. They have a sense of meaning at work, and feel that their jobs are important to them. Experiencing empowerment enables individuals to care about what they are doing, and it is the tenet of the internal motivation in JCM (Hackman and Oldham, 1980). Further, empowered people have a sense of competence. They are confident about their ability to do their work well, and know they can perform. Finally, empowered people have a sense of impact. This means they believe they can influence their work unit, their opinion counts in the decision-making in the work group. Whatever

management practices generate empowerment, these four mental characteristics reflect personal experiences or beliefs about their role in the organisation. Empowerment, then, is not only something that management does to employees, but also a mind-set that employees have about their role in the organisation. They recognise the significance of their jobs, and see themselves as having freedom and discretion. They have confidence in getting things done. The effort they make is rewarding, and their job activities are meaningful to them. They feel personally connected to the organisation, and be confident about having an impact on the system in which they are embedded.

#### **2.2.4 Revision of the four-dimension psychological empowerment in hospitality research**

Given that a large percentage of organisational performance outcomes are determined by hospitality front-line workers' behaviour, their "choice" in initiating actions may ultimately influence customers' perception on both product and service. Using the scale developed by Spreitzer (1992), Fulford and Enz (1995) conducted a study on service employees from thirty private clubs in the East of the U.S.A. They hypothesised that the self-determination and impact of psychological empowerment would merge into one dimension. The results from their factor analysis sustained this proposition. They argued that self-determination and impact would indeed combine when the organisations under study are small (compared to a large Fortune 50 manufacturing firm), management levels are fewer (less bureaucratic), and the nature of the hospitality work requires employees' direct contacts with customers. Given the nature of labour-intensive service organisations together with the club environment in particular, it is reasonable that the perceived locus of causality (self-determination) and locus of control (impact) collapses into a single construct.

However, it could be disputed whether Fulford and Enz's (1995) three-dimension psychological empowerment can be generalised to service workers in large deluxe hotels. For years, total quality management or the so-called quality cycle has become a buzzword in the service sector. Although TQM has so far not been universally

practised, its concept, in different forms or to different extent, has commonly been embraced in hotel management (Breiter and Bloomquist, 1998). To assure an integral quality cycle, Bowen and Lawler (1995) propose that service organisations establish “service blueprinting” or a “service map” to help employees identify their role in the overall service delivery system. These process flow diagrams depict that each employee’s action is equally critical from initial customer contact through service production to saying goodbye to the customer. In a large hotel, every employee is a customer and a supplier. Every failure in a single service delivery (inadequate competence) will be passed along to other workers in either the same or another department (impact). Along with the labour-intensive nature of the work, one’s initiatives (self-determination) still need to closely co-ordinate with others, and would thereafter influence what happens in his or her work group (impact). Employees’ abilities to influence their own behaviour may ultimately influence organisational outcomes. Therefore, it is reasonable to suggest that the employee’s cognition of impact may be incorporated into the dimensions of self-determination and competence in the contextual settings of large deluxe hotel.

### **2.3 Conclusion**

In closing this chapter, some general assumptions about the terminology of cognitive (or psychological empowerment) should be emphasised. Cognitive empowerment research is a set of cognition shaped by the work environment (Conger and Kanungo, 1988; Thomas and Velthouse, 1990; Spreitzer’s, 1995). It is the employee’s perceptions of job content, and the events, conditions, people in the work group and organisations. With this in mind, the antecedents, consequences, and the issues of interest in this study will be critically reviewed in the chapters that follow.

## CHAPTER 3

### JOB CHARACTERISTICS AND EMPOWERMENT

#### 3.1 Introduction

The topic of job design has to do with the way that organisations assign tasks and responsibilities to individual organisational members. The topic is an important one, since the way in which jobs are designed can have a critical impact on the motivation and feelings of empowerment. This chapter is focused on the reasons why some jobs make people demoralised, and feeling powerless; while other types of job arrangement seems to unlock the employee's energy and drive.

This chapter begins with a brief review of Hackman and Oldham's (1980) job characteristics model to define several terms used in alternative approaches to the design of work, and carries on through interdisciplinary examination of two types of job enlargement to the conceptualisation of job enrichment. We then turn to a detailed analysis of the job characteristics approach. It attempts to identify specific characteristics of jobs that permit individual organisation members to occupy jobs that they find personally meaningful, satisfying, and empowering. This section then concludes with a discussion of why empowerment should be seen as a multidimensional construct, which job characteristics are proximal to.

It should be pointed out that the focus in this chapter is primarily on the design of jobs for individuals. Thus, the attention centres upon individual jobs and how jobs can be designed to increase the motivation and empowerment of their individual incumbents. In the following chapters this research will shift its focus from the job content to constructively contextual factors which interact with motivating job characteristics. The synergy, or so-called organic empowerment (Quinn and Spreitzer, 1997) resulting from supportive work climate and motivating job design, can than boost organisational commitment, and realise the philosophy of psychological empowerment.

### 3.2 Job Design – job characters model (JCM)

As both organisational productivity and employee alienation from work increased, more and more work motivation theorists turned to various ways of energising the vitality of job content and job context. In the sixties, the terms “enlargement” and “enrichment” were used interchangeably at some times and differentially at other times (Pierce and Dunham, 1976). Lawler (1969) stated that horizontal enlargement increases the number and variety of operations that an individual performed on the job, while vertical enlargement (enrichment) increased the degree to which the job holder controls the planning and execution of the job and participates in the setting of organisation policies.

Theoretically, research on job enlargement involvement is more concerned about giving individuals a larger variety of different tasks to perform, but it does not stress that individuals should be given any additional autonomy or freedom regarding how the work is to be performed. Job enrichment goes beyond job enlargement by providing individual workers with increased responsibility and authority, in addition to greater variety in their work. Incorporating horizontal and vertical job design research, “job characteristics” or so-called “work redesign” research was thus started to integrate these two domains (Pierce and Dunham, 1976). The job characteristics model was developed by Hackman and his associates (Hackman and Lawler, 1971; Hackman and Oldham, 1975, 1976, 1980). From its earliest conceptual statement (Hackman and Lawler, 1971), the model has evolved into a rather elegant framework. Recently, Hackman and Oldham’s JCM has been widely discussed and served as the foundation for many job enrichment studies (Griffeth, 1985; Loher *et al*, 1985; Thomas and Velthouse, 1990; Fulford and Enz, 1995; Spreitzer, 1995). In light of this, this research uses “JCM” and “enrichment” interchangeably. Hopefully, it will be helpful and more concise to scrutinise the subtle but critical distinctions between empowerment and enrichment.

Job characteristics theory (Hackman and Oldham, 1975, 1980) provides a well-developed systematic framework for understanding and predicting the effects of work design on the motivation of individuals. According to their job characteristics



model (JCM), a total of seven distinct “core” and “supplementary” job characteristics influence three critical psychological states, which in turn have an impact upon a variety of personal and work outcomes. In addition, the theory identifies the conditions under which positive effects would be expected when jobs are enriched. Hackman and Oldham also provide tools for the diagnosis of a job, the job diagnosis survey (JDS).

Before any further theoretical discussion, the JCM (Figure 3.1) must be briefly described. It entails five sets of constructs:

- Core job Dimensions (CJDs);
- Critical Psychological States (CPSs);
- Affective Outcomes (AOs); and
- Moderators

Hackman and Oldham (1975, 1980) made an explicit definition for each construct, as follows:

**Core job dimensions** include five fundamental and two supplementary constructs. The former are skill variety, task identity, task significance, autonomy, and feedback from the job; the latter includes two constructs – feedback from agents (supervisors and co-workers) and opportunities for dealing with others.

- **Skill variety:** “The degree to which a job requires a variety of deferent activities in carrying out the work, which involve the use of a number of diverse skills and talents of the employee” (Hackman and Oldham, 1980: 78).
- **Task identity:** “The degree to which the job requires completion of a “whole” and identifiable piece of work – That is, doing a job from beginning to end with a visible outcome” (Hackman and Oldham, 1980: 78).
- **Task significance:** “The degree to which the job has a substantial impact on the lives of other people, whether those people are in the immediate organisation or in the work at large” (Hackman and Oldham, 1980: 79).

- **Autonomy:** “The degree to which a job provides substantial freedom, independence and discretion to the individual in scheduling the work and in determining the procedures to be used in carrying it out” (Hackman and Oldham, 1980: 79).
- **Feedback from the job itself:** “The degree to which carrying out the work activities required by the job results in the employee obtaining direct and clear information about the effectiveness of his or her performance” (Hackman and Oldham, 1980: 80).
- **Feedback from the agents:** “The degree to which the employee receives clear information about his or her performance from supervisors or from co-workers” (Hackman and Oldham, 1980: 104). This dimension was not included in the original JCM research (Hackman and Oldham, 1975). It was then included to provide information to supplement that provided by the feedback from the job itself dimension (Hackman and Oldham, 1980).
- **Dealing with others:** “The degree to which the job requires the employee to work closely with other people in carrying out the work activities including dealings with other organisational members and with external organisational clients” (Hackman and Oldham, 1980: 104).

**Critical psychological states** include experienced meaningfulness, experienced responsibility, and knowledge of the results. They mediate between the core job dimensions and the affective outcomes.

- **Experienced meaningfulness of the work:** “The degree to which the employee experiences the job as one which is generally meaningful, valuable, and worthwhile” (Hackman and Oldham, 1975: 162).
- **Experienced responsibility for work outcomes:** “The degree to which the employee feels personally accountable and responsible for the results of the work he or she does” (Hackman and Oldham, 1975: 162).
- **Knowledge of results:** “The degree to which the employee knows and understands, on a continuous basis, how effectively he or she is performing the job” (Hackman and Oldham, 1975: 162).

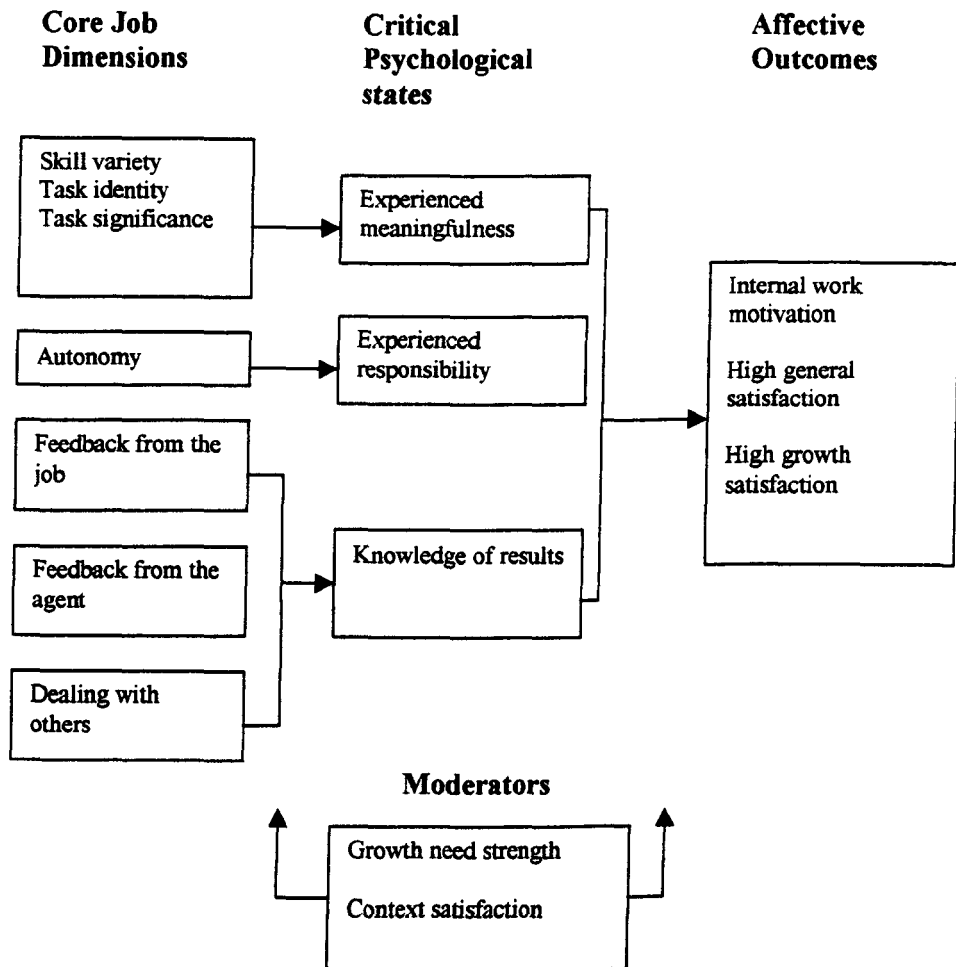
**Affective outcomes** include internal work motivation, general satisfaction and growth satisfaction. They are affective reactions or feelings a person obtains from performing the job.

- **General satisfaction:** “An overall measure of the degree to which the employee is satisfied and happy with the job” (Hackman and Oldham, 1975: 162).
- **Internal work motivation:** “The degree to which the employee is self-motivated to perform effectively on the job – that is, the employee experiences positive internal feeling when working effectively in the job, and negative internal feeling when doing poorly” (Hackman and Oldham, 1975: 162).
- **Growth needs satisfaction:** this construct is focused on the feeling of worthwhile accomplishment, challenge, independent thought, and personal growth and development that one gets from doing his or her job.

**Moderators** cover growth needs strength, and context satisfaction including satisfaction with job security, pay, co-workers, and supervisors.

- **Growth needs strength** is referred to as strong needs for personal challenge and accomplishment, for learning, and for professional development. It is rooted in the higher order needs in Maslow’s (1954, 1968) needs hierarchy, and motivator factors in Herzberg’s (1966) two-factor theory.
- **Satisfaction with job security** indicates the degree to which the employee feels satisfied about the current and future employment security in the organisation.
- **Pay satisfaction** is concerned with fair pay and fringe benefit according to what he or she contributes to the organisation.
- **Satisfaction with co-workers** includes three areas – the chance to help co-workers, to get acquainted with others and be affiliated to the work group.
- **Satisfaction with supervision:** it entails supervisors’ guidance and support, respect and fair treatment, and the quality of supervision.

**Figure 3.1**  
**Hackman and Oldham's Job Characteristics Model (JCM)**



Source: Adapted from Hackman and Oldham (1975,1980)

Theoretically and statistically speaking, all constructs in this model are interrelated and may positively or negatively associate with one another owing to the conditions of the moderators. The arrows between constructs in Figure 3.1 demonstrate the expected antecedents and consequences. Critical psychological states (CPSs) of

employees must exist for internally motivated work behaviour to develop. The presence of core job dimensions (CJDs) can create these CPSs. “Experienced meaningfulness” of the work is primarily enhanced by “skill variety”, “task identity” and “task significance”. “Experienced responsibility for work outcomes” is linked to the presence of “autonomy” on the job. “Knowledge of results” is increased when a job elicits a high level of “feedback from the job itself”, “feedback from the agents” and “dealing with others”. According to the JCM, positive “affective outcomes” are the result of all three psychological states being engendered in the job incumbent, due to a job containing a necessary amount of CJDs.

However, individual attributes and contextual conditions will determine how positively a worker will respond to a complex and challenging job. An individual who has a strong desire for accomplishment and growth should respond positively, while an incumbent with a low need for accomplishment or growth may feel intimidated or “stretched” and consequently would not respond favourably. For this reason, growth needs strength represents a moderator of the other theory-specified relationship. Additionally, employees tend to respond more positively to complex, challenging work when they are satisfied with vicarious aspects of the work context than when they are dissatisfied with contextual factors. Specifically, employees who are relatively satisfied with their pay and security in the organisation, the treatment they receive from their supervisor, and their co-workers tend to perform at the highest levels when working on jobs with high motivating potential (Oldham, Hackman and Pierce, 1976).

JCM put forward by Hackman and Oldham (1975, 1980) is a well-articulated theory available regarding the impact of the design of work upon the thoughts, feelings, and actions of job incumbents. Although JCM has since attracted a large share of criticism (Roberts and Glick, 1981; Staw, 1984; Idaszak and Drasgow, 1987; Kulik *et al*, 1988; Dodd, and Ganster, 1996; Wan-Huggins, Riordan and Griffeth, 1998), it was one of the most dominant job design theories in the seventies and eighties (Staw, 1984). Up to now, the model has stimulated most of the new competing work on job attitudes to work, and taken motivation researchers one step closer to understanding

the relationship between the nature of the job and employee performance (Steers, Porter and Bigley, 1996; Staw, 1984). In spite of its popularity, Hackman and Oldham's ideas have not been tested extensively among service industry workers. Lee-Ross (1998) applied this model among seasonal hotel workers. He tested its reliability and rationale, and advocated it as a practical theory of motivation that should be used in the hospitality industry.

### **3.3 Interdisciplinary examination of the costs and benefits of enlarged job design**

To date, evaluative research has found that many benefits, such as job satisfaction, performance, commitment, and work motivation, could be obtained by motivational job design. However, in response to different internal labour markets, practitioners may not always be able to enlarge and enrich jobs to meet staffing demand. In many situations, the sole focus on the motivational paradigm might have many costs as well as additional benefits.

Deskilling (sometimes called "McDonaldization") and strictly designed job descriptions have been often discussed in hospitality research (Baum, 1995; Riley, 1996; Wood, 1997). While termed in a number of ways, the concept of deskilling is based on the considerations of scientific management (Taylor, 1911). In order to meet staffing demands in the weak internal labour market (Baum, 1995; Riley, 1996), hospitality practitioners tend to opt for standardisation, specialisation, and simplification in order to maximise productive efficiency and at the same time minimising training requirements. In addressing the costs and benefits of the scientific paradigm, critics (e.g. Campion and McClelland, 1991; Mullins, 1995; Wood, 1997) have stated that scientific job design, focusing on job simplification and specialisation, might benefit personnel efficiency, and make staffing and training easier; however, it may forgo the intended benefits of motivational job design.

Although voluminous research has advocated the benefits of motivational job enlargement and job enrichment, Campion and McClelland (1991) argue that the

assessment of job design should allow for interdisciplinary perspectives, lest the sole focus of motivational discipline should create bias, and disregard the merits of other work design paradigms. Resulting from a series of job enlargement empirical studies, Campion and his associates' (Campion, 1989; Campion and McClelland, 1991; Campion and McClelland, 1993) identified four types of job design which are the motivational model, the mechanistic model, the biological model, and the perceptual-motor model. As a whole, the motivation model is contrary to the others. Each discipline is briefly described as follows:

- The motivational model comes from work motivational theories (Herzberg, 1966; Cherns, 1976; Steer and Mowday, 1977; Hackman and Oldham, 1980). It focuses on those features of jobs that enhance psychological meaning and motivation potential, such as skill variety, autonomy, and feedback. This model predicts that increases in complexity will increase satisfaction, intrinsic motivation, involvement, performance, attendance, and mental skill requirement. However, job enrichment often raises compensation requirement (Lawler, 1987). Proponents of the motivational approach believe that well designed jobs should increase both the number and level of skills required. Likewise, it also increases the number of skills by expanding the boundaries of the work process for which the group is responsible (Cherns, 1976). While broadening skill varieties, the employee needs to take more responsibility for decision making. At the same time, expanding the boundaries of work processes means reducing the number of hierarchical levels in the organisation, thus pushing decision-making responsibility down to the work group. Lashley's (1995b) study of delaying in McDonald's could exemplify this model.
- The mechanistic model comes from classic industrial engineering (Taylor, 1911; Niebel, 1988). It predicts that a decrease in complexity will increase human resource efficiency and flexibility outcomes such as staffing and low training times, and will reduce skill requirements. The key mechanistic concepts of specialisation and simplification are the opposites of job enlargement and enrichment, respectively. Efficiency is attained because specialisation reduces the

number of skills required, and simplification reduces the level of skills required. The mechanistic approach also suggests decreasing the amount of responsibility or autonomy of the employee, which leads to decreased skill requirements. Besides, this approach usually requires lower compensation.

- The biological model focuses on minimising physical strain on the worker by reducing strength and endurance requirements and aversive climate and noise conditions. It results in less discomfort, fatigue, and illness for employees and the job has decreased physical ability requirements as well. Wood (1997) vividly describes the gloomy working conditions of cooks. He argues this is due to the lack of consideration of this job design approach in the early hotel and catering industries.
- The perceptual-motor model is oriented toward human mental capabilities and limitations, primarily by striving to reduce the attention and concentration requirement of jobs. This approach seeks to improve reliability, safety, and user reactions by limiting the sensory and information processing requirements of the job. In doing so, the job is designed not to exceed the abilities of the least capable potential worker. Like mechanistic and biological models, the perceptual-motor model has the effect of decreasing cognitive demands and skills requirement. Thus, it may lower compensation requirements (Lawler, 1987). Examples of the biological and perceptual-motor job design model in the hotel setting can be the usage of convenience food and technology, such as convection ovens and microwaves.

Each of the models hinges on a different discipline. Rather than preclude the others, the four models shed light on costs as well as benefits from different viewpoints. Owing to the different interests, it could be expected that the motivational model might conflict with the mechanistic and perceptual-motor models. Adding a variety of task components to an individual, which is based on the discipline of the motivational model, may have costs reflecting certain foregone benefits of the mechanistic and perceptual-motor model (Campion and McClelland, 1993). On the



one hand, an intervention of job enlargement may assist in forming a natural unit of work, called job variety and job identity in Hackman and Oldham's Job Characteristics Model. On the other, job enlargement may militate against the intended benefits from mechanistic and perceptual-motor models. Therefore, the definition and impacts of the overused term — enlargement — needs to be discussed in detail.

Enlargement means the employee has varied tasks on the job. It is a wide spread workplace intervention based on traditional organisational psychology. Evaluative research had examined its benefits and costs such as satisfaction, performance effectiveness and work motivation (Pierce and Dunham, 1976). Hackman and Oldham (1975,1980) embrace this concept into their job characteristics model, they operationalise and measure this concept as skill variety. The design features of the JCM involve both enrichment (e.g., autonomy) and enlargement (e.g., variety and identity). Each element in the core job characteristics is supposed to benefit a certain critical psychological state. The increase in skill variety and task identity could lead to increased experience of meaning in the work. To enhance autonomy may bring about the experience of responsibility for outcomes of the work. In light of this model, enrichment together with enlargement, in effect, plays a very important role in motivation discipline. However, JCM itself does not illuminate whether enlarging a job by asking the employee to perform tasks in more than one product areas would have more positive effects, or simply adding a variety of tasks belonging to the same product line to a jobholder could lead to better outcomes. Campion and McClelland (1993) propose that enlargement can be task enlargement and knowledge enlargement. They define task enlargement as adding requirements for doing other tasks on the same product. Knowledge enlargement is defined as adding requirements to the job for understanding procedures or rules relating to different tangible or intangible products sold by the organisation. To evaluate the costs and benefits of these two types of job enlargement, they collected data from clerical employees in a service company and conducted a 2-year follow-up interdisciplinary study. The results demonstrates that the "task enlargement" had mostly long-term costs, such as greater mental overload, a greater chance of making errors, lower job

efficiency, less satisfaction, less chance of catching errors, and worse customer service. On the contrary, “Knowledge enlargement” has many benefits, such as more satisfaction, greater chance of catching errors, less mental underload, less mental overload, better customer service, less chance of making errors, and higher efficiency (Campion and McClelland, 1993).

This longitudinal study also reconciled some conflicts between motivational versus the other three disciplines of job design. From the perspective of a mechanistic model, adding tasks is supposed to require higher training requirements and the application of more basic skills. However, Campion and McClelland (1993) study does not significantly confirm these two costs (higher training requirement and more basic skills) for the “task enlargement” intervention, but “knowledge enlargement” does have the expected two costs. In other words, in the long run knowledge enlargement leads to higher requirements of training and skills than does task enlargement. This implies that in the hospitality industry, with its high labour turnover and fluctuating labour demands, researchers and practitioners may well evaluate the pros and cons of “task enlargement” and “knowledge enlargement” when job enlargement is implemented.

To compare the long term effects between the perceptual-motor and motivational models, Campion and McClelland (1993) found that “task enlargement” caused more mental overload and greater chance of making mistakes than the perceptual-motor approach. On the other hand, over a certain period of time “knowledge enlargement” eventually resulted in less mental overload and less chance of making errors than the perceptual-motor approach. Finally, the two types of enlargement were not significantly associated with the workspace physical comfort (the biological discipline).

Campion and McClelland’s (1993) longitudinal study demonstrated that “knowledge enlargement” should be more enriching than task enlargement because it would enhance an individual’s higher order needs and self-esteem as opposed to just imposing larger number of activities. This notion is consistent with Herzberg’s study

(1968). Herzberg (1968) noted when adding tasks to an employee, researchers and practitioners should take notice of the common mistakes of enlargement. For example, very often employees might regard enlargement as adding another meaningless task in addition to the existing one, or challenging the employees by increasing the amount of production expected of them. On the other hand, “knowledge enlargement” enhances the overall understanding of the organisational context, which is thus more psychologically meaningful than task enlargement.

Enhancing task identity and skill variety are two core job dimensions in Hackman and Oldham’s (1980) JCM. These two features can be obtained by enlarging jobs. After becoming acquainted with more product areas, an employee would be more effective to do work on any product and service that might come into the department. With the increased emphasis on quality service in the hospitality industry, task identity and skill variety would increase the value that an employee puts on him or herself (self-esteem), due to the increased ability to answer guests’ inquiries and perform one-on one selling skills. “Knowledge enlargement” involves more identity and variety, and thus is more enriching than those provided by simply completing all the tasks on a given piece of work, the results of “task enlargement”.

A range of researchers (Ackerman, 1981; Lockwood and Guerrier, 1989; Baum, 1995; Wood, 1997) has discussed the labour market issues in the hospitality industry. From this literature the typical attributes of its workforce are identified as,

- Employees are predominantly women, and low-skilled mid-age women, young people, and ethnic minorities.
- Organisations rely on large numbers of part-timers, and seasonal workers to meet their highly variable staffing needs.
- Workers have low average earnings per hour (excluding tips).
- For many they are dead-end jobs, without any prospect for promotion or a career.
- They are hardly protected by unionisation.

To place a greater variety of tasks on these workers, a company would have to invest heavily in training and selection to try to have employees meet the required skills. Very often, hospitality management is faced with several conundrums, including:

- This training would probably be unsuccessful, because the rapid-turnover of employees, especially peripheral employees, means they would not stay with the company long enough to provide a return on the investment.
- People with low growth needs would be “stretched” or overloaded to their detriment by imposed extra tasks.
- Instead of the motivational model, the three types of job design discussed above would train workers easily and put them to work without further ado to meet immediate demands.
- To implement the motivational job design model, the organisation would have to practice contingent reward systems to keep full-time employees ( Bowen and Lawler, 1992; Honold, 1997). The contingent compensation could be based on “pay by skills obtained” or “pay by performance” (Lawler 1987).
- Even if a company could pay higher wages to full-time employees, it still has to cope with idle human resource assets when business is slow.
- One advantage of “task enlargement” is that it doesn’t need a higher training requirement and extra basic skills. However, this advantage could run at the cost of generating more employee mental overload and increased service delivery mistakes in the long run.
- The advantage of “knowledge enlargement” is that it would result in less mental overload and less chance of making errors. However, only if the hospitality organisation invests in training and selection, could these favourable outcomes be obtained.

Although the merits of “knowledge enlargement” are obvious, hospitality organisations should still treat it with caution. Poorly designed “knowledge enlargement” would not lead to performance effectiveness. It is state-of-the-art, and must be reasonable to combine the heterogeneity and homogeneity of different tasks. Bowen and Youngdahl (1998: 214) describe how:

During the late 1980s, Taco Bell placed an operational focus on food preparation (Schlesinger and Hallowell, 1994). A significant portion of total employee effort was dedicated to transforming raw material such as cheese, meat, and lettuce into the value-added material that would be used to assemble various food products. Often, the same person attending to food processing in the “back office” would have to switch to “front-office” activities involving direct customer contact. The physically tired and food-covered employees would be expected to cheerfully greet the lunch crowd. By ineffectively decoupling back-office food processing from front-office customer service (Schlesinger and Heskett, 1991), Taco Bell failed to capitalise on both food preparation efficiencies and customer service effectiveness.

As a consequence, it would be interesting to identify the predictive power of each of the job characteristics and their additive effects on the intended benefits to empowerment, work motivation, organisational commitment in hotel environment. The various questions and propositions will be incorporated into this study’s research design in the methodological and data analytical chapters.

### **3.4 Job Enlargement and enrichment: conceptual analysis**

The boredom and dissatisfaction created by oversimplified and routine jobs is undesirable and costly. Extreme repetitiveness and boring work is considered dehumanizing. Individuals who are treated like machines are inclined to lose their interest in their jobs, in taking initiative and using their skills effectively (Feldman and Arnold, 1983). By contrast to scientific management, motivational job designs advocate the need to “put back together” highly fractionalised and specialized jobs in an attempt to reduce boredom and increase satisfaction at work.

### **3.4.1 Managerial Fallacy: Common Mistakes in Implementing Job Enlargement**

Putting back together the fractionalised components of jobs helps improve task identity which attributes to experiencing meaningfulness of the work discussed in the job characteristics model (Hackman & Oldman, 1975, 1980); however, job enlargement is not without its critics. In practice, it is easy to misuse job enlargement. The results of enlargement tend to make workers consider job enlargement as a management strategy designed to reduce the number of employees required by organisations (labour exploitation). Without redesigning the essential nature of work, enlargement may simply require employees to perform a wider variety of boring and monotonous jobs (Feldman and Arnold, 1983). Herzberg (1968) identified four common mistakes that hospitality management should take into account:

- “Adding another meaningless task to the existing one, usually some routine clerical activity” (Herzberg, 1968: 59). In flattening organisational structure, more and more hotels have required chambermaids to do clerical tasks in the past decades. Clerical tasks may usually be considered relatively simple and they are believed not to pose any problem for chambermaids. However, this type of work may be perceived as an additional unwarranted burden, and create another cause of work stress (Faulker and Patiar, 1997).
- “Rotating the assignments of a number of jobs that need to be enriched” (Herzberg, 1968: 59). Washing dishes for a while and then washing silverware will not be beneficial to the improvement of satisfaction and motivation.
- “Removing the most difficult parts of the assignment in order to free the worker to accomplish more of the less challenging assignment” (Herzberg, 1968: 59). In the hope of increasing productivity, this may be considered an efficient approach. Nevertheless the opportunity to learn and grow is reduced at the same time.
- “Challenging the employee by increasing the amount of production expected of him” (Herzberg, 1968: 59). Enlargement is a practice of putting fractionalised tasks back together, but not increasing workload. For example, given that cleaning fourteen rooms per day for a chambermaid is a norm, what does the additional assignment of public areas or banquet rooms mean to them?

### 3.4.2 Job enrichment

Herzberg's motivator-hygiene theory (e.g. Herzberg, Mausner, and Snyderman 1959; Herzberg, 1966) advanced the "content theories of motivation" (e.g. Maslow's hierarchy of needs, 1954; Alderfer's existence-relatedness-growth theory, 1972), and created a new field of job enrichment research. The fundamentals of Herzberg's research argues that employees would tend to describe satisfying experiences in terms of factors that are intrinsic to the content of the job itself. These factors are called "motivators" including such variables as achievement, recognition, responsibility, advancement, and growth. On the other hand, factors that are extrinsic to work itself are called "hygiene factors" including such factors as salary, interpersonal relationships, status, security, working conditions, supervision, and company policy. Motivator-hygiene theory asserts that the psychological states of satisfaction and dissatisfaction are separate and independent continua. Further, this theory argues that whether a person is satisfied and motivated by a job is solely determined by the extent to which the job contains intrinsic motivators. Conversely, dissatisfaction is caused by a lack of extrinsic hygiene factors. Hygiene factors cannot generate positive motivation and satisfaction; namely, they are present in the job in order to prevent dissatisfaction. Satisfaction can only be reached and maintained by entailing the intrinsic motivators in to jobs.

Faulker and Patiar (1997) provide us with another opportunity to reconsider the issue of job enlargement and job enrichment in hotel operation. Their study revealed that chambermaids regarded the imposed clerical tasks as an additional burden and another cause of work stress. Usually a rather parsimonious definition of enlargement and enrichment is that a vertical task combination is called enrichment and horizontal is enlargement. Such a definition could lead to some questions:

- What does the "vertical" means? What is "horizontal"?
- Why should recording the log of room status after cleaning up rooms be perceived as horizontal enlargement instead of vertical job enrichment?

Herzberg's research provides us with an explicit explanation of the questions. Herzberg believes that the distinction between enlargement and enrichment is decided by "the extent to which a job requires workers simply to do what others have instructed them to do versus the amount of personal control that an individual is given over how the work is to be performed" (Feldman and Arnold, 1983: 235). In other words, giving a wider "doing" components to employees is job enlargement and providing more "controlling" components is job enrichment.

Herzberg refers to job enrichment as "vertical enrichment". Vertical enrichment involves a fundamental shift in the degree of control that workers have over their work. The term vertical is employed to indicate that job enrichment involves a downward shifting in the organisation of authority and responsibility for effective performance. When the authority and control of management are shifted downward in the organisation to those who also actually do the work, the organisation is delivering motivating factors. A greater degree of control can increase workers' feelings of personal achievement, responsibility, growth, and competence; these feelings can induce motivation and satisfaction (Herzberg, 1968).

### **3.4.3 Evaluation of Herzberg's motivator-hygiene theory**

Steers, Porter and Bigley (1996) note that one of the most significant contributions of Herzberg's work was its strong impact on stimulating thought, research, and experimentation in the area of motivational literature. Herzberg's motivator-hygiene theory of motivation and his ideas on job enrichment have achieved a wide degree of currency and popularity among practising managers (Feldman and Arnold, 1983; Steers, Porter and Bigley, 1996). Motivator-hygiene theory has an international appeal. Gibson, Ivancevich and Donnelly (1994) reported that in their discussions of motivation applications with numerous managers in Europe, the Pacific Rim, and Latin America, the two-factor theory and Herzberg's explanation of management is referred to more often than any other theory. The reason for such awareness and popularity among practising managers is that the theory is elegant in its simplicity. Two-factor theory conveniently categorises factors attributable to work motivation



into two sets of independent factors, motivators and hygiene factors. This idea is easy to understand, easy to remember, and clear in its implications for management practice.

To sum up, Herzberg's two-factor theory has had a number of positive effects on the design of jobs and reward systems. First, it has helped draw attention of both managers and researchers to the nature of the work itself as a critical factor influencing what people do at work and how they feel about what they do. Second, it has increased awareness of the potential importance of intrinsic factors such as achievement, responsibility, and growth as factors influencing motivation, satisfaction, and performance (Feldman and Arnold, 1983). Finally, Herzberg has stimulated other researchers (e.g., Hackman and Oldham's JCM) who have advocated alternative theories of work motivation (Steers, Porter and Bigley, 1996).

#### **3.4.4 Limitations of two-factor theory**

The premise behind Herzberg's two-factors theory is that employees would tend to describe satisfying experiences in terms of factors that are intrinsic to the content of the job itself. These factors were called "motivators", and include such variables as achievement, responsibility, and growth opportunities. Conversely, dissatisfying experiences, called "hygiene" factors, resulted largely from extrinsic, non-job related factors, such as company policies, salary, co-worker relations, and supervisory style. Herzberg (1966) argues that eliminating the causes of dissatisfaction would not result in a state of satisfaction; instead, it would result in a neutral state. Satisfaction would occur only as a result of the use of motivators.

Herzberg's theory and approach have been subjected to a good deal of criticism and appear to suffer from a number of serious shortcomings. Some limitations relevant to this research are individual attributes, the existence of extrinsic rewards, and favourable contextual factors. In fact, recent research has gradually supported the view that the contextual factors are vital ingredients to motivate or empower the employee. For example, research on organisational citizenship behaviours argues that

the supportive superiors, co-workers, and fair treatment and contingent reward system would motivate the employee to put forth extra efforts and lead to the commitment to service excellence (Bowen and Lawler, 1992; Schneider *et al*, 1994).

With respect to personal attitudes, many researchers believe that Herzberg's theory does not give sufficient attention to individual differences and assumes that job enrichment benefits all employees (Oldham, Hackman, and Pierce, 1976; Pierce and Dunham, 1976, Sims and Szilagyi, 1976; Arnold and House, 1980; Champoux, 1980; Tharenous and Harker, 1982; Steers, Porter and Bigley, 1996). They claim that there is a variety of segments of the population that are either highly sceptical or, in some cases, actively opposed to the attempt of changing the fundamental nature of work in organisations. They support the view that one's growth needs strength (GNS) is the moderator of that link between enrichment and job satisfaction. People who are high in achievement needs or growth needs respond more favourably (are more satisfied and perform better) when faced with enriched, challenging jobs than do people low on these needs.

Further, research has generally failed to support the argument that motivators and hygiene factors are independent from each other (Steers, Porter and Bigley, 1996). Critics consistently find that both motivators and hygiene factors can lead to both satisfaction and dissatisfaction. Expectancy, goal setting, and other modern work motivation research do not restrict hygiene factors to their motivational approaches; for example the process of "instrumentality" in expectancy theory could be a process for job holders to obtain extrinsic rewards (Vroom, 1964; Lawler, 1973). Much empowerment research has supported the view that contingent compensation is a factor to sustain the empowerment practices (Bowen and Lawler, 1992, 1995; Honold, 1997). Studies on hotel workers also show that compensation is an important ingredient to employee satisfaction, performance effectiveness, and is negatively associate with intention to turnover (Weaver, 1988; Sparrowe, 1994; Simons and Enz, 1995; Siu, Tsang, and Wong, 1997).

The more complex and enriched a job is, the more likely the high-GNS person, who possesses a high need for personal growth and development, is to be satisfied with that job. For Low-GNS employees, the presence of contingent compensation, work group, and management support for enrichment activities may be necessary if enlarged and enriched jobs are to increase employee satisfaction. If the management is supportive of enriched work, and the compensation is worthy of taking more responsibilities, these situational characteristics may help to enhance the employee's satisfaction with a more complex job.

### **3.5 The interactive effects of variety, autonomy and feedback on attitudes and performance**

Although Hackman and Oldham (1980) proposed that each job characteristic in the JCM is not independent of one another, the interactive effects of the core job characteristics on the outcomes were not seriously measured in the series of JDS development (e.g. Hackman and Lawler, 1971; Hackman and Oldham, 1976; Hackman and Oldham, 1980). A intuitive explanation of the phenomena might be that jobs high in motivation tend to incorporate most or all of the characteristics, and poorly designed jobs are likely to be low in most merits of those elements (Hackman and Oldham, 1980). It could be disputed whether any of the characteristics would obtain the intended outcomes in the absence of others. It is also possible that each characteristic itself is powerful enough to create certain positive outcomes. In addressing this issue, Roberts and Glick's (1981) qualitative and Stone's (1986) quantitative reviews have respectively found a strong positive relationship between perceptual measures of the job characteristics and affective responses to the task. Therefore, in addition to the discussion of each characteristic, it is important to comprehend how objective job characteristics influence one another, and how the interactions affect jobholders' perceptions and the correspondent outcomes.

Dodd and Ganster (1996) reviewed eight empirical studies that evaluated the job dimension on the basis of various motivation theories (Stone and Porter, 1975; Mowday, Stone and Porter, 1979; O'Reilly, Parlette and Bloom, 1980; Keller and

Holland, 1981; Teas, 1981; O'Brien, 1982; Snyder, Head and Sorenson, 1982; Stone, 1986). They identified three job characteristics — variety, autonomy, and feedback— which emerged as the most robust predictors of the intended outcomes. Task identity and task significance seldom emerged as strong predictors of outcomes. Thus, they conducted an experimental study on the interactive effects of variety, autonomy, and feedback on attitudes and performance. The results indicated that any of the job characteristics in isolation is less likely or unable to increase the degrees of job satisfaction and job performance. In a low variety task, increased autonomy would have little impact on satisfaction, while in high variety, increasing autonomy could lead to greater satisfaction. In the measurement of performance effectiveness, objective variety and autonomy also interacted with each other. In a low variety task, autonomy had negligible effects, while in a high variety task increased autonomy would contribute to a significant increase in the effectiveness of performance. Likewise, autonomy and feedback were also proved to be interdependent. In a high autonomy task, increased feedback contributed to increased performance, but increased feedback in a low autonomy task had little impact on performance.

Dodd and Ganster's (1996) finding pertaining to the interaction between variety and autonomy is consistent with Campbell and Gingrich' (1986) field experiment research, which looks at the interactive effect of task complexity and participation in decision-making on performance. Campbell and Gingrich (1986) found that in a simple version of a task, participation in discussion of how to do a project and in setting a completion target had no effect on performance. Since, for relatively simple tasks, the most effective way to perform the task would be fairly obvious, increased participation and discussion seems unnecessary, perhaps even confusing. On the other hand, for a more complex job, the increase in autonomy and participation would have a greater positive impact on performance and satisfaction. When the job requires a number of complex skills and talents, an individual would have the chance to use personal judgement in carrying out the work. Hence a logical extension of this line of reasoning could be that employees would have more interest in showing their voice and choice in participative decision-making in facing high variety tasks (e.g. task enlargement or knowledge enlargement).

Perhaps of more importance to practising hospitality managers is the fact that many of the jobs in hotels and restaurants are un or semi-skilled. Compared to other employees in the service sectors (e.g., bank employees and financial consultants), there is relatively easy to master several skills. Hence, putting several task components together might be warranted. If employees see their jobs as routine and trivial, they might think that the opportunity for autonomy is not necessary; in fact, there is no need for the use of judgement. Fast food restaurants such as McDonald's and Burger King are examples. They discovered the service principle "FACT" (people want fast food to be **fast**, **accurate** orders, food served in a **clean** restaurant, and food served at an appropriate **temperature**), and effectively design simplified menus and tasks. Though McDonald's have been running excellent business for decades, poor employee satisfaction and high turnover rates are often criticised. Flattening managerial hierarchy could be a good approach for fast service restaurants to enlarge or enrich jobs. Lashley (1995b) observed the changes to the management of McDonald's restaurants in Wales. Through delayering the management hierarchy, the company benefited from cutting overheads, reducing administrative costs and making the organisation closer to its customers. More importantly, employees were found to have a higher sense of ownership, greater responsiveness, and being responsible for improving restaurant performance.

The results of Dodd and Ganster's (1996) study also show that feedback could only be effective when it is in conjunction with a high level of autonomy. The provision of feedback allows individuals to compare their behaviour to goals so as to adjust their actions and approaches to the work. In the process of performing a task, feedback serves as a cueing device to assist in search information and developing task strategy (Earley *et al*, 1990). If one could not alter his or her actions in response to found errors and discrepancies, feedback might be unable to benefit the subsequent performance. Alternatively, in the absence of useful feedback merely having the ability to change actions could provide few advantages to increasing work effectiveness. Dodd and Ganster's study manifests this loop of autonomy-feedback

interaction. Without feedback, there would be no chance to monitor the environment; without autonomy, there would be no chance to correct the discrepancy.

In addition, managers' feedback must support autonomy and promote competence (Deci and Ryan, 1985). Surveillance and threats of punishment tend to be perceived as controlling (Lepper and Greene, 1975). Hales and Klidas's (1998) studies on the empowerment programmes in Holland's five-star hotels found that the employees saw autonomy as more responsibility rather than freedom for "choice" and "voice". Therefore, autonomy must be supported by supportive feedback, and a good balance between task variety and autonomy should be achieved and maintained. For example, Faulkner and Patiar (1997) discussed three common sources of stress for both front office staff and chambermaids:

- Coping with multiple source of demands without appropriate authorisation: Two groups of employees are subject to mass of competing, often contradictory or conflicting demands and undue expectations from a multiplicity of sources. Guests usually check in at certain daily, weekly, or seasonal peaks. The flux of demands from either guests or internal management often exceeds the employees' ability to handle them. Moreover, they are exposed to face-to-face contact with guests whom it is often not easy to reason with promptly. The complexity of the demands from jobs together with minimised autonomy leaves both groups feeling more frustrated.
- Misuse of time by others: Owing to the perishable nature of hotel products, employees in both departments have to put off their daily routine and meet urgent demands which are sometimes seen as unreasonable.
- Being undervalued at work and lack of consultation and communication: The traditional autocratic style of management provides little feedback to employees. Management often leaves little time for consultation with staff on day to day operational matters, not to speak of participative decision making. Under the circumstances, staff's initiative is stifled; self-esteem and morale are undermined as well.

To sum up, the only way for variety to be realised in a job might be through the exercise of autonomy and constructive feedback. Empowering workers doing complex tasks requires autonomy in how and when that work is performed. At the same time, the enhancement of both feedback and the workers' ability to structure the work will lead to improvements on performance quality, whether working independently or in teams.

### **3.6 Psychological empowerment and job characteristics**

Erstad (1997) reviewed various themes of empowerment with particular reference to articles published between 1994 and 1996 in the journal —*Empowerment in Organisations*, and categorised those studies into three main themes:

- Creating an empowerment culture and management strategy: 11 studies were reviewed. The authors looked at the issues of establishing an empowerment culture, implementing participation and democracy, enabling employees to take ownership of their jobs, and calling for a partnership between workers and management as mean to increase commitment.
- Empowerment in training and development and employee participation: Nine studies were reviewed. The authors examined the techniques and forms in participation management, ongoing training, learning issues, and the development of human qualities and capabilities.
- Empowerment implementation techniques and empowering teams: 13 studies were reviewed. The authors deliberated about self-management teams and the character of job that facilitates empowerment. Management uses teams as tools to achieve empowerment, hear the voice from the employees at a functional level, unleashes hidden human potential by giving authority, positive feedback, raising employees' self-esteem, and uses measuring techniques to assess the organisation's commitment to empowered teams.

It is obvious that elements in these three themes revolve around support-based work environment, sharing information, growth opportunities, work values, job

enrichment, involvement, and organisational commitment. There appears to be a wide diversity in the empowerment studies, all of which, however, are aimed to advance employees' cognition of meanings, autonomy, self-efficacy, and impact.

The job characteristics model (Hackman and Oldham, 1980) shares the same root of motivation theories with psychological empowerment. JCM, a task-centred version of intrinsic motivation theory (Shamir, 1991), draws a lot of concern from Lawler's expectancy motivation theory and Herzberg's job enrichment research (Hackman and Lawler, 1971; Hackman and Oldham, 1980). On the other hand, multidimensional psychological empowerment derives from the intrinsic motivation specifically in the work domain. However, through exhaustive literature review, several phases can be identified that might distinguish the different emphases placed by these two streams. In doing so, it might help to clarify and systemise hospitality empowerment research and provide a useful reference for future studies.

Several constructs in JCM are applied in the development of cognitive empowerment, such as meaningfulness, knowledge, and autonomy. However, the multidimensional view of psychological empowerment extends from the job content to jobholder's personal task assessment and aggregated global assessment (the term task assessment is the changes in one's cognition affects by job and other organisational characteristics; global assessment is an individual's generalised beliefs about impact, competence, meaningfulness, and choice). JCM describe work redesign and enrichment, through the alteration of specific features of a job, such as the extent to which the job has a wider variety of task activities, calls for completion of a identifiable whole job, and allows for a significant impact on others. "Core job dimensions" also includes acknowledgeable feedback, but the "feedback" merely stresses the frequency and prominence of feedback regardless of the quality of it that affects the "critical psychological states".

Hackman and Oldham (1980) argued that altering job characteristics will foster the Critical Psychological State — meaningfulness, knowledge of the results, and responsibility for the job (Hackman and Oldham, 1980). This kind of work redesign



complies with the structural or programmatic efforts that management has been calling empowerment for over a decade (Corsun and Enz, 1999). Such practices are in accordance with what Quinn and Spreitzer (1997) termed the “mechanistic” model of empowerment. Inherent in the mechanistic model is the manipulating function from the top management. Whether employees are empowered is something managers give to their people. Psychological empowerment is the state of mind as a result of organic function that is grown in an organisation, in which senior managers and front-line service employees are involved.

In addition, although the common roots of JDM and empowerment evolved from motivation theories, four-dimension empowerment extends notions of JDM in a number of ways. For example, Spreitzer (1996) states:

- First, the underlying assumption of empowerment is that individuals should have a high level of “voice” in influencing work group or organisational activities. The “impact” dimension extends the notion that individuals have some control over their own jobs (JCM) to imply that they have some influence over larger organisational matters. The feelings of impact must derive from the existence of control over decision making, scheduling work producers and the influence of work group performance outcomes.
- Second, “the four dimensions of empowerment are viewed by the individuals; these cognitions complements the more objective, job-oriented characteristics and individual differences developed by Hackman and Oldham (1980). Consequently, from this cognitive perspective, it is possible for individuals to experience empowerment even if their objective job characteristics are not enriched, and vice versa” (Spreitzer 1996: 484,485). This implies that job enrichment may be the predictor or the correlated variable of empowerment, but is not the equivalent of it. Workers could be empowered by other factors, such as support-based work climate, better access to resources or information. Alternatively, the employee could still feel powerless even though the company implements management changes.
- Third, the four empowerment dimensions reflect the individual’s relationship

with his or her work unit, which may include team dynamics and contribute to the feelings of empowerment. It is focused at the level of the individual in relation to his or her work environment. Notions of job enrichment are frequently limited to the individual and instead of the team level of analysis (Spreitzer 1996). Thus, in these ways, the conceptualisation of empowerment draws on and extends earlier work on job enrichment.

Essentially, Spreitzer's argument is consistent with the concepts underlying Lawler's (1986) high-involvement management. A high-involvement organisation's core values and principles must be congruent with the ideas of employees who are involved in and responsible for decision making. Lawler (1986) suggests the assumptions which underpins the ideal high-involvement organisation are:

- Employees can be trusted to make important decisions about their work activities.
- Employees can develop the knowledge to make important decisions about the management of their work activities.
- When employees make decisions about the management of their work, the result is greater organisational effectiveness.

Moreover, Gagné, Senécal and Koestner's (1997) study could explain Spreitzer's view that emphasises the four types of cognition resulting from the impacts of task activities and work environment. They examined relations between job characteristics, empowerment, and intrinsic motivation among workers in a Canadian telephone company. The results supported the view that the various dimensions of empowerment would mediate the relationship between job characteristic and intrinsic motivation at work. Although the subjects in their study are not hospitality workers, it is an good example for future hospitality researchers to notice that different managerial practices will have a different influence on the four empowerment dimensions (e.g., autonomous work groups, enrichment, enlargement, quality cycles, suggestion schemes, mutual communication channels, commitment, and reward schemes). Hence, this research examines Gagné, Senécal and Koestner's study, and

proposes several considerations that could be important in empowering hospitality workers.

### **3.7 The multiplicity of psychology empowerment**

Gagné, Senécal, and Koestner, (1997) discuss the antecedents of empowerment, and internal motivation. They hypothesise that job characteristics (including the two supplementary issues - feedback from agents and dealing with others) should be an instance of environmental change that reinforce and sustain the individual's attitudes toward work. Results from their analysis show that job characteristics significantly enhance workers' feelings of empowerment. The multiplicity of multidimensional empowerment is supported by the fact that none of the job characteristics displayed uniform relations across all four dimensions of empowerment. In addition, there was evidence that certain job characteristics could be associated with certain aspects of empowerment in opposite or negative ways (Figure 3.2). For example, working in an autonomy-supported condition may facilitate feelings of self-determination and impact. However, such contexts might threaten one's feeling of competence, if the organisation lacks particular attributes.

Figure 3.2 shows:

- The combination of skill variety, task identity and task significance appeared to promote feelings of meaningfulness on the job, which is consistent with the notion in JCM. The combination of these had a strong effect that directly enhanced intrinsic work motivation.
- Jobs rich in feedback were significantly associated with the cognition of competence but not associated with higher feelings of competence. "This lack of a relationship may be due to the kind of feedback may be due to the kind of feedback workers obtain from their job; it may not be informative (or instructive) of their abilities" (Gagné, Senécal, and Koestner, 1997:1235).
- Obtaining feedback from other people at work enhances feelings of meaningfulness and impact. Feedback from others also directly influences intrinsic motivation in a positive manner. It would make sense that this variable

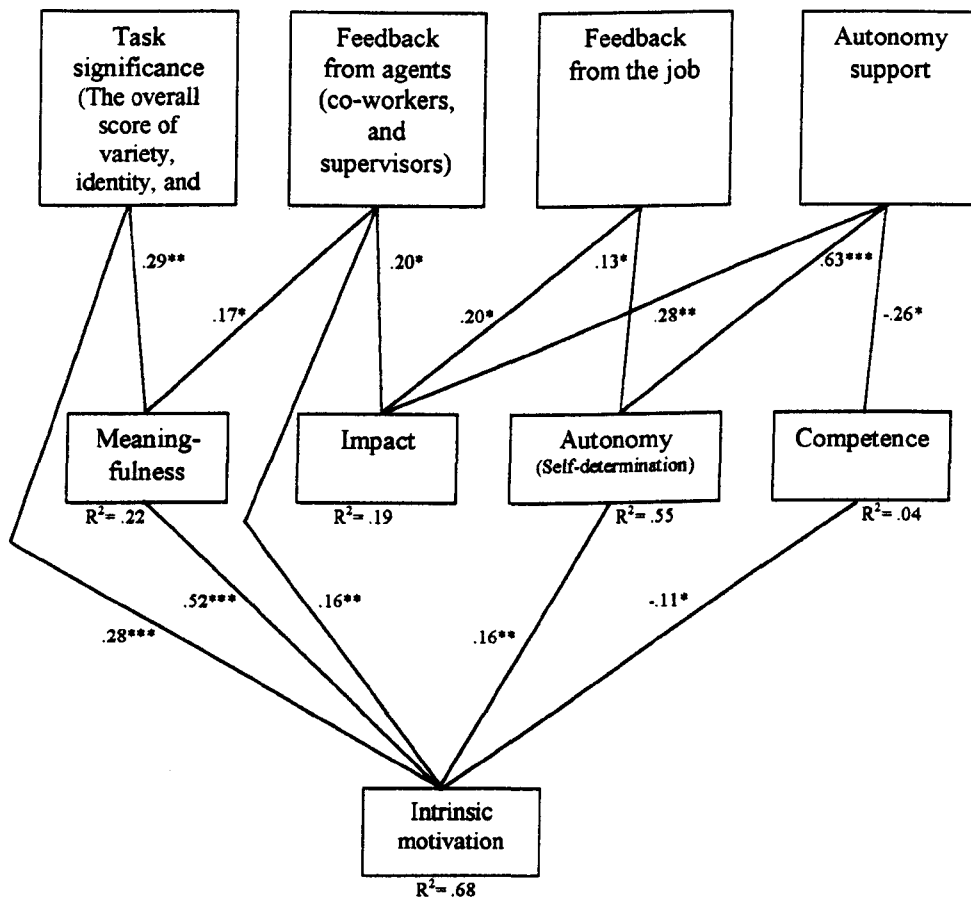
does not increase competence and self-determination simultaneously, as is discussed in Deci *et al*'s (1989) self-determination study. Only if managers give non-controlling feedback and autonomy support, can subordinates in such context tend to be more self-determining. The experience of self-determination has been found to positively affect creativity, conceptual learning, emotional tone, and self-esteem (Deci *et al*, 1989).

- Autonomy-supportive contexts also positively associated with having an impact through one's work and building competence.

It is worth noting that the negative relation obtained between the autonomy-supportive context and feelings of competence for the employees in the telephone service. Self-determination theory supports the view that feelings of competence and self-determination should generally be interrelated (Deci and Ryan, 1987). Also, Spreitzer's (1992) study of managers found that competence was the one aspect of empowerment that was positively associated with an organisational culture that values individual initiative. As proposed in the JCM, individual difference is an important moderator. Gagné, Senécal, and Koestner (1997) speculated that the different pattern of the results obtained might have to do with the fact that they studied technicians and sales representatives rather than managers. Perhaps managers in higher positions might be more accustomed to functioning with a high degree of autonomy in decision making. Results of Marniero's (1986) study of public utility and pharmacy companies which investigated the relationship of job dependency to empowerment-strategy usage reveals that individuals in high-power jobs are more likely to use empowerment strategies than those in high-dependency or low-power jobs. It may also be likely that the managers' interpersonal orientation in the company is not supportive of self-determination (Deci, Connell and Ryan, 1989). Deci's (1995) discussion of the possible confusion between supporting autonomy and being permissive might be relevant here as well. He argued that supporting autonomy must be undertaken in a context that includes adequate goals, structures, and limit setting, which will promote the internalisation of desired behaviours. This notion is consistent with reinforcement motivation theory (Komaki, Coombs, and Schepman, 1996). Reinforcement theory believes that when the leaders set clear

goals and give informative guidance, employees have greater self-efficacy and better performance effectiveness. In Gagné, Senécal, and Koestner's study (1997), it is possible that the organisation failed to provide adequate structures that would have enhanced the workers' feelings of competence through autonomous work.

**Figure 3.2** Gagné, Senécal, and Koestner's Empowerment Framework



Standardised beta coefficients and variance accounted for R<sup>2</sup> resulting from the path analysis. \* $p < .05$ . \*\* $p < .01$ . \*\*\* $p < .001$

Source: Gagné, M., Senécal, C. B. and Koestner, R. (1997)

### **3.8 Empowerment is a multidimensional construct: differential influence on work motivation**

In Figure 3.2, the links between empowerment dimensions and intrinsic motivation provide evidence for the differential influence of the four psychological dimensions on intrinsic motivation experienced at work. Thomas and Velthouse (1990) argue that meaningfulness and impact are just as important as feelings of autonomy and competence when considering intrinsic motivation at work. Gagné, Senécal, and Koestner's (1997) quantitative analysis reveals that the cognition of meaningfulness is the most robust factor that motivates employees at work. The more meaningful the work is perceived to be the more intrinsically motivated the employees felt.

Gagné, Senécal, and Koestner's study shows that the more competent the employees felt, the less intrinsically motivated they were. This finding seems surprising in light of the previously mentioned empowerment research. One reason could be that workers feel competent, but are not acknowledged as such by the organisation. This lack of recognition could mediate the negative link between competence and various psychological constructs, such as motivation and job satisfaction (Gagné, Senécal, and Koestner 1997).

The robust effect of perceived meaning and negative influence of self-efficacy on work motivation for the telephone service employees echoed with Fulford and Enz's (1995) study on the service workers in private clubs. Fulford and Enz found that perceived meaning is the strongest of the empowerment dimensions, but self-efficacy (competence) did not significantly affect the degree of service workers' performance, service delivery and concern for others. They argue that when service workers find a fit between their values and the organisation's goals they are more likely to be satisfied, loyal, service oriented, concerned with others, and high performers. The value to goals fit was more important than self-efficacy (competence). The authors noted that mastering skills (competence), in relatively routine, simple, and repetitive tasks, did not have the motivational potential that perceived meaning is likely to elicit. It is likely that working in such setting, service workers' competence is a necessary but not sufficient condition for empowerment. It is also likely that the

mastery of many unchallenging tasks is essentially not a motivator (Herzberg's Two-Factor Theory).

Contrary to the general empowerment assumption, for the telephone service employee the feeling of impact is not a predictor of intrinsic motivation. Likewise, the study of the club service workers' (Fulford and Enz, 1995) found that employees' feelings of impact and self-determination could affect their job satisfaction in a positive manner, but did not explain organisational commitment, overall performance, and concern for others. This result is quite surprising. The general notion is that if an organisation implements empowerment through participation and involvement (Bowen and Lawler, 1992; Lashley, 1995a; Quinn and Spreitzer, 1997), individuals believe that they have influence on their work unit, and others will listen to their ideas. Participation and involvement are generally regarded as useful job designs to increase employees' feeling of impact, which would thereafter enhance work motivation. Gagné, Senécal, and Koestner (1997) speculate that this lack of relationship might be due to the fact that believing that one's behaviour leads to intended effects does not increase the workers' motivation at work. On the other hand, this research views the lack of relationships between impact and performance quality as well as work motivation in an alternative direction. Lawler (1982) specifies how individual and organisational welfare could be linked through organisational practices such as participation, job design, and profit sharing. To Lawler, collective motivation oriented behaviour (prosocial and extra-role behaviour) is motivating if it contributes to organisational performance which, in turn, is linked to intrinsic or extrinsic rewards received by the individual. Staw (1984) modelled Lawler's notion, as follows:

$$\text{Collective Motivation} = \text{Probability} (P_i \rightarrow P_o) \times \text{Probability} (P_o \rightarrow O_i)$$

Where

$P_i$  = Performance of the individual

$P_o$  = Performance of the organisation (or performance of work group)

$O_i$  = Outcomes for the individual

This formulation is essentially the extension of Lawler's (1973) expectancy theory. Perceived impact can be partly described by "Probability ( $P_i \rightarrow P_o$ )", the degree to which the employee's performance resulted from the efforts he or she puts forth can influence the work group's performance outcomes (or the outcomes of organisational performance). "Probability ( $P_o \rightarrow O_i$ )" is the degree to which the individual sees the reward is tied to the group's performance outcomes. The whole model suggests that employee's prosocial or extra-role behaviour should be energised by the multiplied effects of impact and contingent rewards, either intrinsic or extrinsic.

### **3.9 Conclusion**

To sum up, Gagné, Senécal, and Koestner's (1997) study demonstrated that the overall objective job characteristics (job enrichment) could be a powerful antecedent of empowerment. Each of the core job dimensions might be predictive of different aspects of empowerment. The overall empowerment dimensions have significant influence on work motivation in positive manner, and each of them differentially affected the consequent motivation. However, there are critical elements to support and undermine these relationships. Empowerment must be coupled with required support systems. This research uses several studies including employees in hotels (Sparrowe, 1995), service workers in private clubs (Fulford and Enz, 1995), technicians and field managers in the service division of a office machine corporation (Deci, Connell, Ryan, 1989), and employees in public utility and pharmacy companies (Marniero, 1986) to investigate the relationships among each core job dimension, psychological empowerment, and work motivation. The implications of this chapter point to the value of considering empowerment as a conceptually multidimensional construct. Many studies are labelled as empowerment, but in effect relate to job enlargement, enrichment, or involvement research. Using interdisciplinary approaches to scrutinise work empowerment will help to separate popular research processes illuminated by "fads", "rhetorical", "buzzwords, or "miracle cure". Psychological empowerment, resulting from an employee's task (and global) assessment, brings researchers an alternative perspective to see the managerial meanings of empowerment.



Finally, work motivation is more than a personal feeling. It should be viewed as an enhancing and energising process. This process is mediated by cognition, such as self-esteem and self-efficacy, and may eventually lead to outcomes such as organisational effectiveness and satisfaction. In other words, during the empowerment process a change, usually facilitated by other structural or interpersonal issues in the workplace, occurs. "The process results form changes in organisational contextual and individual inter-relational variables such as, the amounts and quality of information and the degree of expressed trust and confidence receives from the work environment as well as the degree of real responsibility one feels for work outcomes" (Eylon, 1998: 17).

## CHAPTER 4

### ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT, REWARDS AND EMPOWERMENT

#### 4.1 Introduction

As an attitudinal variable, organisational commitment (OC) has been conceptualised either as an independent variable (Bateman and Strasser, 1984) or as a dependent variable (Morris and Sherman, 1981). Consequently, organisational commitment has been linked to several personal variable, role states, and aspects of the work environment ranging from job characteristics to dimensions of organisational structure. As a consequence, it has been used to predict employees' absenteeism, performance, turnover, and other behaviour. In addition, several other variables of interest, such as job involvement, stress, and job satisfaction, sometimes referred to as correlates, have demonstrated relationships with organisation commitment (Mowday, Porter, and Steer, 1982; Morrow, 1983).

This chapter begins by drawing some distinctions between different types of organisational commitment models, normally applied in administrative and psychological research; namely, attitudinal, calculative, normative, identification and organisational commitment. More specifically, this section will differentiate their operational definitions and converge the ideas of those forms in different streams of commitment studies. With the conceptualisation of organisational commitment in mind, the chapter turns to a theoretical discussion of the linkages of psychological empowerment to organisational commitment. We then examine more closely a number of intrinsic and extrinsic work values that vitalise the commitment process, followed by a look at Baum's (1995) conundrum in hospitality human resources from the perspectives of two classical commitment studies. This chapter concludes with a discussion of how collective efficacy is developed in a cohesive hospitality work group.

#### 4.2 The definition of commitment

Over several decades of study, organisational commitment has been approached from a variety of conceptual and operational perspectives. The various definitions and

measures share a central theme in that organisational commitment is considered to be the individual's psychological attachment to the organisation (O'Reilly and Chatman, 1986). The definitions differ in terms of how this bond is considered to have developed. The most commonly studied type of organisational commitment has been "attitudinal organisational commitment", most often measured with a scale developed by Porter and his associates (Mowday, Steer, and Porter, 1979; Porter, Steers, Mowday, and Boulian, 1974). Attitudinal organisational commitment is defined as a multidimensional construct. It is referred to as the relative strength of an individual's identification with and involvement in a particular organisation (Mowday, Porter, and Steers, 1982). Conceptually, it can be characterised by three dimensions:

- **Value congruence:** A strong acceptance and belief in the organisation's goals and values;
- **Affective commitment (extra effort):** Willingness to endeavour considerable effort on behalf of the organisation; and
- **Loyalty (intent to remain):** A strong desire to maintain membership in the organisation and a loyalty to the organisation.

Another popular form of organisational commitment research is "calculated organisational commitment". It is defined as "a structural phenomenon, which occurs as a result of individual – organisational transactions and alterations in side-bets or investment over time" (Hrebiniak and Alutto, 1972: 556). In other words, individuals become bound to an organisation because they have side bets, or sunk costs, invested in the organisation and cannot afford to separate themselves from it (e.g., a pension plan, or a reward system based on tenure). Calculated commitment is a type of attachment based on calculative involvement or an exchange of behaviour for specific extrinsic rewards from a moral attachment (Hall, Schneider and Nygren, 1970, Meyer and Allen, 1984).

Other forms of organisational commitment have been conceptualised and measured, including organisational identification (Mael and Ashforth, 1992) and normative

commitment (Wiener, 1982). However, to some degree, these other forms of organisational commitment have either been subsumed into or correlated with attitudinal or calculative definitions. For example, organisational identification constitutes one of the subdimensions of attitudinal commitment as defined by Porter and his associates. Normative commitment describes a process whereby organisational actions (e.g., recruitment, selection and socialisation procedures) as well as individual predisposition (e.g., value congruence between individual and organisation, and generalised loyalty or duty attitudes) lead to the development of organisational commitment (Wiener, 1982). Although this approach proposes a model of how commitment develops over time, it still considers organisational commitment as a resulting state or bond between employees and the organisation. It should also be noted that, attitudinal and calculative commitment are not entirely distinguishable concepts, and that the measurement of each contains elements of the other. Further, one may be drawn initially to an organisation because of exchange relationships (i.e., calculative OC), yet develop attitudes consistent with maintaining membership (i.e., attitudinal OC). This suggests that the two processes may become more closely linked over time (Mathieu and Zajac, 1990). Although, the rationales from different commitment theories converge to some extent, the distinctions among the different forms are sufficient enough for researchers to misinterpret the processes and impacts through which one become committed (O'Reilly and Chatman, 1986).

According to Wiener (1982), all useful theoretical models should meet at least three important criteria: definitional precision, theoretical integration with other relevant constructs, and predictive power. In view of this, this research primarily uses the definitions and measures of Porter and his associates' commitment as a foundation for the theoretical and methodological sections that follow.

#### **4.3 The interplay between cognitive empowerment and commitment**

Given the amount of research that has been devoted to organisational commitment research in past decades, it is useful to consider the interplay between what is known about its concept and the newly emerged "multidimensional empowerment"

construct, and the other variables pertaining to this research as mentioned in the preceding chapters. Arguably, the links between the attitudinal organisational commitment model and the psychological empowerment model has not been seriously examined in industrial and hospitality research. One a priori assumption could be “empowerment through commitment” (Lasley, 1995a: 29). Loyalty and shared values represent the core components for co-operation and consensus. In a strong cohesive organisation, each individual “is treated as an embodiment of the total system and each is empowered to make decisions and take actions for the good of the whole.” (King and Ehrhard, 1996: 6). Therefore,

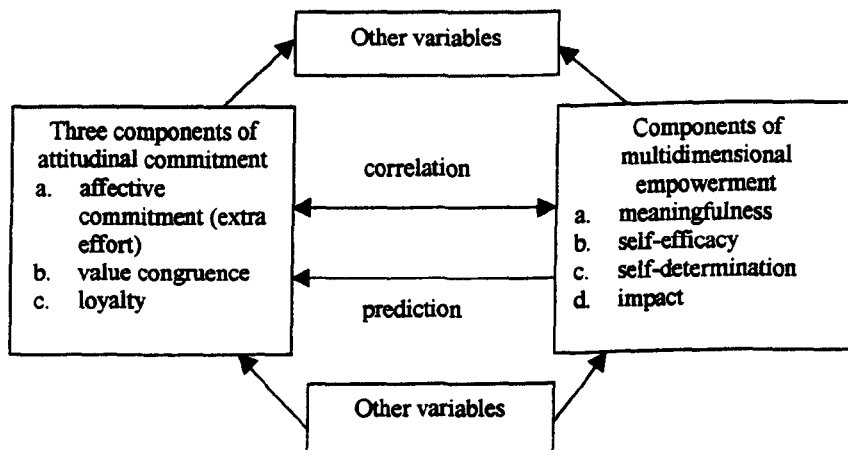
Empowering employees, through greater commitment to the organisational goals, encourages employees to take more responsibility for their own performance and its improvement, and skills and talents inherent in the employees can be realised and put to work for the benefit of the organisation, producing more satisfied customers and greater profits. They will be more adaptable to change and perhaps even accepting of organisational downsizing and redundancies (Lashley, 1995: 29).

Arguably, in the quotations from King and Ehrhard (1997, 1996) and Lashley (1995a), the terms “empowerment”, “empowered” and “empowering” are essentially analogous with the term used in autonomy research. Further, given the fact of weak internal labour markets and high employee turnover in the hospitality industry, it is unrealistic to expect, anticipate or imagine that employees will have shared values without receiving appropriate or adequate intrinsic and extrinsic rewards in return (as suggested by expectancy theory). Judging from the conventional framework of commitment research, job characteristics, group-leader relations, organisational characteristics, personal attributes, and pay are, perhaps, best referred to as the antecedents of commitment and cognitive empowerment. (Naumann, 1993; Thomas and Velthouse, 1990; Conger and Kanungo, 1988; Mathieu and Zajc, 1990; Fried and Ferris, 1987; Mowday Porter and Steers, 1982).

In this research, the underlying assumption of the causal direction of these

relationships is that multidimensional empowerment is a predictor or a correlate of commitment as presented in Figure 4.1. In other words, when the employees are high in feelings of meaningfulness, self-determination, impact, and competence, they generate extra-role behaviour, have a better sense of loyalty, and internalise the shared values. Resorting to the intuitive logic and theoretical reflection, researchers and practitioners might not accept that the employee's extra effort and loyalty cause the feelings of meaningfulness, self-determination, impact, and competence. On the other hand, commitment is initiated by a rationalising process through which individuals "make sense" of their current situation (Bateman and Strasser, 1984). At this point, value congruence, characterising one of Porter's scale, is somewhat synonymous to meaningfulness, which constitutes one of Spreitzer's dimension (Hackman and Oldham, 1980; Thomas and Velthouse, 1990; Spreitzer, 1995). Thus, it also follows that cognitive empowerment and organisational commitment is likely to be reciprocal (positively correlated) under the influences of other favourable variables.

**Figure 4.1**  
**Conceptualisation of Causal**  
**Directions between Commitment and**  
**Empowerment**



#### **4.4 Understanding the predictors of commitment from the perspective of work values approach**

Research on work values provides us with an alternative perspective to understand the predictors of organisational commitment (Putti, Aryee and Liang, 1989). Referring to the commitment theories discussed above, work value research describes organisational commitment as a function of the congruence between organisational rewards and individuals' expectation or goals (Putti, Aryee, and Liang, 1989). In this perspective, the relationship between the organisation and the individual is perceived as one of exchange. Thus, work rewards become an important variable in explaining organisational commitment. In other words, "work values" is the term to specify the range of gratification that is available from work and to specify the degree to which particular individuals value each of those facets at work (Kalleberg, 1977; Putti, Aryee and Liang, 1989).

Werkmeister (1967) provides a theoretical rationale for a relationship between work values and commitment. He posits that the act of commitment is only a manifestation of the individual's own self, and the value considerations leading to commitment reflect value standards that are basic to the individual's existence as a person (Kidron, 1978). In this sense, one's value systems should be treated as enduring perspectives of what is fundamentally right or wrong (Rokeach, 1973); namely, what is meaningful to the individual. Therefore, when there is a fit between the requirements of a work role and a person's belief and work values, the employee experiences high degrees of meaningfulness. Higher levels of meaningfulness are believed to result in commitment, involvement, and concentration of energy (Sjoberg, Olsson, and Salay, 1983; Thomas and Velthouse, 1990). On the contrary, low degrees of meaningfulness are believed to result in apathy, feeling detached and unrelated to organisational goals and values (May, 1969).

The conceptualisation of work values adopted here is consistent with the logical basis developed by content theories of work motivation (i.e., Maslow's hierarchy of needs, 1954; Alderfer's existence-relatedness-growth theory, 1972; Herzberg's motivator-hygiene theory, 1966; McClelland's learned needs theory, 1971). These

approaches to motivation are concerned with the identification of important internal elements and the explanation of how these elements may be prioritised within the individual. It points to the reasoning that work has no inherent meaning but rather, individuals impute such meanings to their work activities (Kalleberg, 1977).

For example, to understand a variety of these meanings, Wollack *et al* (1971) developed the *Survey of Work Values* (SWV) to categorise what workers personally value in jobs. SWV comprises six aspects:

- Upward striving: employee's desire to continually seek a higher level job and a better standard of living.
- Job involvement: the extent to which an employee takes an interest in company-related activities.
- Pride in work: The feeling of enjoyment and dissatisfaction an employee derives from work well done.
- Activity preference: an employee's preference to be active and busy on the job.
- Social status: the effect of the job on an employee's social standing.
- Attitude towards earning: the value an employee attaches to making money on the job.

While at work, people want a variety of intrinsic and extrinsic rewards from the organisation to meet their intrinsic work values (e.g., upward striving) and extrinsic work values (e.g., attitude towards earning). These rewards fulfil the employee's needs and make jobs meaningful to them (Coleman, 1996). When organisations fail to provide rewards that are valued by employees and when rewards are not offered for employee competence, initiative, persistence in innovative job behaviour, and the commitment to the organisation, employees' sense of powerlessness increases (Sims, 1977; Szilagy, 1980; Conger and Kanungo, 1988).



## **4.5 The interplay between rewards, empowerment and commitment**

What kind of reward, offered by an organisation, will the employee value? To investigate the rewards that generate commitment and empowerment, it might be helpful to follow the general typology developed by work motivation theories and draw a distinction between two basic types of rewards; namely, intrinsic and extrinsic rewards. The basis of the difference between the two types is clarified in what follows.

### **4.5.1 Intrinsic rewards**

Intrinsic rewards are inherent to the task activity itself. The most common types of intrinsic rewards relevant to organisational behaviour are different types of feelings that people experience as a result of their performance on the job. Examples of intrinsic rewards falling into this category are things such as people's feelings of freedom from discretion and personal responsibility arising from being granted autonomy regarding how work activities are to be carried out (self-determination), feelings of personal competence as a result of performing a job well (self-efficacy), feelings of personal accomplishment or achievement associated with attaining a goal or object (impact), and feelings of personal growth and development resulting from new learning and success in challenging areas (growth opportunities). Hence, intrinsic rewards have the potential to exert a strong influence upon the behaviour of individuals in organisations. They are also the ingredients for one to be willing to exert considerable effort to the organisation, to remain with the company, and identify with the shared values (Hall, Schneider and Nygren, 1970; Hall and Schneider, 1972; Buchanan, 1974; Steers, 1977). These intrinsic rewards valued by an individual are called intrinsic work values (Putti, Aryee and Liang, 1989).

The primary means of increasing the likelihood that people will obtain intrinsic rewards from their work lies in the way in which the organisation designs the jobs of its members (e.g., enrichment, involvement, and other empowering practices). Reviewing the organisational behaviour literature, it appears that the nature of the work itself is the primary determinant of the extent to which a person improved

motivation and performance via the use of intrinsic rewards lies in the design of the work itself. This is an essential foundation upon which Herzberg's motivators and job enrichment are built (Herzberg, 1968; Feldman and Arnold, 1983; Steers, Porter and Bigley, 1996;).

Two empirical studies assess the links between perceived competence and ability and organisational commitment respectively (Stevens, Beyer and Trace, 1978; Morris and Sherman, 1981). Morris and Sherman (1981) found that perceived competence would have a positive effect on commitment. They interpret this finding as meaning that self-referent processes might serve as a means of linking an individual to the organisation. Individuals become committed to an organisation to the extent that it provides for growth and achievement needs. Stevens, Beyer and Trace's (1978) study shows that the interaction between intrinsic and extrinsic rewards could contribute to organisational commitment. They argue that the assessed employees' ability or skill level is positively associated with commitment, because highly skilled employees should be of great value to organisations, which is likely to increase the rewards they receive, and thereby increase their calculative commitment.

Nevertheless, Stevens, Beyer and Trace's study should be interpreted carefully in research of hotel employees. Hospitality research has generally agreed that the industry's consistently high labour-turnover rate and its difficulties in retaining good people seems to stem, at least in part, from the lack of career development opportunities and the relatively low pay (Baum, 1995; Wood, 1997; Siu, Tsang and Wong, 1997). If one's perceived competence is not rewarded by adequate opportunities for promotion or satisfactory pay, it is less likely that the perceived self-efficacy will predict attitudinal organisational commitment or even professional identification (e.g., willing to remain with the current profession or job family).

#### **4.5.2 Extrinsic rewards**

Extrinsic rewards do not follow inherently from performing task activities, but are administered to a person by some external or outside agent (Feldman and Arnold,

1983). As such, extrinsic rewards are frequently used by organisations in attempts to influence the behaviour and performance of their members. Monetary compensation is perhaps the most frequently used extrinsic reward in organisations and is administered in a variety of forms and on a variety of bases. Salaries, bonus, merit increases, and profit sharing plans are indicative of some of the ways in which money is used as an extrinsic reward in organisations. Although the use of money as an extrinsic reward is pervasive, it is by no means the only extrinsic reward that can be used to influence the behaviour and performance of organisation members. Included in the available extrinsic rewards are things such as job security, promotions; recognition and praise from superiors; social status; perquisites (or so-called perks) such as expense accounts and cars; and fringe benefits such as insurance, pensions, and stock options. In order to obtain monetary rewards, fringe benefits, perquisites, and job security, the individual is dependent upon the reward policies of the organisation, while obtaining praise and promotions depends upon the perception and judgements of his or her boss. These rewards valued by an individual are called extrinsic work values.

With the low level of research interest, it appears that the job security studies are obsolete in recent hospitality research. Could the lack of research interest be attributed to the following assumption? Because it has long been characterised as a high labour turnover industry, the hospitality worker might be less concerned about job security. However, Simons and Enz (1995) conducted a study of 278 hotel employees from 12 different hotels located throughout United States and Canada. Their study found that those hospitality workers considered good wages, job security, and opportunities for advancement to be the top-three job-related factors. The importance of job security is ranked even higher than advancement opportunities. Sui, Tsang, and Wong (1997) replicated Simon and Enz's method and conducted a study of Hong Kong's hotel employees. The counterparts in Hong Kong hotels also value job security, as indicated by the number-four ranking out of 10 motivation factors (see Table 4.1). Bagshaw (1997) suggests that job security can be offered to employees in the form of opportunities to gain the inner security of making themselves more employable. The bottom line of his argument is that if employees

feel it is safe to stay, they will be more willing to share ideas, working towards a common goal for customer satisfaction. If it is safe to take initiatives, they will feel more empowered (Quinn and Spreitzer, 1997).

**Table 4.1**  
**Job-related Motivation Factors**

Job-related motivation factors	Hong Kong <sup>a</sup> (N = 1,245)	North America <sup>b</sup> (N = 278)
Opportunities for advancement, development	1	3
Loyalty to employees	2	7
Good wages	3	1
Job security	4	2
Good working conditions	5	4
Appreciation and praise for work done	6	6
Interesting work	7	5
Feeling of being involved	8	8
Tactful discipline	9	9
Sympathetic help with personal problems	10	10

<sup>a</sup> As ranked by Hong Kong's hotel workers (Siu *et al*, 1997).

<sup>b</sup> As ranked by North American hospitality workers (Simons and Enz, 1995).

Source: Adapted from Siu *et al* (1997: 46)

An important point to note about these extrinsic rewards is the fact that the majority of extrinsic rewards carry some considerable real cost to the organisation (Lawler, 1987), but these rewards moderate the motivation process. Hence, there are three important implications for the design of extrinsic reward systems.

First, the organisation must attempt to ensure, as far as possible, that the costly extrinsic rewards it is offering are highly valued by members of the organisation (a fit of the employees' work values). Second, great care must be taken to ensure that extrinsic rewards, administered to organisation members, are contingent upon effective performance (Lawler, 1987). Rewards or outcomes that reassure people they are competent and have a degree of self-determination tend to increase their intrinsic motivation to perform. While rewards or outcomes convince people that they are not competent or self-determining, they tend to decrease intrinsic motivation. The organisations need contingent rewards for managers to become coaches and for employees to take responsibility and initiative (Rafiq and Ahmed,

1998; Quinn and Spreitzer, 1997; Coleman, 1996).

Third, the management of the organisation must consider which behaviours get rewarded, and whether rewards are dispensed fairly. Humans direct their energies and competencies towards rewards they value. Management must ensure that rewards reinforce behaviour that maximises the simultaneous attainment of multiple organisational priorities. Behaviours that are customer-oriented and innovation-oriented and put the spotlight on co-operative and extra-role behaviour should be rewarded (Schneider, Gunnarson, Niles-Jolly, 1994).

#### **4.6 A paradoxical principle in the hospitality industry: enrichment and empowerment are related to organisational commitment**

Given that research has determined that job characteristics and empowerment are related to organisational identification (Steers, 1977; Koch and Steers, 1978; Thomas and Velthouse, 1990), could hotel managers retain employees by enriching jobs and empowerment? It is a controversial principle – the more resources hotels spend on enriching jobs, empowering employees' self-efficacy and developing employees careers, the more their employees become more marketable and thus leave. In addressing this conundrum (Baum, 1995), it is useful to discuss how the processes of organisational commitment are influenced by other variables.

Hall and his associates conducted two consecutive studies (Hall, Schneider and Nygren, 1970; Hall and Schneider, 1972) examining organisational identification in two types of career patterns – single-organisation (foresters and priests in their studies) and multiple-organisation (research professionals in their studies) career pattern. People of single-organisation career patterns typically spend their entire careers in one organisation, and those of multiple-organisation career pattern are more mobile. Results from the studies showed:

- Job enrichment: Job challenge, through the intervening effects of job satisfaction, is a strong correlate of identification for both career types, which supports the generality of intrinsic satisfaction as a predictor of organisational attachment.
- Tenure: With respect to the process of socialisation and mobility, Hall and his associates demonstrated that tenure is a strong correlate of organisational identification in the single-organisation career, but less so in a multiple-organisation career. Additionally, they also found that the effects of tenure itself are independent of job challenge, job involvement, self-image, needs importance, and satisfaction.
- Different dynamics for organisational commitment: Although higher-order needs satisfaction is correlated with high organisational commitment for both career patterns, the dynamics associated with organisational commitment is somewhat differential. For the single-organisation career, organisational identification is more related to security and affiliation, and the single-organisation career is able to combine security and localism with growth needs satisfaction. On the other hand, the employees (research professionals) in the multiple-organisation career must choose between these alternatives.

For the single-organisation career, as the tenure become longer, they accordingly build up stronger organisational identification; this relationship is not so significant for multiple-organisational careers. One reason for length of service leading to identification which the single-organisation pattern is that over time a person's job characteristics, values, self-image, or needs may gradually change to make the organisation appear more attractive to them. Other pragmatic reasons are that years spent in an organisation are likely to yield greater side bets (such as a pension plan) and develop greater calculative commitment, but forgo outside opportunities and declining personal marketability (Hall and Schneider, 1972).

With respect to the multiple-organisational career system, identification with the organisation is more associated with higher order needs satisfaction and self-fulfilment; in other word, organisational identification is more accounted for by the

fulfilment; in other word, organisational identification is more accounted for by the extent that autonomy, challenge, enrichment, and growth opportunities are provided by the organisation. Hall and Schneider (1972) attribute it to the fact that people with strong growth needs may frequently change organisations to find new opportunities for challenge and self-fulfilment. As a result, frequent moves result in relatively lower identification.

Further, the dynamics of identification are different in two types of patterns. It seems reasonable to assume that in the single-organisation career, the person is able to satisfy his or her needs for security and affiliation by remaining in one organisation without necessarily frustrating his or her higher order needs; this person's career and organisational identity may be threatened by a move. For the multiple-organisation career, the person is forced to move to find growth opportunities, which therefore would be a setback for the correlation between tenure and identification.

Although it may not be appropriate to say what kind of career pattern the hospitality industry represents, the high mobility for many fulltime employees is a fact, reflecting the predominantly weak internal labour market. Research has supported the notion that self-fulfilled employees are more committed to the organisation, which thereby creates satisfied customers. Hospitality workers do appreciate the growth opportunities for self-fulfilment (Simons and Enz, 1995; Siu *et al* 1997). Empowered hospitality workers are more satisfied and have greater commitment (Sparrowe, 1994; Corsun and Enz, 1995). Nevertheless, very often those ambitious young employees still choose to leave to find "greater" growth opportunities, exemplifying Baum's conundrum. For example, some hospitality research implies that hospitality work (hotel, catering, etc.) may have fewer opportunities for career development. Ackerman (1981: 448) argues that it is a dead-end job for many employees to work in the hospitality industry – "without any prospect for promotion or a career". Likewise, Faulkner and Patiar (1997: 112) note:

Concern about "under promotion" among front office staff is probably a reflection of both the nature of staff in this area and, perhaps, the trend

towards flatter organisational structures in hotels and the consequent truncation of career paths.

Faulkner and Patiar (1997: 112) further argue that most housekeeping staff “cannot see any chance of future progress in their current employment and, in effect, do not know where they are going” (Faulkner and Patiar, 1997: 112). The unclear promotion prospects become a source of workplace induced stress among housekeepers and front office staff.

Referring to Hackman and Oldham (1980), they regard growth satisfaction as:

- The amount of personal growth and development one gets in doing his or her job.
- The feeling of worthwhile accomplishment one gets from doing his or her job.
- The amount of independent thought and action a person can exercise on the job.
- The amount of challenge in one’s job.

It can be argued that growth satisfaction does not necessarily mean career development, and doing enriched jobs could also fulfill this satisfaction. However, after prolonged work as a waiter, chambermaid, or entry-level front office clerk and without promotion prospects, it might be difficult for high growth-needs-strength people to believe it is a challenging/worthwhile accomplishment or personal growth/development in his or her life.

As for those hospitality workers with less intention to leave (here, it does not mean these workers have less growth needs), tenure could be used as a surrogate measure (Meyer and Allen, 1984). This pragmatic consideration can also increase one’s psychological attachment to the organisation.

In summary, empowering hospitality workers by providing challenging and enriched jobs could contribute to organisational commitment. However, this would become a meaningless principle if no attention were drawn to individual factors, organisational characteristics, and the career pattern in the internal labour market.



#### 4.7 Task interdependence and group cohesiveness

Morris and Steers (1980) suggest that when employees experience high functional interdependence, they become more aware of their own contribution to the organisation and to their immediate work group. This heightened awareness may enhance employees' ego involvement and thereby increase their attitudinal commitment to the organisation. One by-product of supportively interdependent work settings has been group cohesiveness. Stone and Porter (1975) and Welsch and LaVan (1981) report positive correlation between group cohesiveness and organisational commitment.

As it is commonly defined, task interdependence refers to the interconnections between tasks such as the performance of one definite piece of work depending on the completion of other definite piece of work (van der Vegt *et al.*, 1998; Kiggundu, 1981, 1983). Interdependence is the reason that groups are formed; thereby, it is reasonable to assume that the crux of successful team design is in the interdependence of the individual team members. Work teams contain jobs that are interrelated through the processing of input into output. They also contain a social structure linking the individual team members in such a way that successful completion of each member's job is needed to achieve superordinate goals and desired outcomes (Rousseau, 1977). As has been discussed earlier, service workers in a deluxe hotel perform their tasks in a highly interdependent fashion; each individual's feelings of self-determination and task competence will integrate his or her feeling of impact on the overall performance of the work group. Although responsibility for one's own work is highlighted as a dependent variable of autonomy in the JCM, the response of experiencing responsibility for the work of others is equally important. To function effectively as a team, empowered service workers must feel responsible not only for their own work but for the work of their fellow team members as well. Only when team members experience both types of responsibility will a set of jobs supposedly be enacted in a synergistic, co-operative way. If a sense of responsibility for others' work is lacking, individualistic or even competitive behaviour patterns may prevail and team effectiveness may decline (Thomas, 1957).

Interdependence is an important factor in hospitality work teams and may also play a role in other work setting – such as autonomous work teams, project teams, and management teams – in which mutual adjustment between members is a substantial part of the work. In addressing the dimensionality of psychological empowerment, this research has proposed the integration of impact and self-efficacy as well as impact and self-determination. It is to emphasise that hospitality work teams are more than just the sum of their individual members. Members in the work group not only have individual jobs that make them feel responsible for their own work, but members are also interrelated to some extent. Referring to “organic empowerment”, Quinn and Spreitzer (1997) suggest that in addition to redesigning the content of individual team members’ job, reshaping the social interdependence structure may be necessary to develop excellent functioning work teams in which members experience positive personal work outcomes. In a high quality deluxe hotel setting, there is no room for individualism and heroism. A committed workforce with high task interdependence and group coherence could thereby extend the individual’ self-efficacy to collective efficacy.

#### **4.7.1 Collective efficacy**

To give power is to build an individual’s self-efficacy (one of the empowerment dimensions); collective efficacy is another form of self-efficacy. It is a group’s aggregate perception that the group has the competence to perform a particular task (Lindsley, Brass and Thomas, 1995). Collective efficacy differs from self-efficacy in that the reference of the efficacy perceptions is the group and not the individual. Another construct similar to collective efficacy is group potency. Group potency is the collective belief in a group that it can be effective (Guzzo, Yost, Campbell and Shea, 1993). This definition refers to generalised performance beliefs held by a group. Further, group potency and collective efficacy are also task specific (Bandura, 1982; Gist, 1987; Earley, 1993).

Collective efficacy is rooted in self-efficacy (Bandura, 1982). Effective group needs

members with high self-efficacy and group need to develop members' self-efficacy so that group members feel that the group is efficacious. In other words, the antecedents of self-efficacy have identifiable parallels at the group level. Referring to the predictive power of self-efficacy discussed above, if members have built high efficacy, it is analogous that the group level of collective efficacy should facilitate the setting of difficult group goals, commitment to those goals and group performances (Mulvey and Klein, 1998). Collective efficacy accomplishes group goals and group performance at the group level in a manner similar to that demonstrated for self-efficacy at the individual level. Gist (1987) notes that group perceptions of collective efficacy should be related to group performance. Lee (1989) investigated individual self-efficacy, with a subjective measure of team goals, and team performance. She found significant relationships between self-efficacy and team performance and between team goals and team performance at the individual level. Lee (1989) further found that the achievement of team goals partly mediated the effects of self-efficacy on team performance.

Further, collective efficacy implies an on-going and cyclical powering processes. Perceived collective efficacy will influence what people choose to do as a group, how much effort they put into it, and their staying power when group efforts fail to produce results (Bandura, 1982). In other words, collective efficacy could influence group goal setting and group members' commitment to those goals. High efficacy groups are likely to have had higher past performance and more future success in achieving their goals than low efficacy groups. Because of their past performance and goal attainment these groups will likely set goals that are equal to or higher than past performance compared to less efficacious groups (Zander, 1994; Prussia and Kinicki, 1996). Groups with high efficacy have also been found to be more committed to the goals they set for themselves than groups with low efficacy. When faced with the goal obstacles, groups with higher efficacy will be more persistent in trying to solve those problems (Bandura, 1982). Finally, high efficacy has a robust influence on the groups' response to negative feedback concerning goal attainment by putting forth more effort in comparison to low efficacy groups (Mulvey and Klein, 1998).

The recognition of “group synergies” is evident in the positive interactions between self-efficacy and collective efficacy. Different theorists describe “synergies” in different ways. Some point to the ability of organisation members to maximise each other’s potential (Katz, 1984), while other focus on the learning which occurs as part of the empowerment process (Vogt and Murrell, 1990). In addition, several researchers stress that the development of individual new abilities and insights will create boundless resources for the organisation (Florin and Wandersman, 1990; Katz, 1984; Stewart, 1989; Zimmerman, 1990). Therefore, the empowerment processes (for example, Conger and Kanungo’s five-stage empowering process) lead not only to individual development, but also to change in groups or organisations. In other words, empowering processes not only implies individual efficacious outcomes but also lead to new enhanced outcomes for the group as a whole. Given the interactive responses between self-efficacy and collective efficacy, the achievement of empowerment is always a process but not a product (Eylon, 1998). The development of collective efficacy echoes with empowerment theory, which is an ongoing and continual cyclical process (Thomas and Velthouse, 1990; Spreitzer, 1992; Eylon, 1998).

#### **4.8 Conclusion**

This chapter has discussed the interactions among job characteristics, empowerment, and commitment in the hospitality industry. It is interesting to borrow the concept of work values to link these three sets of variables. Of course, the set of demographic factors is always an important moderator in the existing commitment and motivation literature. In this case, this thesis adopts the idea of personal grow needs strength to clarify some theoretical gaps between empowerment, enrichment, and commitment. Besides, it is also worth noting that the empirical causal relationships between organisational commitment and other variables are subject to the differences in occupational attributes; thus, two types of career patterns are discussed to shed light on Baum’s consideration. Although this research does not suggest which type of pattern the hospitality industry workers belong to, partly due to the complexity of the

organisational structure in a deluxe hotel and varied task requirements in different departments, addressing this consideration provides us with a better understanding of why in some case empowerment could lead to commitment, and in other cases it may mitigate against the intended purpose.

Hotel work groups could yield high collective efficacy through interdependent task design and shared vision (one dimension of commitment). Although alluding to collective efficacy in the last section brings us slightly out of the scope of this research, it is nevertheless useful in shedding light on the idea in the current context. It is evident that hospitality employees work in teams. As discussed in the previous chapter the first component of Lawler's (1982) collective motivation model – Probability ( $P_i \rightarrow P_o$ ) – emphasises that the employee tends to estimate the degree to which he or she will have an impact on the work group. If all this employee's effort is in vain in terms of the group overall performance, it would be unlikely to expect this employee's devotion to the organisation. Hotel workers' task assessments must be influenced by their perception of how well the work is executed by others. For example, when asking a station waiter how work motivates him, or how much competence and impact he has, the answer will indicate his or her personal experience and simultaneously reflect the perception of his work team. When serving meals, headwaiters, station waiters, waiters, and commis have to be perfectly co-ordinated in terms of taking orders, delivering food, and any following service delivery. When preparing food, chefs and apprentices work closely together. While holding a banquet, chefs in pastry and hot and cold stations work under the head chefs' control. In rooms division, reservation staff pass guest's records to their colleagues who follow each case from uniform service, check-in, rooms, meals, amenities, guests' check out, to after-sales service. However, what is the ingredient of a cohesive work group leading to collective efficacy? The answer might be as varied as the definition of the term - "empowerment". Perhaps value congruence, or so-called shared vision, could be one of the best answers (King and Ehrhard, 1996, 1997).

## CHAPTER 5

### CONSTRUCTIVE WORK ENVIRONMENT – SUPERVISION AND CO-WORKERS – AND EMPOWERMENT

#### 5.1 Introduction

In their Job Characteristics Model (JCM), Hackman and Oldham (1975, 1980) propose that individuals who are satisfied with co-workers and supervisors will respond more positively to enriched and challenging jobs, and higher levels of internal work motivation would thereafter be expected. These two moderating considerations in JCM are focused on the quality of supervisors' support, guidance, and fairness and the features of co-workers' affiliation and help on the jobs. Cognitive empowerment research also proposes that in addition to individuals' direct experiences of job content, a variety of other external events provides data on which the employee's task assessments are based. These events include inputs from superiors, staff, peers, and subordinates; for example, mentoring advice, performance feedback, charismatic appeals, training sessions, and general discussions of ongoing projects (Conger and Kanungo, 1988; Spreitzer, 1966). Thomas and Velthouse (1990) argue that such inputs would be interpreted and reconciled with individuals' more direct experiences. Hence, taking the classical JCM as a starting point and building on a course of research set out by psychological empowerment, this chapter extends Hackman and Oldham's work by specifying and scrutinising this constructive work environment into work empowerment and commitment research in the highly task-interdependent hospitality setting.

The first section of this chapter addresses the fundamental concepts of work climate and culture. What exactly do we mean by the nature of climate and culture and what does this imply? It then turns to some constructive work environmental issues that culture for service excellence and citizenship behaviour relies on. The last section deals with the most recent approaches to explore how support-based relationships, fostered in the culture of service excellence and citizenship behaviour, interact with the empowerment practices.

## 5.2 The conceptualisation of climate and culture

In addressing how the support-based work climate / culture is developed and why the combination of this constructive climate / culture and enriched jobs has a synergistic effect on the employee's feelings of being empowered, the terms – organisational “culture” and “climate” – must first be clarified. Schneider, Gunnarson, and Niles-Jolly (1994) define climate as the “feeling in the air” one experiences from an organisation; in other words, climate is the atmosphere that employees perceive. It is created in their organisations by managerial practices, work procedure, and rewards. These perceptions are formed on a day-to-day basis. “They are not based on what management, the company newsletter, or the annual report proclaim – rather, the perceptions initially derive from the senior managers’ behaviour and the actions they reward” (Schneider *et al*, 1994: 18).

Having observed what happens to them and their co-workers, employees then draw conclusions about the organisation's priorities, and set their own priorities accordingly. These perceptions could thus provide employees with direction and orientation about where they should focus their energies and exert their efforts. This, in turn, becomes a major determinant in creating a climate. The management in many organisations, from Ritz-Carlton to Marriott, from 3M to Xerox, share the belief that organisations must create and maintain a climate that fosters customer service, innovation, and organisational citizenship behaviour (or prosocial behaviour, such as helping behaviour, co-operative acts that are not directly required of employees).

Culture, on the other hand, refers to normative beliefs and shared behavioural expectations (Cooke and Rousseau, 1988; Cooke and Szumal, 1993). It is the prevailing pattern of an organisation's mores, values, and beliefs. Like climate, the actions of senior managers could strongly influence culture. By observing and interpreting these actions, employees are able to explain why things are the way they are, and why the organisation focuses on certain priorities. Culture, then stems from employees' interpretations of the values, assumptions, and philosophies that produce the climates they experience.

Because employees would automatically make these attributions about their organisational values, the challenge for management is to act in ways that will lead employees to the kind of attributions that result in commitment to management's most important values. To understand how senior managers initiate the priorities that make the organisation successful, Schneider and his associates discuss this two-way interaction (Schneider *et al*, 1994: 19):

The employees' culture interpretation might be the following:

- Senior managers create a climate for innovation because they give high priority to competitiveness. They also value change, and they recognise the danger of complacency.
- Senior managers create a climate for service excellence because they value customer and employee satisfaction.
- Senior managers create a climate for citizenship behaviour because they want employees to do more than just come to work. They value the extra effort it takes to support and help fellow members, and to preserve and promote organisational success.

In this respect, culture may be thought of as a potential social control system initiated by senior managers. Unlike formal control systems, social control systems can be much more finely tuned. When an individual cares about those with whom he or she works and has a common set of expectations, this individual is "under control" whenever this person is in the environment (O'Reilly, 1989). Thus, from a management perspective, culture in the form of shared expectations may be thought of as a social control system. Cooke and Szumal (1993) offer a practical definition of culture as a pattern of beliefs and expectations shared by the organisation's members. These beliefs and expectations produce norms that powerfully shape the behaviour of individuals and groups.

To sum up, culture is created and transmitted mainly through employees sharing their interpretations of events, or through story telling. Culture characteristics, attributed to the organisation, actually become the organisation's characteristics when employees



share their beliefs about management (Schneider *et al*, 1994). The interaction between the normative beliefs, organisational interventions (various management practices or instrumental process), and personal values forms the employee feelings of meaningfulness, control and efficacy; these generalised critical psychological states in turn serve as the framework within which commitment is conceptualised.

### **5.3 The climate and culture for service excellence in service sector**

“Goods yield things while services yield experiences” (Schneider *et al*, 1994: 22). Service is more intangible than goods. As a result, relationships between the consumer and the service deliverer are more significant in the evaluation of a service. Because service quality is in the delivery, it is the interaction between the service deliverer and the consumer at the time of delivery that determines service quality for the consumer. Organisations can only indirectly control what has been called the service encounter. Because of the simultaneous nature of production and consumption, “dealing with others”, proposed in JCM’s Core Job Dimensions, becomes an especially important characteristic in the hospitality industry.

The service worker’s relationship with the customer is critical in determining the degree to which empowerment is psychologically experienced. Research on job characteristics (Hackman and Lawler, 1971; Hackman Oldham, 1975, 1980) looks at “dealing with others” by operationalising it as one’s opportunity for contact with both customers and company employees. It is generally supported that this job characteristic would enhance the likelihood of the individual’s positive psychological state. Even more importantly, when customers sincerely dignify service workers and appreciate their service, by minimising the social status gap between the workers and themselves, the likelihood of that individual experiencing empowerment is enhanced. The reciprocal nature of this relationship suggests that workers treated with respect and appreciation are more likely to provide caring and meaningful service to the customer. A recent quantitative study proposed and found that customer displays of support and respect for the service worker enhance the service workers’ perceived control of the situation, and thereby, his or her experienced empowerment (Corsun

and Enz, 1999).

In addition to the intangibility and the need for consumer encounters, services are usually produced and consumed simultaneously in the presence of both an employee and a consumer. These three professional attributes coupled with the management's practices and procedures characterise a climate for a service organisation. The strategy for service excellence is based on the fundamental notion that service is an experience. Research has reported that human resource management is crucial for the service organisation (Schneider and Bowen, 1993). The organisation must manage human resources in ways that promotes a passion for service, and the keys for service excellence could be (Schneider *et al*, 1994):

- **Human resources practices that promote employee well-being and a sense of community.** When employees view their organisation's practices and procedures as "treating them well" and providing a sense of community at work, customers report they receive high-quality service (Schneider and Bowen, 1993; Bowen and Lawler, 1995; Bagshaw, 1997). Although no service managers would dispute the need for satisfied customers to gain commercial success, it is less well recognised that satisfied employees are also an essential ingredient. Up to a point, disgruntled employees will continue to give good service, but morale will go down, and with it the quality of work (Bagshaw, 1997). Empirical research in the service sector has supported the positive correlation between employee satisfaction and customer satisfaction; in short, when employees felt that management was looking after their needs, they took better care of the customer (Schneider and Bowen, 1985). When employee attitudes are a key part of the service package, the courtesy, empathy, and responsiveness of service employees shape customers' perceptions of service quality (Schneider and Bowen, 1985; Zeithaml, Parasuraman, and Berry, 1990). Hence, how employees feel about their work will spill over to affect how customers feel about the service they get. (Schneider and Bowen, 1993; Schneider and Bowen, 1995).
  
- **Attention to detail regarding the quality of service workers.** In a hospitality

organisation, when customers rate service delivery as superior, employees must be well trained. Training gives them the skills that permit the sense of self-efficacy (competence). As discussed earlier, knowledge enlargement, which includes more than one service / production line, might be more motivating. In the highly task-interdependent setting, training is not only focused on job-specific skills, but also for the whole picture of the organisation's priorities that give the hospitality workers a broader and more integrated knowledge about the organisation. The efficacious employee is a critical ingredient to service excellence.

- **Availability of necessary resources.** Examples of resources include funds, material, space, and time. A lack of access to critical organisational resources contributes to powerlessness and dependency (Homans, 1958). Access to resources enhances the employee's sense of self-efficacy and control over the environment (Bowen and Lawler, 1992; Gist and Mitchell, 1992). The outcomes of the perceived control over necessary resources energise individuals who assume responsibility for and ownership of their roles (Conger and Kanungo, 1988).
  
- **Emphasis on innovation by adopting employees' suggestions.** To increase employees' control, the managerial processes could be empowerment through participation, or "suggestion involvement" (Bowen and Lawler, 1992:36). Suggestion involvement represents a shift away from senior managers, which would be the domain of the traditional control model. Employees are encouraged to contribute ideas through formal or informal suggestion programs or quality circles. As in the case of Marriott hotels (Hubrecht and Teare, 1993), front-line employees participate in identifying and satisfying customer needs. Harvester Restaurants implement weekly meeting to which all team members are invited. The meetings act as a medium for both sharing information about operational performance and identifying goals or problems (Ashness and Lashley, 1995). McDonald's, for example, listens closely to the front line. The Big Mac, Egg

McMuffin, and McDLT all were invented by employees (Bowen and Lawler, 1992).

Empowerment is the best approach to establish relationships with customers to build loyalty or to get ideas for improving the service delivery system or offering new services. A flexible, customised approach can help establish the relationship and get the ideas flowing, and empowerment allows the employee to customise the service to fit the customers' needs. When the managerial concern is to gain from employees' experience, ideas and suggestions, the intention may be to empower employees through their involvement in providing feedback, sharing information and making suggestions. Lockwood (1994) proposes the idea of "service incidents" to identify service improvement in the hospitality industry:

- Collecting the incidents
- Analysing the incidents
- Prioritising the incidents
- Taking action for the improvements

Once one round of the improvement circle has been implemented, a new feedback loop begins again. Using the quality-improving circle of service incidents, front-line service employees are in a unique position to contribute to problem resolution, and to communicate trends in customer service needs and the impact of company policies on service delivery. Other examples of this approach, such as quality circles in the Accor Group (Barbee and Bott, 1991) and team briefings in Hilton Hotels (Hirst, 1992) are attempts to include the ideas and experiences of employees in managerial decision-making processes. Suggestions making for service excellence ranges from the immediate task, which involves both tangibles and intangibles (Lashley, 1995a, 1996), through to business strategy and employment policy issues.

To sum up, as service quality lies in the "experience", it is the interaction between the service deliverer and the consumer at the time of delivery that determines service

quality for the consumer. Organisations can only indirectly control what has been called the “service encounter” because of the simultaneous nature of production and consumption. This section is focussed on how management communicates that service quality is a priority. Management must send this message through various facets of “how things are done” within the organisation. The employee must feel good about how they are treated, supervised, trained, and rewarded. When they feel they are personally treated well, and when the organisation emphasises excellence in the treatment of current customers, then employees experience a climate of service excellence. This climate also develops the employee’s perception of control, which in turn encourages suggestion participation for service innovation.

The key concepts of service excellence also apply to internal service, the relationships between the employee and his or her work group within an organisation (i.e. the service worker is the client of other workers of the up-stream service delivery line). Employees have a tendency to treat others as they have been treated. When the management actions treat each other as valued “customers,” people working in the functions feel better about themselves and the end-user consumers report they receive superior service (Schneider *et al*, 1994).

#### **5.4 The climate and culture for citizenship behaviour**

What is organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB)? Simply speaking, it is synonymous with prosocial behaviour (Corsun and Enz, 1999) or similar to the behaviour of collective motivation (Staw, 1984). Organisational citizenship behaviour consists of helpful, co-operative acts that are not directly required of employees. Examples include voluntarily orienting new employees, and helping a fellow member with a task without being asked. Schneider *et al* (1994) propose that there are three key issues related to a climate / culture for organisational citizenship behaviour:

- **Perceptions of fairness and trust.** Notions of fairness or justice are introduced in Homans’ (1974) theory of social exchange. An individual in an exchange

relationship with another has two expectations of the fundamental rule of distributive justice. First, the rewards of each will be proportional to the costs of each. Second, the net rewards of each will be proportional to the investment (Keller and Dansereau, 1995). In this direct exchange relationship, the relevant question for each individual is whether the reward received from the other was as much as expected and therefore as much as the individual deserved. Hence, in exchange relationships each individual provides a standard for the other (Cohen and Greenberg, 1982). When employees perceive that a “just world” exists in their organisation, employees display more organisational citizenship behaviour (Schneider *et al*, 1994). Fairness generates a sense of trust, and the trust yields employee behaviours supportive of organisational effectiveness. A just world is based on the employee’s perceptions of fairness and equity, not only with regard to pay but also with regard to all forms of empowerment practices including intrinsic and extrinsic rewards – benefits, sense of control, recognition, respect, negotiating latitude and support for self-worth (Keller and Dansereau, 1995).

In addressing social exchange theory, Keller and Dansereau’s (1995) empirical study – *Leadership and Empowerment: A Social Exchange Perspective* – found that the subordinate’s perceptions of fairness and trust could eventually benefit his or her superiors and the organisation. Empowered subordinates who receive supervisory benefits reciprocate by performing in accordance with supervisors’ preferences (Dansereau *et al*, 1984). While satisfied with their subordinates’ performance, superiors in turn reciprocate by providing additional negotiating latitude and support for self-worth thus continuing the cycle of exchange. In this sense, the trust between superiors and subordinates is interdependent. Further, the perception of fairness is negatively related to dyadic problems. Dyadic problems include strains in the working relationship, lack of evaluation of job performance, uncertainty of duties, and back biting within the unit (Dansereau *et al*, 1975). If subordinates consider their superiors fair, it is plausible that they are also satisfied with the quality of their supervision, and this is, therefore, a less dyadic problem. Finally, this social exchange perspective is also true when organisational commitment is enhanced; earning employees’ trust is essential to

employee commitment. Workers who see themselves as exploited have little or no commitment. The employer-employee relationship is a reciprocal, two-way relationship. Leaders must set trends for performance by doing the same kinds of things they expect from subordinates.

- **Norms of support, helpfulness and co-operation.** Management must display co-operation and helpfulness if they expect employees to be co-operative and helpful (Schneider *et al*, 1994). When employees see others (including senior managers and co-workers) “going beyond the call of duty” to benefit the organisation as a whole and help members in the work group, they tend to do the same. When a new employee observes these behaviours early in his or her tenure, that employee is more likely to see such action as the norm. An atmosphere of reciprocating and co-operation establishes a culture in which employees willingly go beyond their job descriptions.

In summary, research shows that a climate for these co-operative and organisationally helpful behaviours is likely to exist when management is perceived to be fair and just, when newcomers see co-operative behaviour on the part of co-workers and supervisors, and when reward systems are fair and tied to group effectiveness (Schneider *et al*, 1994; Sparrowe, 1994; Parker and Price, 1994; Corsun and Enz, 1995; Keller and Dansereau, 1995). When employees attribute these assumptions to management, they create a culture for OCBs.

As has been discussed in the conceptual analysis of empowerment, empowerment should be viewed as a procedure (Conger and Kanungo, 1988). The aggregation of each employee’s task / global assessment then yields the global work climate perceptions. These perceptions, in turn, yield the attributions about management’s assumptions, beliefs, and values.

### **5.5 Constructive work environment lies in the culture for service excellence and citizenship behaviour**

In a study of constructive culture that fosters empowerment through self-perception and employees' interaction, Sparrowe (1994) found that work norms for achievement, self-actualisation, affiliation, and encouragement of employees engender constructive interaction. When organisational members interact with one another in these constructive ways, they develop a sense of meaningfulness, impact, and choice. As members encourage and appreciate one another's efforts, members' belief in self-efficacy rises. Recent evidence also supports the view that workers whose managers are perceived as supportive are more likely to see themselves as influential (Parker and Price, 1994). A partnership between management and employees based on honesty, trust, caring, support, dignity, and mutual respect is at the heart of employee experienced empowerment (Melohn, 1994).

Therefore, in order to feel that the system really wants empowered employees, individuals need a sense of social support from their supervisors, peers and subordinates. Employee efforts to take initiative and risk must be reinforced rather than punished. If this support for service excellence and organisational citizenship behaviour is missing or weak, employees will worry about seeking permission before acting rather than asking for forgiveness in case they make mistakes. Hence, in a supportive environment, employees must believe that the company will support them as they learn and grow (Quinn and Spreitzer, 1997).

As opposed to the supportive environment, a bureaucratic culture encompasses multiple layers of hierarchy that impede creating shared visions and the empowered perception. It emphasises the maintenance of the status quo through a strong tradition of top-down directives, the lack of credible vision for the future, short-term managerial thinking, and a lack of management support for real change. Even worse, the bureaucratic culture is often reinforced by a reward system that emphasises the status quo (Bowen and Lawler, 1992, 1995). Under the circumstances, many service workers are "treated as a cost to be minimised or avoided, the employment relationship may be stuck in what Block (1987) calls the bureaucratic cycle" (Corsun



and Enz, 1999: 206). The outcomes for the workers' perceptions of this cycle are feelings of powerlessness and dependence that make it difficult for the employee to provide an extraordinary response to customer needs. Employees are denied the opportunity for self-expression and will submit to authority.

When the criteria of the supportive environment are lacking, many undesirable conflicts occur. Conflicts between functions create strong divisions between and within work groups and position levels. Conflicts between peers result partly from performance management systems that pit people against each other for raises and promotions. Conflict between managers and their employees over the means to achieve goals creates a hostile working environment in which people worry about protecting themselves rather than doing what is right for the organisation (Quinn and Spreitzer, 1997). Studies on intra-organisational competition and in-group favouritism have supported the view that competition among work group is negatively related to organisational commitment (March and Simon, 1958; Brown, 1969; Mael and Ashforth; 1992). Such competition tends to reduce cohesion (Blau, 1954) and could trigger a refocusing on the competing individuals or subunits rather than on the organisation's benefits as a whole.

### **5.6 The interactions between power and managerial support**

According to Parker and Price (1994), in a constructive climate a high level of power for one group might result in a high level of power for another. In other words, the distribution of power is not a "zero-sum" game, and the actual "influence pie" is expandable (Tannenbaum, 1986). Such expansion could be accomplished in the following cyclical manner. If a manager assumes that the amount of control is expandable, they are likely to encourage subordinates to participate. Accordingly, workers' control is increased. Workers who are encouraged to participate in decision making are more likely to co-operate with management's policies. This becomes a mutually empowering cycle, managerial control will also eventually be increased (Keller and Dansereau, 1995).

Parker and Price (1994) found that the employee' feelings of empowerment correlated positively with their perceptions of their managers as being empowered and in control as well as with managerial support. The relationship between workers' perception of their own level of control over decision making and of their managers' level of control is moderated by workers' perceptions of managerial support. In a constructive climate and culture, the amount of control that managers believe they possess will influence how supportive they are able to be. This is because when managers believe they have a great deal of control over the resources of power, they are likely to also believe they are in a good position to share those resources with their subordinates. On the other hand, if they believe they have little control, they will be less likely to share their limited resources and control. Simply speaking, it is difficult to share what you do not believe you possess.

However, this merely implies that powerful leaders are in a better position to share power than those who are not powerful; this does not mean that all privileged individuals will call for a redistribution of the privilege (Parker, 1993). When managerial control is rated high in the absence of managerial support, workers are less likely to perceive that they have much control. While managers exercise power in a supportive manner, it will be an empowering force to their workers. The critical determinant is the supporting behaviour.

Workers' perceived control is highest when workers believed that their managers are both supportive and empowered. To say that an individual has a high level of control over decision making within an organisation might mean that the individual has a high level of control over others working within the organisation. Such an individual has high control precisely because he or she makes decisions without consulting others. On the contrary, in a constructive work climate, a person can have a high level of control over decisions (power to) without having a high level of control over other individuals (power over). Rather, the control could be structured so that many organisational members exert influence over the decision making process (Israel *et al.*, 1989), or in other words, share power. Managerial support reflects the level of shared influence within an organisation. Managers who are viewed as supportive are

likely to be those who listen to their workers and hence are perceived as sharing control. Workers feel most empowered when they perceive that their managers are both empowered and supportive (Parker and Price, 1994).

In a study of the management practices of senior executives who were deemed by Harvard Business School professors and management consultants to be highly effective and empowering leaders, Conger (1989) found that these managers' actions were perceived as building confidence and restoring a sense of personal power and efficacy in others. Among other things, these leaders shared a strong underlying belief in their subordinates' abilities, provided a positive emotional atmosphere, rewarded and encouraged subordinates in visible and personal ways, expressed confidence in subordinates, and fostered initiative and responsibility and built on success (Conger, 1989). As discussed in Spreitzer's (1996) work, working for a boss who has a wide span of control was found to be positively related to employees feeling empowered, but the relationships between these two variables is moderated by supporting behaviour.

### **5.7 Helping behaviour among peers**

In addition to management support, one important theme in organisational citizenship behaviour is helping each other. Co-workers' helping behaviours are those actions that employees are willing to benefit both the peers' targets and organisational goals (Brief and Motowidlo, 1986). Peers with shared values are committed to the welfare of one another and provide opportunities to reciprocate (Van Dyne, Graham, and Dienesch, 1994). This helping behaviour from peers helps humanise the work environment and has been proved as an important ingredient in the prediction of the employee's perceptions of empowerment (Corsun and Enz, 1999).

Further, organisational culture research and motivational job design (Hackman and Oldham, 1980, Schneider *et al*, 1994) also stress the opportunities for peers to know and talk to one another. The new culture and job redesign will emerge and be

effective, as employees have opportunities to talk to each other about what is going on, what are the management priorities, and why it is happening. They will begin to share their beliefs about change and management's goals and priorities, and make attributions about management's values based on their experiences. At the same time, work group is an even stronger source of job satisfaction when members have similar attitudes and values. Having people around with similar attitudes causes less friction on a day-to-day basis. Co-workers with similar attitudes and values could provide some confirmation of a person's self-concept – there are a lot of other people who feel the way you do (Feldman and Arnold, 1983). Along these lines, the employee can also become empowered, not because of “the beliefs and actions of those higher in an organisation's hierarchies but from the camaraderie, support, and collective strength of their peers” (Parker and Price, 1994: 925).

#### **5.8 Support for the employee's perception of empowerment must be accompanied by management guidance of the actual work activities**

Terms like “to delight customers by exceeding their expectations”, “what ever it takes”, “autonomous group”, “quality cycles” have appeared widely in empowerment studies. During the past decade, a large amount of anecdotal and research evidence has accumulated to show that the employee's perception of control does produce more satisfied customers and employees. Stories of employees taking initiatives and doing exceptional things to satisfy a customer have also become an important tradition in many hotels. For example, the study of Ritz Carlton describes (Bowen and Lawler, 1995: 74):

A Ritz Carlton guest tried to find a speciality grocery store while staying at the hotel in Atlanta. The empowered concierge not only located the store but arranged for the doorman to drive the guest when he couldn't get a taxi.

However, critics argue that this does not mean that anything should go with respect to this celebrated story, and there is always a contradiction between empowerment

and cost as well as the disturbance caused in organisations (Bowen and Lawler, 1995; Thompson, 1998). At this point, leadership practices that foster subordinate perceptions of control may result in negative outcomes, if subordinates overestimate their control and authority by initiating actions at the cost of management effectiveness. The challenge on managing empowered individuals or groups is to provide guidance; for example, setting reasonable boundaries for the cost control or providing a whole picture for overall service delivery (Shostack, 1984; Kingman-Brundage, 1991; Bowen and Lawler, 1992; Quinn and Spreitzer, 1997).

Hotels with different competitive considerations have different strategies for supporting employee's perception of control. Hampton Inn applies a "what ever it takes" policy to provide a 100 percent satisfaction guarantee. If guests are not completely satisfied with their stay, they are not expected to pay (Bowen and Lawler, 1995). Hampton employees at any level are entitled to use the guarantee without asking the general manager for permission. Ritz Carlton set limits on the amounts (e.g., \$2,500 in Bowen and Lawler, 1995) that employees can spend to please a disgruntled guest. Marriott has developed "safe zone" so that employees understand which situations allow for discretionary decision making and which do not (Quinn and Sprizer, 1997). Although these three companies set different latitudes for autonomy, they all provide clear goals, clear lines of authority, and clear task responsibilities. All employees in Hampton Inn receive extensive training about the concept behind the satisfaction guarantee and how to implement it in terms of before and after the guest complains. "Marriott employees spend a day learning about empowered employees and discussing the merits (or demerits) of the employees' actions" (Bowen and Lawler, 1995: 80). Ritz Carlton limits the employee's expenditure by a certain amount. Though the three practices for empowerment may differ, there is one thing in common. The employee's control does not exist alone; it is based on management guidance.

Owing to the effect of high labour mobility, one caveat should also be added that inexperienced employees sometimes might not realise the impact of their autonomous acts on upstream or downstream activities. The helpful hotel desk clerk

that allows a disgruntled guest to check in early may not think of the implications for the day's housekeeping plan in a rushed business day (Bowen and Lawler, 1995). One example for dealing with this controversy may be guiding empowered employees with "blueprinting" or "mapping" to help employees familiarise their role in the overall service delivery system. "Blueprints" or "maps" can acquaint employees with how their jobs fit into upstream and down stream activities (Kingman-Brundage, 1991).

In summary, management guidance has been the subject of numerous studies. In addition to setting boundaries and operation mapping, research of it has been focused on a variety of areas and reported increased feeling of empowerment, commitment, and motivation. Spritzer (1996) found that providing information and reducing role ambiguity are significant antecedents of empowerment. Early *et al* (1990) and McAfee *et al* (1995) look at feedback techniques; they argue that when feedback includes both outcome feedback (information regarding whether a standard was met) and process feedback (information concerning the effectiveness of the work method used), the autonomous employees experience better job satisfaction. Roehl and Swerdlow (1999) assess the effects of training, awareness of job-related rules, and supervisor quality; they prove that these three variables are positively associated with morale and commitment. Although primarily focussed on specific fields, these studies have made significant contributions to our understanding that management guidance is essential to improve / fine-tune the process of empowerment.

## **5.9 Conclusion**

In this chapter and the preceding ones, this secondary research has reviewed and discussed a wide variety of approaches and theories regarding empowerment at work. All the discussion aims to make it clear that empowerment research can not be separated from how the job is designed and how the work environment is characterised. This chapter applies the theory developed from social exchange research to permit us a different look at how support for empowerment could eventually benefit managers and subordinates. Several considerations, constituting the support-based environment, are focused on management support, guidance, and

fairness, and peer's helping behaviour. With respect to the issue of research design, these variables can be treated as moderators or predictors of empowerment; however, the most important point is that they are all significant in our understanding of what the "empowerment procedure" really is, and what the "synergy" means in the empowerment studies.

## CHAPTER 6

### METHODOLOGY

#### **6.1 Introduction**

This chapter is divided into three main parts. The first part is the conceptual framework, and outlines a series of research hypotheses related to the research design. The second part examines the research design. Specifically, the types of research designs used in this research are discussed, followed by description on how the questionnaire was developed and how the data collection was administered.

The third part describes the measuring instruments for each construct studied. Porter's attitudinal commitment scale and Spreitzer's empowerment scale are factor analysed in this chapter so that the resultant dimensionality and factor scores can be used in the following data analytical chapters. Seven job characteristics and affective outcomes are adopted from Hackman and Oldham's (1980) Job Diagnosis Survey (JDS). The scales of four aspects of constructive contextual conditions are also adopted from items in JDS's four types of contextual satisfaction scales because, in many ways, the items in the four scales are consistent with: (1) notions discussed in Schneider's (1994) ingredients of creating the climate and culture of success in service organisations; (2) ingredients of Corsun and Enz's (1999) support-based environment; and (3) Steers' (1977) antecedents of attitudinal organisational commitment (e.g., fairness of supervision/pay; guidance, support and quality from superiors; helping behaviour; organisational dependability). This chapter creates a foundation for the data analyses and the discussion of the findings.

#### **6.2 Conceptual framework and hypotheses**

Following the line of the reasoning discussed in the preceding chapters, eight hypotheses (from h1 to h8) pivoting on perceived empowerment and additional five hypotheses (from h9 to h13) focused on the antecedents of organisational commitment were proposed:



Motivating job characteristics have to do with a set of independent variables that predict and explain the direction, magnitude, and persistence of an individual's behaviour. When motivation theorists discuss the phenomenon of motivation, they are primarily concerned with three common themes: (1) what energises the employee's behaviour, (2) what directs or channels such behaviour and (3) how this behaviour is maintained or sustained (Jones, 1955; Atkinson, 1964; Steers *et al*, 1996). Each of these three components represents an important factor in our understanding of human behaviour at work. As such, Hackman and his associates (Hackman and Lawler, 1971; Hackman and Oldham, 1980) look at the effects of the job content, employee's aptitude, skill, understanding of the task, and the constraints operating in the environment. They propose a set of motivating core job characteristics (CJCs) which points to the energetic forces within individuals that drive them to behave in certain ways, and lead to a higher level of internal work motivation. Lee-Ross (1998) upholds this notion, and found that the set of CJCs can trigger these drives and is a significant determiner of job incumbent's critical psychological states (meaningfulness, knowledge, and responsibility) which then enhance internal work motivation in the hotel setting.

According to the psychological empowerment literature (Thomas and Velthouse, 1990; Spreitzer, 1995), empowerment is a process of task assessments, which in turn energise and sustain the individual's behaviour. If job characteristics really energise and trigger the psychological drives, it is plausible that when hotel workers assess their task characteristics, the seven components of job characteristics could improve their perceived empowerment in that these two sets of variables can be seen as "the process to energise". In this case, job characteristics could be the antecedents of the feelings of empowerment. A recent attempt to explore the relationships of the job characteristics to the feelings of empowerment was conducted by Gagné, Senécal and Koestner (1997) based on research in a telephone company. Thus, the first proposition of the present study is to justify the causal relationships between multidimensional empowerment and the proximal job characteristics.

**Hypothesis 1:** In a deluxe hotel, the motivating job characteristics (variety, identity, significance, autonomy, feedback from the jobs and agents, and dealing with others) could differently predict the employee's feelings of empowerment.

Based on the literature reviewed earlier (Conger and Kanungo, 1988; Ashforth, 1989; Sparrow, 1994; Fulford and Enz, 1995; Gagné, Senécal and Koestner, 1997), it is proposed that the perception of empowerment will have significant positive effects on critical employee work attitudes, internal work motivation and general job satisfaction. The second hypothesis below summarises this proposed linkage.

**Hypothesis 2:** Hotel employees' perceptions of empowerment will account for a significant proportion of the variance in their reported levels of perceived internal work motivation, general job satisfaction, and growth needs satisfaction.

It is believed that the motivational job characteristics can represent the job enrichment paradigm that energises employees (Hackman and Oldham, 1975, 1976, 1980, Campion and McClelland, 1991). However, critics argue that the set of characteristics tends to become a manipulating function from top management (Quinn and Spreitzer, 1997; Corsun and Enz, 1999), or be used as an alternative to further exploit labour by imposing more burden on employees (Feldman and Arnold, 1983). Given that the work empowerment is the process to enhance employee's four types (or three types in private club setting) of feelings, hotel practitioners might fall for the fallacy that this set of job characteristics should be motivating enough to empower service workers. Nevertheless, in the literature section, there are at least two hospitality studies that show that increasing skill variety and knowledge enlargement, eventually result in negative behavioural outcomes (Faulker and Patiar, 1997; Bowen and Youngdahl, 1998). In Hales and Klidas's (1998) quantitative research in Holland's five-star hotels, they argue that hotel empowerment practices might be regarded as rhetorical rather than having a real impact on personal choice and voice. Therefore, it is plausible that the discrepancy between a hotel's top

management empowerment intentions and front-line service workers' perceptions might create the source of distrust. When the supportive (constructive) work climate is lacking, the mechanical interventions (core job characteristics) may not only baffle the empowerment philosophy but also be detrimental to the process of self-development and the establishment of mutual trust. Because having variety and autonomy includes risk taking, it opens the possibility of making mistakes (Quinn, and Spreitzer, 1997). If those mistakes are punished in different ways by supervisors or work group fellows, then individuals become disenchanted with their initiatives. If they receive no guidance or reinforcement, the process of empowerment is halted and individuals actually perceive more role ambiguity than before.

One indicator of organisational citizenship behaviours is the willingness to help each other. Peers who help and know others empower through their support and by providing others with the opportunity to reciprocate, thus humanising the work environment. Therefore, in the deluxe hotel setting it can be reasonably be argued that constructive behaviour among peers is an important ingredient in an empowering procedure. Thus, it is proposed that the interdependence and collaboration among peers facilitate the intended effect of job enriching practices upon the hotel employee's cognition of empowerment.

Following the literature review, a constructive work climate promote employee well-being and a sense of community, in which superiors actively provide service workers with guidance, respect, and fair treatment (Schneider and Bowen, 1993; Schneider *et al.*, 1994; Bowen and Lawler, 1995; Spreitzer, 1996). While managers exercise power in a supportive manner, it is likely to be described as empowering (Parker and Price, 1994). Managers who attempt to engender supportive environments are typically characterised as humanistic (Organ and Bateman, 1991). They believe that an appropriate work context allows workers to reach their full potential. As such, humanistic managers endeavour to empower their subordinates, and diminish the sense of powerlessness. Previous work in hospitality settings has found that the relationship between the organisational culture and empowerment to be positive (Sparrowe, 1994, 1995). When a work environment is viewed as supportive,

employees experience empowerment. Schneider *et al* (1994) argue that the actions of superiors in the upper hierarchy have a stronger influence on the creation of organisational culture. In other words, the employee would be more likely to see job enlargement and enrichment practices as empowering when working under helpful supervision. Additionally, there has been abundant support for the relationship between access to information and empowerment in both academic and practitioner literatures (Kanter, 1986; Lawler, 1992; Bowen and Lawler, 1992; Gist and Mitchell, 1992). Access to organisational information by providing guidance and support allows individuals to see the big picture of the organisation and to develop the reference for understanding their roles in the organisation's operations (Bowen and Lawler, 1992). Superiors' guidance and the opportunity to know others in the work group could help disseminate organisational information (Schneider *et al*, 1994) and reduce role ambiguity (Spreitzer, 1996). Thus, it would be necessary to clarify whether the quality of supervision would moderate the links between job enriching practices and the hotel employee's cognition of empowerment.

As far as the extrinsic work value is concerned, fair and satisfying pay could also encourage employees to take initiative, and feel meaningful about the job activities (Coleman, 1996; Quinn and Spreitzer, 1997; Rafiq and Ahmed, 1998). Besides, research also stresses that the sense of security is empowering (Bagshaw, 1997). Studies, concerning the hotel employee's motivation factors, have identified the value of job security (Simon and Enz, 1995; Siu *et al*, 1997). Only if the employees feel secure, do they have the willingness to take the initiative. At the same time, it shows the employer's loyalty to their subordinates, and diminishes the perception that workers are dispensable in the hospitality industry.

Hence, the present research argues that hotel employees do not just feel empowered because the hotel implements job enriching interventions or issues statements saying autonomy, variety, and feedback are part of their culture. In conjunction with the four favourably contextual factors, enriching the jobs in the constructive environment will create organic synergy that generates a stronger effect on hotel workers' feeling of empowerment. Motivating job characteristics would be more empowering in the

presence of hotel employee's satisfaction with the quality of supervision, peers relationships, and the condition of enumeration, and job security. This rationale is best explained in the series of JCM research that the four contextual conditions should moderate the relationship between motivating job characteristics and international work motivation (Hackman and Oldham, 1975, 1980; Oldham *et al*, 1976), and the job characteristics, perceived empowerment and intrinsic motivation should be proximal constructs in the motivation procedure (Thomas and Velthouse 1990; Gagné, Senécal and Koestner, 1997). Thus, the following hypothesis was proposed.

**Hypothesis 3:** Four contextual characteristics (job security, pay satisfaction, constructive supervision, supportive peers and the summary index of contextual factors) in a hotel moderate the proposed causal relationships between motivating job characteristics and the employee's experienced empowerment as well as their internal work motivation.

Following the argument in the literature review, the current research deems attitudinal commitment as the consequence of perceived empowerment. At the same time, owing to the synergetic interaction, commitment can also be a correlate of empowerment. Hence, empowerment can predict the psychological attachment to the hotel the employee works for, and this psychological bond can in turn confer benefits to hotel workers' feelings of empowerment.

There are two hospitality studies that can exemplify the empowerment/commitment link. Fulford and Enz (1995) found the positive causal relationships between one's perceived empowerment and his or her loyalty to the organisation and better quality performance in their study in private clubs. In addition, in a study of hospitality undergraduate students enrolled in a hospitality management programme, Sparrowe (1994) found that the students perceived empowerment was negatively related to intention to turnover. Thus, a hypothesis is proposed.

**Hypothesis 4:** Hotel employees' perceived empowerment can significantly predict the level of attitudinal commitment in a positive manner. Further, these two constructs are reciprocal, so they are significantly correlated.

Campion and McClelland's (1993) job design research suggests that adding requirements to the jobs for understanding different product or service lines (knowledge enlargement) is more motivating than adding requirements for doing a variety of tasks of the same product or service line (task enlargement). The implication of their finding is fundamentally important to hospitality empowerment research in that functional flexibility is one popular HRM practice in the hospitality industry. Functional flexibility involves attempts to obtain greater flexibility in the learning and utilisation of skills, particularly in ways that allow job-holders to develop skills and competencies that allow them to move between a variety of jobs (Mullins, 1995; McKenna and Beech, 1995; Wood, 1997; Jones and Lockwood, 1998). However, there is no existing hospitality literature that empirically explores the distinction between only having the opportunity of doing varied tasks in a single service line and having the experience of doing varied tasks in multiple service lines. The opportunity to understand how different service or production lines function allows hotel jobholders to obtain greater utilisation of skills and broader task identity, and this is believed to be advantageous to develop skills, meaningfulness, and competence.

Further, research on training, socialisation, and empowerment has come to an agreement that having opportunities to be aware of the rules, policies, and possessing additional work skills in various work areas would enlarge knowledge which facilitate the commitment, satisfaction, self-concept and motivation employees themselves have about the jobs they hold (Hall, 1976; Thompson, 1998; Roehl and Swerdlow, 1999). Thus, it is probable that for those who have the opportunity to rotate or get trained between different work functions in ways of either formal or informal programmes, adding requirements to the jobs would lead to better outcomes. For their counterparts who do not have this opportunity, adding

requirements for doing other tasks is less motivating. This operational definition here is somewhat different from Campion and McClelland's (1993). Since their research is an experimental study and focuses exist in a clerical type of job, it is easier to identify and calculate how many different coding and keying tasks on the clerical jobs. However, it should be noted that this proposition should not be regarded as ordinary job rotation research design because "under normal circumstance, job rotation (in the hospitality setting) is often positively resisted by some staff. If the tasks involved are all very similar and routine, then once the person is familiar with new tasks the work may quickly prove boring again" Mullins (1995: 268). Here, we operationalise interdepartmental rotation as a moderator and at the same time test the relationships between the increase in skill variety and several motivation outcomes. In this way, adding the requirement of skill variety to those who experience job rotation is analogous to Campion and McClelland's (1993) knowledge enlargement, and adding the required skill varieties to those who do not have this opportunity corresponds to their task enlargement. On a rather arbitrary basis, adding variety to the former group will be styled "knowledge enlargement" and the later group "task enlargement"; the former group will be referred to as "knowledge enlargement group" and the later group as "task enlargement group" in the chapters that follow. Thus, a hypothesis is proposed:

**Hypothesis 5:** In a hotel setting, adding varied tasks to those who have opportunities to rotate or get trained in different work units leads to better motivation outcomes than those who do not have. The outcomes are tested in terms of overall organisational commitment, overall perceived empowerment, and internal work motivation.

Inspired by Dodd and Ganster's (1996) experimental study on the interactive effects of variety, autonomy, and feedback on job attitudes and performance, the current study attempts to test Dodd and Ganster's findings by taking their experiment out of the laboratory and into the field. The underlying assumption behind the interplay between these three constructs is the consideration of multiple causation – that

increased feedback contributes greater work motivation while the task is also high in autonomy, and increased autonomy is more motivating in a high task variety job. On the other hand, if internal work motivation is the proximity of feelings of empowerment and commitment (referring to the discussion in the literature review), these three constructs could be one set of outcomes resulting from the interactions between the three job characteristics.

**Hypothesis 6:** For the hotel employee, there is two-way interaction between support for autonomy and feedback; thus, the presence of autonomy support can influence (and partly explain) the relationships of feedback to internal motivation, perceived empowerment, and organisational commitment. Likewise, the presence of feedback can influence (and partly explain) the relationships of autonomy to internal motivation, perceived empowerment, and organisational commitment.

**Hypothesis 7:** For the hotel employee, the degree of job variety will influence (and partly explain) the links of autonomy to internal motivation, empowerment, and commitment. Likewise, the relationships between skill variety and the three outcome variables are influenced by the presence of autonomy support.

The examination of the effects of simple demographic variables on employee attitudes and behaviours has been a long-standing tradition in organisational behaviour research (Schreiber, 1979). More specifically, demographic characteristics such as tenure, gender, and job level have been shown to be related to a variety of outcomes, such as social integration and employee attachment, satisfaction, and work motivation (Mobley, Horner and Hollingsworth, 1978; Hackman and Oldham, 1980; O'Reilly, Caldwell and Barnett, 1989). Because research on the psychological empowerment model is relatively new, demographic factors have not been sufficiently discussed in this trend. Drawing from the limited amount of research, key individual factors seen to be directly related to an individual's being empowered includes male gender (Marniero, 1986; Okanlawon, 1994) and higher position level



(Parker and Price, 1994; Keller and Dansereau, 1995). Additionally, people with different experiences and attributes might have different work attitudes and perceived satisfaction. In addition to job characteristics and contextual conditions, demographic factors, such as marital status, age, education, and tenure, might also be associated with the aggregated feelings of empowerment. Thus, a hypothesis is proposed.

**Hypothesis 8:** When empowering practices are implemented, some personal factors are related to perceived empowerment in the hotel setting; in other words, some demographic characteristics have significant effects on empowerment, beyond that accounted for by motivating job and structural characteristics.

Intuitively, the commitment procedure model structured by Steers (1977) is similar to the empowerment framework hypothesised above. Steers' model consists of two parts: (1) antecedents of commitment; and (2) outcomes of commitment. Simply speaking, the antecedents of commitment can be grouped into three main categories: job characteristics, work experiences, and personal characteristics. The second component of the model proposes that commitment leads to several specific behavioural outcomes, such as lower intention to leave, stronger desire to contribute toward goal attainment, and better performance. In addition to the similarity of Steers' model and this study's empowerment framework, a common sense perspective may suggest that meaningfulness and value congruence are semantically analogous to each other even though empowerment and commitment are, to some degree, distinct variables. With this in mind, research objective two will look at several variables related to commitment to extend the knowledge of the work empowerment in the hotel industry.

Enriched jobs, which increase control, strengthen emotional bonds with an organisation and result in positive consequences for employee attitudes and behaviours at work. In particular, it is expected, based on prior research, that commitment will be influenced by autonomy, achievement, variety, challenge,

opportunities for social interaction, and the amount of feedback provided on the job (Ross and Zander, 1957; Sheldon, 1971; Hall and Schneider, 1972; Porter and Steers, 1973; Buchanan, 1974; Steers, 1977; Naumann, 1993; Mathieu and Zajc, 1990; Fried and Ferris, 1987). Thus, a hypothesis is proposed to clarify the causal relationships between the seven job characteristics in JCM and the resulting organisational commitment in the hotel setting.

**Hypothesis 9:** Job characteristics in JCM are one set of work attributes that might significantly affect the hotel employee's identification toward the organisation. In other words, the hotel employees' job characteristics will account for a significant proportion of the variance in their reported levels of organisational commitment.

Drawing on the work of Mowday, Porter, and Steers (1982), commitment could also be influenced by the nature and quality of an employee's work experiences during his or her tenure in an organisation. Work experiences are viewed as major socialising and empowering forces and as such represent an important influence on the extent to which psychological attachments are formed with the organisation. Several work experience variables have been found to be related to organisational commitment, such as organisational dependability, personal importance to the organisation, co-worker attitudes toward the organisation, pay equity, group norms, and leadership style (Steers, 1977; Mowday, Porter and Steer, 1982). In order to remain consistent with the theoretical model outlined above and to avoid problems of multicollinearity between study variables that might emerge elsewhere, the following experiences were selected for examination: (1) job security; (2) pay satisfaction; (3) peer relationships; (4) quality of leadership.

**Hypothesis 10:** Hotel employees' four elements of working experience, job security, pay satisfaction, peer relationship, and leadership, are significantly but differentially associated with organisational commitment.

Borrowing the logic of Hackman and Oldham's job characteristic model, employee growth needs strength might be hypothesised to be a moderator of the relationships between job characteristics and organisational commitment. As opposed to the general belief, Blau (1987) directly tests this hypothesis but the results do not support the role of growth needs strength as a moderator. However, as discussed earlier, Hall and his associates' (1970, 1972) studies support the argument that growth needs can exert a strong influence on the links of job characteristics to commitment, but it might be subject to different career pattern and occupational characteristics. As far as the hotel industry is concerned, it has been plagued with long-term difficulty retaining "good" people, disenchanted with the hope for career development (Siu *et al.*, 1997). To explain the dynamics of organisational commitment in the hotel industry, a hypothesis is proposed.

**Hypothesis 11:** Job enrichment is related to hotel employees' organisational commitment, but moderated by growth needs strength.

Following the theory, it is a general belief that the strongest or most predictable behaviour outcome of employee commitment should be reduced turnover intention (Steers, 1977; Koch and Steer, 1978; Hom *et al.*, 1979; Mowday *et al.*, 1979; Angle and Perry, 1981; Riely *et al.*, 1998). Highly committed employees by definition are desirous of remaining with the organisation and working toward organisational goals and should thus be less likely to leave. As such, it might be interesting to clarify if perceived empowerment could lead to greater commitment, would committed employees have less intention to leave? Additionally, following the same rationale discussed in the literature that insufficient career development paths might influence high-growth-need hospitality employees' intention to leave, the author of the current study feels that it is important to examine the relationships between hotel workers' individual growth needs strength and their level of intention to leave.

**Hypothesis 12:** Hotel employees' organisational commitment is inversely related to intention to leave (ITL) the company. In addition, high growth-needs-strength (GNS) employees tend to search for better

alternative employment opportunities; thus the employee's GNS is related to ITL.

The examination of the effects of demographic factors on employee attitudes and behaviour has been a long-standing tradition in organisational behaviour research. More specifically, demographic characteristics such as tenure, gender, job level, age, income, and education have been shown to be related to commitment. Although research has indicated that some personal factors may affect an individual's commitment to an organisation, factors related to a hotel worker's status in the organisation, such as department and rotation experience, into the demographics, are also investigated here. In addition to the job characteristics and contextual conditions, it is believed that certain demographic factors may significantly affect a hotel worker's reported level of organisational commitment.

**Hypothesis 13:** Motivating job and contextual characteristics have positive effects on organisational commitment; in addition, some demographic characteristics have additive effects on commitment, beyond that accounted for by job and contextual characteristics.

### **6.3 Research design**

This study's primary research design is an analytic empirical survey supplemented by interviews at a specific point of time. It attempts to take empowerment and motivation related theories into the hotel setting. Hence, in conceptualising and structuring the themes of this research, emphasis is placed on specifying the studied variables in the literature review sections. This approach must be undertaken with due attention to any existing research and theories, relevant to the problems as would be evident from the examples cited in the hospitality studies. Therefore, a critical literature review is essential in the previous chapters since it helps the author elaborate the various possible relationships that might exist between, and impinge upon, the phenomena whose empirical variation is of prime concern. Indeed, its theoretically critical review of the relevant literature is vital to a successful and

internally valid analytical survey since it enables this study to identify several potential moderating variables whose influence in hotel management must be considered. For example, autonomy is deemed as an enriching practice; nevertheless, it must be coupled with variety and feedback in order to generate the expected motivational outcomes (Dodd and Ganster, 1996).

Exploratory in nature, the type of research design for this study is cross-sectional survey research. This approach usually involves a large number of respondents studied at a particular period of time. This is different from a longitudinal survey, which is usually focused on a smaller number of respondents over a long period of time (Tahir, 1996). Further, the primary approach to this research is quantitative in that the results of this study obtained from the studied sample are generalised to the whole population with a certain degree of confidence. To ensure reliable data analyses, quantitative research requires adequate sample size, and the use of computers and statistical tools in analysing the results. One of the advantages of this type of research is the ability to replicate it.

### **6.3.1 Overview of Taiwanese hotel industry**

There are two types of hotels in Taiwan, international tourist hotels and tourist hotels. According to the *Annual Report on Tourism 1997 R.O.C.* (Tourism Bureau, 1998a), of the total of 76 hotels with 19,402 rooms, there are 54 government approved international tourist hotels with 16,845 rooms and 22 tourist hotels with 2,557 rooms. The average occupancy rate for the year was 63.74% for international tourist hotels and 61.39% for tourist hotels. In general, the class of an international tourist hotel is equal to that of a 4/5-star hotel, and tourist hotel standard is similar to 3 star hotels in the western standard. Taipei, the capital of Taiwan, has 26 international tourist hotels and 11 tourist hotels.

There are more international tourist hotels than tourist hotels in Taiwan, which is a typical reflection of its owners' preference (Saunders and Renaghan, 1992) and its prosperous international business. As shown in Table 6.1, visitors who arrived

Taiwan for business purpose in 1997 amounted to 750,059, or 31.62% of the total; those coming for pleasure accounted for 843,008, or 35.54%; those who came for conferences numbered 28,585, or 1.20% of the total; those coming to visit relatives numbered 244,996 or 10.33%; people who arrived for study numbered 25,399 in total, or 1.07%; those coming for other purposes amounted to 101,870, or 4.29% of the total; and those whose purpose of visit was unstated amounted to 378,314, or 15.95% of the total (Tourism Bureau, 1998a). Consequently, as can be seen in Table 6.2, international guests accounted for over 64% of visitors in international tourist hotels and 57% of tourist hotel occupancy rates in 1997 (Tourism Bureau, 1998b). In the past decade, Taiwan has been known for its flexible international trading business in South-East Asia, and achieved the reputation as one of the four Asian little dragons of dynamic economy (i.e., Taiwan, South Korea, Hong Kong and Singapore). Since the late 1980's, through technological advancement, this island has become a main supplier of high-tech products in the global village. Weathering the Asian economic crisis, its industry and the financial sectors have proved to be responsive to the regional upheaval economy, and are expected to be better performers than most other Asian countries (The Economist, 1999).

**Table 6.1 Visitor Arrivals in Taiwan by Purpose of Visit in 1997**

Purpose	Number	Percentage
Business	750,059	31.62
Visit relatives	244,996	10.33
Pleasure	843,008	35.54
Conference	28,585	1.2
Study	25,399	1.07
Others (including unstated purpose)	481,184	20.24
Total	2,372,231	100

Source: *Annual Report on Tourism 1997 Republic of China* (Tourism Bureau, 1998a)

**Table 6.2 Taiwanese Hotel Occupancy Rate by Nationality in 1997**

	International tourist hotels		Tourist hotels	
	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage
Local guests	1,652,877	35.79	308,130	42.06
International guests	2,964,505	64.2	424,523	57.94
Total	4,617,382	100	732,653	100

Source: *1997 Statistical Report of the Hotel Industry R.O.C* (Tourism Bureau, 1998b)

Following its technological and economic development, hotel management in Taiwan has become more and more concerned with how to manage human resources effectively, and particularly how to motivate employees to offer high quality services. Slogans, like profit sharing, job enrichment, empowerment, culture for excellent service, etc., have been buzzwords in many Taiwanese hotels. Despite this rhetoric, the hospitality industry is still plagued with high labour turnover rates, and many employees feel disempowered. Although there is much concern as to the impact of these feelings of disempowerment; as discussed above, there are neither existing studies nor reports that shows whether, how and why enriching a job and contextual conditions will lead to the improved perceived empowerment for Taiwanese hotel workers. What are the ingredients to do so, and what are the benefits of empowering Taiwanese hospitality workers? How will the complicated interactions between the empowering or motivating elements energise Taiwanese service personnel work attitudes, beliefs and values. All questions discussed in the preceding chapters are shared with the Taiwanese hotel practitioners. As such, this study is conducted, and aims to identify those questions in the context of Taiwanese hotel organisations.

### **6.3.2 Contact persons**

To integrate school curricula and practical training in the hospitality industry, the Sandwich Teaching System (STS) at Jin-Wen Institute of Technology (JWIT) is designed for two-year-college students who take courses at school in the first semesters and work in hotels and restaurants in the second semesters of two academic years. There are approximately 200 students taking lectures and 200 students acquiring professional knowledge and skills from internship each semester.

With respect to hospitality teachers, in addition to lecturing, their role includes co-ordination between school and industry. Therefore, teaching staff and students from JWIT Hospitality Department have established an excellent network with practitioners since the department adopted STS in 1997. Accordingly, 16 deluxe hotels, participating in the STS, agreed to take part in administering and collecting

the questionnaires for this study. The hotels, rated by Taiwan Tourism Bureau, are “international tourist hotel”, equivalent to 4/5 star hotels in western rating.

To secure reliable data and to improve the quality of responses, the author and one of his colleagues selected and trained 25 internship students recommended by the hotel managers as ethical and trustworthy. These students, undergoing internship in the hotels studied during the survey, acted as contact persons. In addition, contact persons also included several hotel full-time employees, who were the author’s students and who had graduated from JWIT hospitality programme during the period from 1994 to 1997, voluntarily gave considerate support to help conduct the survey.

Apart from those contact persons, during the whole period of the fieldwork, the author’s colleagues at JWIT’s hospitality department voluntarily contacted and liased with the middle-level managers in order to improve the valid response rate.

### **6.3.3 Pilot Study**

After discussions with the supervisory team at the Scottish Hotel School, the questionnaire was brought to Taiwan for pilot study. During the translation of questionnaire into Chinese, a number of JWIT professors and lecturers with a PhD or MSc in business and hospitality management were asked to diagnose the translated items that might seem unusual to local hotel workers. To ascertain that the questionnaire was designed effectively, without bias and avoiding leading questions, in-depth interviews were also conducted with two middle managers at the Grand Hyatt Taipei to seek constructive suggestions. A pilot test was then conducted with 25 hospitality students who had acquired practical training from internship for six months, and 15 full-time hotel workers. The results of the pilot test provided useable information for the questionnaire design, wording and measurement scales, and minor changes to the wording of the questionnaire were made.



#### **6.3.4 Sample and procedure**

The survey was conducted from November 1998 through to mid-February 1999. Data was collected from a sample of full-time workers including operational employees (non-managerial workers), supervisors (higher than operational employees but lower than middle managers in the management hierarchy), and middle-level managers working in front of the house and back of the house. A convenience sample of 12 city hotels and four resort hotels was selected based on the management's willingness to participate in the study (see Appendix 1: List of Survey Hotels). None of the hotel studied had formal empowerment programmes. However, all of the executives were familiar with the key concepts (e.g., job enrichment, TQM, autonomous workgroup, work motivation, profit sharing, training, etc.).

After obtaining introductions and administrative approval for this research, personal visits were made to each hotel. Face-to-face interviews were conducted with personnel managers and line managers. These were used to explain the purpose of the study, inform them of the importance and objectives of each section in the questionnaire, and the subsequent procedure of the survey. Agreement was reached to administer from 30 to 100 sets of questionnaires in each hotel. These were handed to managers or contact persons. Contact persons were empowered to explain the response method, administer and collect the survey at the studied hotels.

With the agreement of senior managers, contact persons of each property then drew simple random samples in assigned departments on the basis of stratified sampling principle – random sampling in the five departments (i.e., restaurant, kitchen, front office, housekeeping and administration). They delivered the survey booklets to identified valid samples of employees. A note in the first page indicated that the questionnaires were confidential and anonymity was guaranteed. These contact persons were informed on how to give instructions or explanations to respondents in case the respondents should raise any questions.

In addition, all respondents were made aware of the following points:

- The respondents should give their first reaction to each item and move through

the questionnaire quickly. The items were straightforward, and there were no trick questions;

- The respondents should fill in all blanks. Contact persons were available for the respondents in case they were unsure about a specific question;
- The important thing was their personal response to each question, and the respondents should not compare answers while completing the questionnaire;
- The questionnaire would take about 15 to 20 minutes to complete; and
- Employees could volunteer to complete their questionnaires at break time, during their lunch break, or overnight if necessary.

A total of 1,100 questionnaires were distributed to employees from operational general workers to middle-level managers. In total 468 usable questionnaires were returned, representing a response rate of 42%.<sup>1</sup> Of these, the within-hotel response rates ranged from a high of 84% to a low of 32%. This is a satisfactory level of response. The sample covered a representative selection of employee groups across variables including age, education, division, sex, position, and tenure. Of the total number of valid responses, 216 or about 46% were obtained from F&B; 169 or about 36% from rooms division; 84 or 17% from administration divisions. They could roughly represent the Taiwanese international tourist hotel labour market where the proportions of F&B, rooms and administration division are 111,509 or 50% and 65,763 or 30 % and 41,893 or 19% (Tourism Bureau, 1998b). The next chapter will detail the demographic characteristics of the sample. Table 6.3 presents the number of valid questionnaires received from each hotel.

Quantitative research is better at summarising large amounts of data and reaching generalisations based on statistical projections (Hair *et al*, 1998, Trochim, 1999); qualitative research excels at “telling the story” from the participant’s viewpoint, providing the rich descriptive detail that sets quantitative results in their human context (Trochim, 1999). To achieve additive value from both types and elicit a deeper understanding of how practitioners think about this research’s propositions,

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<sup>1</sup> In addition to the valid 468 full-time employee responses, the survey also included other sub-samples for future publications but not for the purpose of this thesis.

eight in-depth unstructured interviews were made as a supplementary research method. The interviews were focused on the questions in relation to the hypotheses proposed. Interviewees included one deputy general manager, two front-desk managers, one house keeping manager, one F&B manager, one chef, and two HR managers. They addressed important management concerns and what things were really going on in their departments and hotels, and was valuable to enhance the interpretation of the findings from this research's quantitative analyses. Their managerial considerations were variable in the data analysis and discussion chapters (e.g., job rotation, monetary rewards, etc.).

**Table 6.3 Taiwanese Hotels Studied**

Hotel	n
Grand Hyatt Taipei	51
Howard Plaza Hotel	21
Asia Pacific Hotel	46
Grand Formosa Regent Taipei	29
Gloria Hotel	34
Lai Lai Sheraton Hotel	14
The Sherwood Hotel Taipei	19
Far Eastern Hotel	17
Rebar Holiday Inn Crown Plaza	16
Magnolia Hotel	14
Hotel National	22
Howard Plaza Hotel Kaohsiung	20
Ta Shee Resort Hotel*	41
Chinatrust hotel Sun Noon Lake*	26
Caesar Park Hotel Kenting*	46
Hotel Royal Chihpen Spa*	52
Total	468

\*Resort hotels

#### 6.4 Measures

The questionnaire consisted of four sections. Items for organisational commitment scale are allocated in section one. Items for the scales of feelings of empowerment, job characteristics, contextual characteristics, and affective motivation outcomes are randomly spread through sections two and three. This random technique was

proposed by Hackman and Lawler (1971) to avoid artificially leading respondents to the answers, and generate threats to the given propositions, inference, or conclusion. Demographic data are allocated to section four. The respondent characteristics consist of gender, marital status, age, employment status (this is not used in this study), tenure, the opportunity of interdepartmental job rotation or training (yes or no), education level, monthly income, hotel name, department, position level. It should be noted that the question for interdepartmental work opportunity is defined as working in different work units. For example, if employee had the opportunity to rotate from kitchen work to waiting or bartending, the respondent should answer “yes” although these three types of jobs usually belong to F&B. Contact persons were asked to check the responses.

The questionnaire and scoring key for each variable (construct) are displayed in Appendix 2 and 3. Items marked with “re” denote a negatively phrased and reverse score item. Each construct will be discussed later.

To reduce measurement error and assure a measure that leads to valid conclusions or that a sample enables valid inferences, any rigid qualitative analysis on occupational and organisational psychology would address both the validity and reliability (Hair *et al.*, 1998; Trochim, 1999). It is generally accepted that when a concept has been proposed, the ensuing measurement device should be both reliable and valid.

#### **6.4.1 Reliability**

Reliability is an assessment of the degree of consistency between multiple measurements of a variable. This notion is often taken to entail two separate aspects – external and internal reliability (Bryman and Cramer, 1997). External reliability refers to the test-retest method, by which consistency is measured between the responses for an individual in two points in time. The objective is to ensure that responses are not too varied across time periods so that a measurement taken at any point in time is reliable. This methods of reliability could not be used in this study because it requires the measurement scale to be administered to the same set of

respondents at two different times at a certain time interval.

The other and more commonly used measure of reliability is internal consistency, which applies to the consistency among the variables in a multiple-item scale, by which all the constructs studied in this research are measured. The rationale for internal consistency is that the individual items or indicator of the scales should all be measuring the same construct and thus be highly interrelated. A number of procedures for estimating internal reliability exist, two of which can be readily computed in SPSS. First, with split-half reliability the items in a scale are divided into two groups, either randomly or on an odd-even basis. A correlation coefficient is then generated, which varies between 0 and 1; the nearer the result is to 1 the more internally reliable is the scale. The second type of diagnostic measure is the currently widely used Cronbach's alpha that essentially calculates the average of all possible split-half reliability coefficients. Again, the coefficients from Cronbach's alpha range from 0 to 1, with 1 being perfectly reliable and 0 being perfectly unreliable. A coefficient of reliability of 1 is usually never attainable. Even though there is no proper rules available on what constitute a reliable measure, Hair *et al* (1998) suggested a minimum value of between 0.6 and 0.7 as acceptable for exploratory research. Because of its popularity in the organisational behaviour literature of the 80's and 90's, the tests of reliability in this study were conducted through this technique.

#### **6.4.2 Validity**

Validity is the extent to which a scale or set of measures accurately represents the concept of interest (Hair *et al*, 1998). At a very minimum, research should establish face validity – that is, “that the measure apparently reflects the content of the concept in question”. (Bryman and Cramer, 1997: 66). Colloquially, in face validity, researchers look at the operationalisation and see whether “on the face of it” it seems like a good translation of the construct. Essentially it is an expert's subjective judgement call (Trochim, 1999). Due to its simplicity, this is the most widely applied method. To improve the quality of face validity, this research called for the following

procedures:

- Conduct an exhaustive search of the literature.
- Solicit expert opinions on the inclusion of items (pilot study).
- Pre-test the scale through a pilot study (pilot study).
- Modify as necessary (pilot study).

In essence, the items used in this questionnaire were adopted from the studies that can best represent certain fields in academic literature. All subscales have been analysed by many discriminating researchers for years, and have been shown to possess a high validity and reliability.

#### **6.4.3 Empowerment**

Much psychological research has concerned the effects of perceived rather than objectively observed power (Conger and Kanungo, 1988; Thomas and Velthouse, 1990; Spreitzer, 1992; Sparrow, 1994). For example, although control over decision making is often measured in terms of perceptions, it is not a perception itself. Rather control refers to the actual exercise of power. However, perception can be a useful way to measure control (Tannenbaum, 1986). Moreover, Langer (1983) and Parker and Price (1994) have proposed that control must be perceived by the individual, if it is to be experienced and have an effect on the individual. That is the premise behind the measure of cognitive empowerment of this research.

Empowerment was measured using a scale employed in Speitzer's (1995) "*Psychological empowerment in the workplace: Dimensions, measurement, and validation*". It is a self-report scale that consists of 12 items designed to capture the distinct dimensions of empowerment. All of the items can be seen in questionnaire section two and section three C 7 (see Appendix 2). The scale comprises items adapted from previous work-related scales that include autonomy, competence, meaningfulness and impact developed by Hackman and Oldham (1975), Jones (1986), Tymon's (1988), and Ashforth (1989) respectively. Each item is measured on

a 7-point scale ranged from “strongly disagree (1) to “strongly agree” (7). Further, the validity of the items has been rigorously examined in Spreitzer (1992, 1995).

The dimensionality of these two versions has been discussed in the section of literature review, to briefly reiterate:

For the studies of the Fortune 50 industrial firm (Spreitzer, 1992, 1995, 1996), including:

- Meaning – a sense of caring or alignment of actions with values;
- Competence – belief in one’s abilities;
- Self-determination – a sense of choice in initiating behaviour; and
- Impact – beliefs that one can offer impute and influence actions in the work environment.

For the studies of the small private clubs (Fulford and Enz, 1995; Corsun and Enz, 1999), including the following three dimensions,

- First two dimensions – meaning and competence – are the same as the dimensionality above.
- The third dimension consists of Spreitzer’s self-determination and impact.

In the current study, the scale was factor analysed using a principal component and method and varimax rotation to examine the integrity of the factor structure developed by Spreitzer (1992) and Fulford and Enz (1995). Those factors with an eigenvalue greater than one were retained in the final solution. The analysis illustrated in Table 6.4 reveals a three-factor structure, in which the dimension of “meaning” is identical to the studies above. The other nine items in the Spreitzer’s dimensions of self determination, competence, and impact loaded onto two factors, which this research has identified and labelled “efficacy” (perceived efficacy), and “control” (perceived control). The factor scores generated by the factor analysis were then used in the subsequent regression analysis described later.

**Table 6.4**  
**Factor Analysis of Empowerment Items**

Items	Factor Loading		
	Meaning	Control	Efficacy
The work I do is meaningful to me	.84 <sup>a</sup>	.16	.16
The work I do is very important to me	.66 <sup>a</sup>	.24	.23
My job activities are personally meaningful to me	.81 <sup>a</sup>	.19	.07
I have freedom in determining how to do my job	.26	.72 <sup>a</sup>	.05
I have significant influence over what happens on my team	.18	.63 <sup>a</sup>	.33
I can decide on my own how to go about doing my work	.17	.73 <sup>a</sup>	.13
I have a great deal of control over what happens on my team	.12	.61 <sup>a</sup>	.37
I have a chance to use personal initiative in my work	.14	.78 <sup>a</sup>	.05
I am confident about my ability to do my job	.23	-.05	.76 <sup>a</sup>
I have mastered the skills necessary for my job	-.02	.41	.61 <sup>a</sup>
I am self-assured about my capabilities to perform my work activities	.10	.18	.78 <sup>a</sup>
My impact on what happens on my team is large	.29	.28	.54 <sup>a</sup>

<sup>a</sup>Item leading defining factors

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis

Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalisation

The factors identified are consistent with the current proposition. A close examination of the original conceptualisation of empowerment suggests that service employees in a Taiwanese deluxe hotel perform their tasks in a highly interdependent



manner both intra- and inter-departmentally. In the setting, jobs are interrelated through the processing of input into output, and the interdependence is the reason that quality service can function, and guests can experience the integrated service during their stay. Further, the hotel employees is not only responsible for their own freedom for determining how and when to execute their own duties, but also responsible for the impact of their autonomous acts on upstream and downstream task activities. More importantly, in addition to having a chance to use personal initiative at work, the feeling of control also includes the feeling that one's opinion counts in work group decision making. Referring to the earlier proposed interaction between self-efficacy and collective efficacy, the deluxe hotel employee's confidence in the ability to do their own jobs is also shown to include the belief that personal input can influence the work group's overall performance outcomes.

As further evidence of the reliability of this study's three subscales (dimensions) to capture cognitive empowerment, reliability coefficients (Cronbach's alpha) were calculated which revealed a high degree of scale reliability (.70 to .80, see page overleaf). The test of "internal reliability" is used in multiple item scales. It raises the question of whether each scale is measuring a single idea and hence whether the items that make up the scale are internally consistent. A number of procedures for estimating internal reliability exist. This research applies the currently most widely used Cronbach's alpha which essentially generates reliability coefficients. The coefficient ranges from 0 to 1; the rule of thumb is that the values should usually be .60 or over; the higher, the better reliability (Bryman and Cramer, 1997; Hair *et al*, 1998). However, if studies engage in the analyses involving a wider range of job attributes and demographic factors, the coefficients could be slightly lower. For example, the nature of jobs between cooks and front-desk clerks are quite different. Many aspects of demographic factors between mid-aged chambermaids and sales representatives are obviously different.

To sum up, for the deluxe hotel employees, the dimensionality of empowerment is different from that resulting from the study of a large industrial firm and that of small private clubs. These are:

**Meaningfulness:** This aspect of empowerment represents the wholeness regarding the link between actions and beliefs. The hotel employees believe or care about what they do; their actions are aligned with their work values. In this study the reliability coefficient (Cronbach's alpha) was .76. For Taiwanese deluxe hotel employees in this study's sample, the name of this dimension of empowerment is determined by the items:

- The work I do is meaningful to me;
- The work I do is very important to me; and
- My job activities are personally meaningful to me.

**Efficacy:** This dimension of empowerment captures a belief in one's ability to perform a task, and a sense of competence to contribute to the work group performance. A reliability coefficient (Cronbach's alpha) of .70 was found for this subscale. The label of this dimension is determined by the items:

- I am confident about my ability to do my job;
- I am self-assured about my capabilities to perform my work activities;
- My impact on what happens on my team is large; and
- I have mastered the skills necessary for my job.

**Control:** This aspect of empowerment pertains to the hotel employee's belief that he or she can use personal initiative on the job, and can control and influence what happens on the team. The reason why the set of the following five items is named control is that it includes self-control and shared-control. As a social process, self-control allows the exercising of free will. Shared-control intermingles and exchanged individual's control and impact in a continuing social process in order to produce the collective thought and the collective will (Parker, 1984, Hurst, 1992). The reliability coefficient (Cronbach's alpha) was .80. The label of this dimension is determined by the items:

- I have a great deal of control over what happens on my team;
- I have freedom in determining how to do my job;
- I have significant influence over what happens on my team;
- I can decide on my own how to go about doing my work; and
- I have a chance to use personal initiative in my work.

Additionally, the responses for each item were summed and divided by 12 to arrive at a summary indicator of employee perceived empowerment. It is intended that the scale items, when taken together, would provide a fairly consistent indicator of employee empowerment levels for most working populations (Spreitzer, 1996).

#### **6.4.4 Organisational commitment**

As discussed earlier, the calculated organisational commitment (Hrebiniak and Alutto, 1972), normative commitment (Wiener, 1982), organisational identification (Mael and Ashforth, 1992), and value internalisation commitment (O'Reilly and Chatman, 1986) are measured by different instruments on the different base of operational perspectives. It is worth noting that the term – organisational commitment – operationalised in this research is organisation-specific. This is different from Riley *et al's* (1998) commitment scale in their study, in which they tested the personal commitment to the industry as an alternative to organisational commitment. Riley *et al's* measurement is advantageous in exploring commitment to the occupation where the internal labour market is weak and the researcher is focused on whether the employee is willing to remain with the current type of work.

To assure that the measure is the hotel employee's psychological bond to his or her organisation rather than to this occupation, organisational commitment is measured using Porter's attitudinal commitment scale (Porter *et al*, 1974; Mowday *et al*, 1979). Attitudinal commitment is conceptualised as the relative strength of an individual's identification with and involvement in a particular organisation. This scale measures the three dimensions of commitment, namely the employee's loyalty of desire to remain in the organisation, devotion and willingness to exert extra effort on behalf of

the organisation, and a belief in and acceptance of the values and goals of the organisation. The instrument contains 15 items, and the response format employs a 7-point Likert scale with the following anchors: strongly agree (7), moderately agree (6), slightly agree (5), neither agree nor disagree (4), slightly disagree (3), moderately disagree (2), and strongly disagree (1). Several items were negatively phrased and reverse scored in an effort to reduce response bias (Mowday *et al*, 1979).

The commitment instrument was also factor analysed with a principal component method, and the factor matrix produced was rotated by means of a varimax rotation. The analysis produced three factors with an eigenvalue greater than one. The analysis illustrated in Table 6.5 reveals a three-factor structure, in which the dimensionality of the 15-item scale can be explained by the theoretical considerations discussed earlier (see Table 6.5). As further evidence of the viability of these three subscales to capture the hotel employees' attitudinal organisational commitment, reliability coefficients (Cronbach's alphas) were calculated which revealed an acceptable degree of scale reliability (from .57 to .81). Accordingly, the label of each factor is determined by the items, which load most highly on it (Bryman and Cramer, 1997), as follows:

**Value congruence:** The degree to which the hotel employee perceives his or her personal work value and the hotel's values and goals as similar or related. The reliability coefficient (Cronbach's alpha) was .81; the meaning of this factor is determined by the items:

- I find that my values and the organisation's values are similar;
- I could just as well be working for a different organisation as long as the type of work was similar; (negatively phased and reverse scored item)
- This organisation really inspires the very best in me in the way of job performance;
- I am extremely glad that I chose this considering at the time I joined;
- There is not too much to be gained by sticking with this organisation indefinitely; (negatively phased and reverse scored item)

- Often, I find it difficult to agree with this organisation's policies on important matters relating to its employees;
- For me this is the best of all possible organisations for which to work; and
- Deciding to work for this organisation was a definite mistake on my part. (negatively phased and reverse scored item)

**Affective commitment (extra effort):** The extent to which an individual becomes "the organisation" and is willing to act beyond the call of his or her duty on behalf of the hotel. The reliability coefficient (Cronbach's alpha) was .70. The meaning of this factor is determined by the items:

- I am willing to put in a great deal of effort beyond the normal expected in order to help this organisation be successful;
- I talk up this organisation to my friends as a great organisation to work for;
- I would accept almost any type of job assignment in order to keep working for this organisation; and
- I am proud to tell others that I am part of this organisation.

**Loyalty (intention to remain):** The hotel employee's loyalty to the organisation and intention to remain with the organisation. The reliability coefficient (Cronbach's alpha) was .57. The meaning of this factor is determined by the items:

- I feel very little loyalty to this organisation; (negatively phased and reverse scored item)
- I would take very little change in my present circumstances to cause my to leave this organisation; and (negatively phased and reverse scored item)
- I really care about the fate of this organisation.

In addition, to depict a general latitude of the employee's organisational commitment, the responses for each item were summed and averaged to yield an organisational commitment score (Mowday *et al*, 1979). A reliability test of the scale yielded a Cronbach's alpha of .85.

**Table 6.5**  
**Factor Analysis of Attitudinal Commitment Items**

Items	Value congruence	Affective commitment (Extra effort)	Loyalty
I find that my values and the organisation's values are similar.	.51 <sup>a</sup>	.45	.01
I could just as well be working for a different organisation as long as the type of work was similar. (R)	.67 <sup>a</sup>	-.05	.27
This organisation really inspires the very best in me in the way of job performance.	.63 <sup>a</sup>	.21	.09
I am extremely glad that I chose this organisation to work for over others I was considering at the time I joined.	.62 <sup>a</sup>	.37	.03
There is not too much to be gained by sticking with this organisation indefinitely. (R)	.65 <sup>a</sup>	.09	.27
Often, I find it difficult to agree with this organisation's policies on important matters relating to its employees. (R)	.54 <sup>a</sup>	.12	.20
For me this is the best of all possible organisations for which to work.	.65 <sup>a</sup>	.21	-.28
Deciding to work for this organisation was a definite mistake on my part. (R)	.59 <sup>a</sup>	.24	.27
I am willing to put in a great deal of effort beyond the normally expected in order to help this organisation be successful.	.21	.68 <sup>a</sup>	.27
I talk up this organisation to my friends as a great organisation to work for.	.46	.62 <sup>a</sup>	.10
I would accept almost any type of job assignment in order to keep working for this organisation.	-.02	.70 <sup>a</sup>	-.10
I am proud to tell others that I am part of this organisation.	.42	.58 <sup>a</sup>	.19
I feel very little loyalty to this organisation. (R)	.42	.15	.50 <sup>a</sup>
It would take very little change in my present circumstances to cause me to leave this origination. (R)	.13	.01	.81 <sup>a</sup>
I really care about the fate of this organisation.	.08	.53	.54 <sup>a</sup>

<sup>a</sup>Item leading defining factors.

An "R" denotes a negatively phrased and reverse scored item.

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalisation.

#### 6.4.5 Motivating job characteristics

The scales of seven job characteristics were adopted from the Job Diagnosis Survey (JDS) (Hackman and Oldham, 1980). They are skill variety, task identity, task significance, autonomy, feedback from the job, feedback from agents, and dealing with others. An explicit operational definition has been discussed in the literature review. Hackman and Oldham (1975, 1980) develop the JDS to assess their Job Characteristic Model, where several items are joined in a composite measure to represent each concept of core job characteristics. The factor structure of the JDS has been rigorously examined in numerous studies since Hackman and Oldham's (1975) work was published. To briefly state, several studies argue the instability of the dimensionality proposed in Hackman and Oldham's Theory (Fried and Ferris, 1987). Idaszak and Drasgow (1987) revised the negatively worked items in the JDS and found it more reliable than the old version. However, Kulik, Oldham, and Langner (1988) demonstrated that although the revised version supported the *a priori* structure of the job characteristics, it did not improve the predictions made with the instrument about intrinsic motivation, satisfaction, and productivity. Since the older version has been more widely used and has been validated in so many settings, the present study applied the original one.

As such, a multiple-item seven-point Likert scale was used to measure the presence or absence of each motivating job characteristics. Scale anchors ranged from 1 (very little or very inaccurate in different sections) to 7 (very much or very accurate). The items of each scale are demonstrated in Appendix 2 (Questionnaire) and Appendix 3 (Scoring Key).

Skill variety consists of three items; sample items of the scale include:

- How much variety is there in your job? That is, to what extent does your job require you to do many different things at work, using a variety of your skills and talents?
- The job requires me to use a numbers of complex or high-level skills.

The coefficient alpha for the scale was .58.

Task identity consists of three items; sample items of the scale include:

- To what extent does your job involve doing a “whole” and identifiable piece of work? That is, is the job a complete piece of work that has an obvious beginning and end? Or is this only a small part of the overall piece of work, which is finished by other people automatic machines?
- The job provides me the chance to completely finish the piece of work I begin.

The coefficient alpha for the scale was .56.

Task significance consists of three items; sample items of the scale include:

- In general, how significant or important is your job? That is, are the results of your work likely to significantly affect the lives or well-being of other people?
- The job is one where a lot of other people can be affected by how well the work gets done.

The coefficient alpha for the scale was .43.

Autonomy consists of three items; sample items of the scale include:

- How much autonomy is there in your job? That is, to what extent does your job permit you to decide on your own how to go about doing the work?
- The job gives me considerable opportunity for independence and freedom in how I do the work.

The coefficient alpha for the scale was .50.

Feedback from job itself is assessed by three items; sample items of the scale include:

- To what extent does doing the job itself provide you with information about your work performance? That is, does the actual work itself provide clues about how well your are doing-aside from any “feedback” co-workers or supervisors may provide?
- Just doing the work required by the job provides many chances for me to figure out how well I am doing.

The coefficient alpha for the scale was .51.



Feedback from agents is measured with three items; sample items of the scale include:

- To what extent do managers or co-workers let you know how well you are doing on your job?
- Supervisors often let me know how well they think I am performing the job.

The coefficient alpha for the scale was .65.

Dealing with others consists of three items; sample items of the scale include:

- To what extent does your job require you to work closely with other people (either “clients,” or people in related jobs in your own organisation)?
- The job requires a lot of co-operative work with other people.

The coefficient alpha for the scale was .41.

Finally, an overall scale was designed by summing the scores of the seven job characteristics and divided by seven to get an overall estimate of the motivating potential of a job. As such, the overall scale was devised to measure the presence or absence of motivating job characteristics. This is consistent with previous research (Hackman and Oldham, 1980). Originally, Hackman and Oldham (1980) did not include feedback from agents and dealing with others in the overall measure. However, recent research on job characteristics in service sector and hospitality industry usually includes these two characteristics as necessary indicators of the perceived motivating job characteristics (Gagné, Senécal and Koestner, 1997; Lee-Ross, 1998). These two characteristics are especially important when studies are focused on the hotel industry where jobs inherently involve many service encounters and people interactions, and when feedback is entailed as a mechanism for ensuring the quality cycle, contributing to the hotel’s long-term success.

#### **6.4.6 Internal work motivation**

Each hotel studied has many departments with different work types and different job requirements. It is rather difficult to obtain consistent measurement (reliability) of performance effectiveness in that the criteria for assessing performance effectiveness

are fundamentally idiosyncratic to particular work settings (Staw, 1984). There were two other reasons that this research avoided measuring it directly. First, it might have become problematic to expect supervisors or insufficiently trained persons to record fairly standardised performance evaluation of each employee in different properties and various departments. Second, it might have been that some graders would be stricter and some others more lenient. Thus, an alternative way was to assess internal work motivation instead.

Organisational behaviour theorists tend to consider internal work motivation as the most directly relevant indication of work performance (Hackman and Oldham, 1980; Staw, 1984), since internal work motivation is primarily devoted to predicting changes in performance, with measures of motivation sometimes even being used as proxies for individual performance.

To measure the hotel worker's work motivation, this study uses Hackman and Oldham's (1975, 1980) instrument of internal work motivation, which is used in conjunction with Deci's intrinsic motivation (Deci and Ryan, 1985; Hackman and Oldham, 1980; Deci, 1995). Like the term – *intrinsic* – used in *intrinsic reward*, *intrinsic motivation* is defined as motivation where the dynamics and energy to perform one's tasks are *inherent from the doing the job itself*. *Intrinsic motivation* is the experience of interest and enjoyment when performing work tasks, without being controlled by external contingencies, such as extrinsic rewards and punishments. Much research has also found *intrinsic motivation* to be positively associated with better performance (Kanfer and Ackerman, 1989), greater conceptual learning (Deci and Ryan, 1987), satisfaction, and higher self-esteem (Deci, 1995). Thomas and Velthouse (1990) list behaviour and experiences that have been associated with *intrinsic motivation*, as follows,

- Flexibility,
- Creativity,
- Initiative,
- Resiliency,

- Self-regulation,
- Creativity
- Concentration.

Cognitive empowerment theorists establish their empowerment model to permit the identification of the processes that generate intrinsic task motivation (Conger and Kanungo, 1988; Thomas and Velthouse, 1990). They argue that the empowerment processes, once assessed, could be used to improve intrinsic motivation.

In comparison with JCM's internal work motivation, the term – intrinsic motivation – seems to concern a wider scope of implication for people's behaviour, since the development of the theory, Deci and his associates conducted a series of experiential and field studies, which include leisure activity experiments on students and field research on workers in organisations (Deci, 1971; Deci, Nezlek, and Sheinman, 1981; Deci, Schwartz, Sheinman, and Ryan, 1981; Deci and Ryan, 1985; Deci, 1995; Deci and Ryan, 1987). Nevertheless, work motivation literature has used the terms "intrinsic motivation" and "internal work motivation" interchangeably to discuss the antecedents or consequences of empowered or committed states (Gagné, Senécal and Koestner, 1997). Intrinsic motivation (or internal work motivation) discussed in this research does not concern motivation for any leisure activities; it is work specific and only includes a sense of purpose in the organisational settings. Following Hackman and Oldham (1980), it is focused on the idea of the work flow experience (Csikszentmihali, 1975) and the state of self-rewarding (Blood, 1978), immediate and contingent on work behaviour. "In colloquial terms, extreme positive self-rewarding can be characterised as pride, and extreme negative self-rewarding as shame" (Hackman and Oldham, 1980: 72). A six-item scale, directly adopted from JDS, was used to measure the employee's internal work motivation. Responses are on seven-point scales ranging from 1 "strongly disagree" to 7 "strong agree". Sample items of this scale include: "I feel a great sense of personal satisfaction when I do this job well"; "My opinion of my self goes up when I do this job well"; and "I feel bad and unhappy when I discover that I have performed poorly on this job." In the present sample, the internal work motivation scale showed an internal consistency

reliability (Cronbach's alpha) of .63.

#### **6.4.7 General job satisfaction**

A five-item scale, based on the *JDS* (Hackman and Oldham, 1980) general job satisfaction scale, was used to measure the hotel employee's general job satisfaction, which was defined as in general how satisfied they feel about their jobs. This instrument also includes the respondent's perspective of the extent to which their co-workers were satisfied with the same job. Responses are on a seven-point scale anchored by "strongly agree" and "strong disagree". Sample items of the scale include: "Generally speaking, I am very satisfied with this job"; "I frequently think of quitting this job" (Reversed scoring); and "Most people on this job are very satisfied with the job". The scale showed a reliability (Cronbach's alpha) of .68 in this sample.

#### **6.4.8 Growth satisfaction**

This was measured with four-item scale based on *JDS*. The concept of growth satisfaction instrument is consistent with content motivation theories to assess one's higher needs satisfaction (Maslow, 1968). Scale anchors ranged from 1 "very inaccurate" to 7 "very accurate". The following are measuring items:

- The amount of personal growth and development I get in doing my job;
- The feeling of worthwhile accomplishment I get from doing my job;
- The amount of independent thought and action I can exercise on my job; and
- The amount of challenge in my job.

A reliability test of this scale yielded a Cronbach alpha of .80 in this sample.

#### **6.4.9 Constructive work environment**

The definition of organisational culture has been controversial in the research and practitioner literature (Sparrowe, 1995). Ott (1989) exhaustive review of its various definitions shows that every definition has as many detractors as adherents. This

issue is particularly crucial to the survey instruments the quantitative analyses. Schein (1990), for example, expressed doubts as to whether survey instruments are capable of capturing the complexities of organisational culture. As such recent research has come to an agreement that organisational culture could be operationalised as normative beliefs and shared behavioural expectations (Cooke and Lafferty, 1986), values (O'Reilly, Chatman and Caldwell, 1991), and value congruity (Enz, 1986). Following this stream, Sparrowe (1995), for example, identified three types of culture – constructive, passive-defensive, and aggressive-defensive culture, and discussed the effects of different culture type on empowerment. However, this stream still tends to be macro in orientation (Spreitzer, 1996), which has more to do with comparing the types of culture-related phenomena, but does not specify some contextual concerns suggested in empowerment research; for example, supervisory guidance, support, respect, and fair treatment; peers helping behaviour; fair pay; sense of job security (Bowen and Lawler, 1992, 1995; Schneider *et al*, 1994; Parker and Price, 1994; Quinn and Spreitzer, 1997; Corsun and Enz, 1999). To precisely capture these key words, four instruments from contextual satisfaction scales in JCM were used. Environmental characteristics were, thus, specified in four aspects, supervision, peer, pay, and job security. Ten items were used to measure four aspects of constructive work environmental characteristics.

A three-item scale for the level of employee satisfaction with constructive supervision include:

- The degree of respect and fair treatment I receive from my boss;
- The amount of support and guidance I receive from my supervisor; and
- The overall quality of the supervision I receive in my work.

A three-item scale for satisfaction with constructive peer relationships consists of:

- The chance to help other people while at work;
- The chance to get to know other people while on the job; and
- The people I talk to and work with on my job.

A two-item instrument for satisfaction with fair pay consists of:

- The degree I am fairly paid for what I contribute to this organisation;
- The amount of pay and fringe benefits I receive.

A two-item scale for job security:

- The amount of job security I have;
- How secure things look for me in the future in this organisation.

Scale anchors for constructive work characteristics range from 1 (strongly dissatisfied) to 7 (strongly satisfied). The consistency reliability (Cronbach's alpha) for each scale was .80 for constructive supervision measure; .55 for constructive peers measure; .72 for satisfaction with pay measure; and .75 for sense of job security measure. Finally, an index was formed to measure overall perception of the contextual factors. This index consists of the sum of the scores obtained from the four scales measuring specific aspects of the work context described above and then divided by four (Oldham, Hackman and Pierce, 1976).

#### **6.4.10 Growth needs strength**

The measure of growth needs strength was obtained from the "would like" and "job choice" sections, directly adopted from the JCM (Hackman and Oldham, 1980). Briefly, in the "job choice" section, employees indicated their relative preference from 12 pairs of hypothetical jobs (e.g., "a job where you are often required to make important decisions" vs. "a job with many pleasant people to work with"). For each item satisfaction is paired with a job having the potential for satisfying one of a variety of other needs. In the "would like" section, it assesses the strength one's needs for challenging work, new learning, being creative, personal development, and worthwhile accomplishment. Item scores are averaged to form the growth needs index (JCM scoring manual in Hackman and Oldham, 1980: 303-306). Appendix 3 provides a complete guide to this scale. A reliability test of this scale yielded a Cronbach alpha of .74 in this sample.

#### **6.4.11 Demographics**

The examination of the effects of simple demographic variables on employee attitudes and behaviour has been a long-standing tradition in organisational behaviour research (Schreiber, 1979). More specifically, demographic characteristics such as tenure, gender, education and job level have been discussed to be related to a variety of outcomes, such as social integration, attachment, reactions to job enriching interventions (Mobley *et al*, 1978; Feldman and Arnold, 1983 O'Reilly *et al*, 1989; Putti *et al*, 1989; Campion and McClelland, 1993). Since research has indicated that some personal factors may affect an individual's motivation outcome, this research assesses whether certain demographic variable would moderate the causal relationships between variables.

Subjects were asked to provide demographic data regarding their gender, marital status, age, tenure, education, job level, experience of cross departmental training or task assignment, income, department and so on. All the questions can be seen in Appendix 2. For the purpose of this study, the job levels within this organisation were categorised as general workers, supervisors and managers; departments were collapse into the five main categories of restaurant, kitchen, FO, HK, and administrative divisions.

#### **6.5 Conclusion**

This chapter discussed the conceptual framework, research design, sampling, and measures. A set of eight hypotheses (h1 to h8) pivoting on the hotel employee's perceived empowerment was set-up based on the objectives of the study, which are analysed in Chapter 8. Five hypotheses (h9 to h13) focused on the antecedents of the hotel employee's organisational commitment were proposed. The rationales of those hypotheses were explained in the conceptual framework section. Of the most importance, the empowerment and commitment scales has been factor analysed into three dimensions respectively. In addition to analysing the hypotheses proposed, Chapter 9 presents a table (Table 9.1) that profiles the variables studied on the basis

of the full sample and the five departments – restaurant, kitchen, front office, housekeeping, and administration.

Focused on work empowerment procedure, this table includes core job characteristics, contextual conditions, affective motivation outcomes in Hackman and Oldham's (1980) JDS, Spreitzer's psychological empowerment scale, and Porter's commitment scales. In analysing the objectives of this study, the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS 8.0 for Windows) was used in the data analytical chapters that follow.



## CHAPTER 7

### DATA ANALYSIS I: ANALYTICAL PROCEDURE AND RESULTS

#### 7.1 Introduction

This chapter outlines and discusses the first part of the data analysis. It will begin with a description of demographics obtained from 468 valid questionnaires, then turn to the main theme of this thesis. The hotel employee's perceived empowerment is the pivot of each following section, and will be assessed as an antecedent, consequence, and correlate. As a consequence, a set of motivating job characteristics will be linked to this psychological state. The purpose is to see whether job enrichment practices could really create conditions for higher perceived empowerment, and which job characteristic is the most predictive variable. Another set of variables specific to four contextual conditions is then included to discern the interactive effects of hotel job content and work context on the expected benefits resulting from each job characteristic.

As an antecedent, the hotel employee's perceived empowerment will be measured to see whether it could really give rise to better internal work motivation, job satisfaction, growth satisfaction, and organisational commitment. The predictive power of each empowerment dimension and will be discussed in detail. This is aimed to find out whether empowering hotel employees is crucial for a hotel's long-term success, or it is just a waste of the company's investment in empowering employees or a deceitful management gesture from the line employee's point of view.

Followed by the analyses of what are referred to as determiners and resulting benefits of work empowerment procedures in a hotel setting, this chapter will then turn to the investigation of the proposed knowledge/task enlargement designs. The purpose of this test is to compare the effects of the two types of job design on their resultant outcomes in terms of perceived empowerment, organisational commitment in internal work motivation. In addition, two analyses will seek to discern the additive effects of job characteristics on the hotel employee's empowerment, commitment and internal work motivation; one is the interplay between variety and autonomy,

and the other is the two-way interaction between autonomy and feedback. This chapter concludes with a hierarchical regression analysis of the hotel employee's perceived empowerment, in which job characteristics and contextual conditions are the first set of dependent variables. The demographic factors will then be entered in the regression model to identify their incremental effect on empowerment and the personal factors which may help in predicting hotel worker's likelihood to be empowered.

## **7.2 Demographics**

A total of 468 valid responses from full-time hotel employees were collected from November 1998 through February 1999 (Table 7.1). An examination of the data revealed that the respondents were relatively youthful. 236 (50.4 %) were under 30 years; the average age was 27. The frequency table reflects a typical composition of gender in the Taiwanese hotel industry; males accounted for 146 (31.4 %) of the sample size, and 322 (68.8 %) were females. Of these 468 respondents, marital status was almost evenly split between married (47.2 %) and single (52.8%). About 54 % of the employees had been with the company for less than 2 years, with the average tenure at about one year and eight months, but the range of years in service to their hotels was wide with 19 percent of the respondents having served over five years. Regarding education, 289 (61.8 %) had senior high school degrees or less, 89 (19.0 %) had two-year college degrees, 72 (15.4 %) graduated from university, and 18 (3.8 %) had graduate degrees. About half of them were earning a monthly income of at least 25,000 NTD (approximately 470 Pounds). With a reasonable representation to the proportion of Taiwanese tourist hotel labour force, 216 (46.2 %) of the respondents were assigned to Food and Beverage (restaurant and kitchen), 169 (36.1%) were to Rooms division (front office and house keeping), and 83 (17.7%) were to administration division; comparing to 111,509 (50%): 65,763 (30%): 41,893 (19%) of the population respectively (Taiwan Tourism Bureau, 1997). Additionally, of this sample, approximately 63.9% (n = 298) of the employees were in operational position (also-called general workers in this study), 29.9 % (n = 140) were in supervisory positions, and 6.4% (n = 30) were middle-level managers. Finally, 181

(38.7%) reported having experience of work rotation in the service to their current companies.

**Table 7.1**  
**Respondent Profiles (n = 468)**

<b>Characteristic</b>	<b>Frequency</b>	<b>Percent</b>	<b>Cumulative Percent</b>
<b>Gender</b>			
Male	146	31.4	31.4
Female	322	68.8	100.0
<b>Marital status</b>			
Married	221	47.2	47.2
Single	247	52.8	100.0
<b>Age</b>			
Under 20	37	7.9	7.9
20-30	199	42.5	50.4
30-40	110	23.5	73.9
40-50	104	22.2	96.2
50-60	16	3.4	99.6
60 and over	2	.4	100.0
<b>Tenure</b>			
Under 3 months	26	5.6	5.6
3 months – 1 year	109	23.3	28.8
1 year – 2 year	118	25.2	54.1
2 year – 3 year	58	12.4	66.5
3 year – 5 year	68	14.5	81.0
5 year – 10 year	66	14.1	95.1
10 year and over	23	4.9	100.0
<b>Rotation between work unit experience</b>			
Yes	181	38.7	38.7
No	287	61.3	100.0
<b>Education level</b>			
Primary school	23	4.9	4.9
Jr. high school	70	15.0	19.9
Sr. high school	196	41.9	61.8
2 year collage	89	19.0	80.8
University	72	15.4	96.2
Graduate school	18	3.8	100.0
<b>Income (New Taiwan Dollar; approximate exchange rate in 1999 – NTD: Pound – 50:1)</b>			
Under 16,000 NTD	2	.4	.4
16,000 – under 20,000 NTD	59	12.6	13.0
20,000 – under 24,000 NTD	153	32.7	45.7
24,000 – under 28,000 NTD	93	19.9	65.6
28,000 – under 32,000 NTD	54	11.5	77.1
32,000 – under 36,000 NTD	36	7.7	84.8
36,000 NTD and over	71	15.2	100.0

<b>Departments</b>			
<b>F &amp; B</b>			
Restaurant	182	38.9	38.9
Kitchen	34	7.3	46.2
<b>Rooms</b>			
Front desk	66	14.1	60.3
House keeping	103	22.0	82.3
Administration	83	17.7	100.0
<b>Title</b>			
General Workers	298	63.7	63.7
Supervisors	140	29.9	93.6
Managers	30	6.4	100.0

### 7.3 Testing for hypothesis 1

**Hypothesis 1:** In a deluxe hotel, the motivating job characteristics (variety, identity, significance, autonomy, feedback from the jobs and agents, and dealing with others) could differently predict the employee's feelings of empowerment.

Hypothesis 1 is concerned with the relationship between the antecedents of seven job characteristics and three aspects of perceived empowerment in the hotel setting. To assess it, correlation (Pearson's  $r$ ) and linear regression were used in conjunction. The idea of correlation is one of the most important and basic in the elaboration of bivariate relationships. Measures of correlation indicate both the strength and the direction of the relationship between a pair of variables. As the scales for job characteristics and empowerment in this study are all Likert type (interval variables), Pearson's Product Moment Correlation coefficient, also referred to as Pearson's  $r$ , is used to provide the succinct assessments of the closeness of a relationship among pairs of variables (Bryman and Cramer, 1997).

Step two is to use regression to make predictions of likely values of the dependent variable. Although correlation and regression are closely connected, they serve different purpose. Correlation is concerned with the degrees of relationship between variables and regression with making predictions (Bryman and Cramer, 1997; Hair *et al*, 1998). To assess how well the job characteristics as a whole and each of them

individually could explain the dependent variables (the hotel employee's perceived empowerment), multiple regression models were conducted. This chapter uses three technical terms in the regression analyses; they are standardised regression coefficient or beta weight ( $\beta$ ), multiple coefficient of determination ( $R^2$ ), and  $F$  ratio. Standardised regression coefficients ( $\beta$ ) in a regression equation employ the same standard of measurement and therefore can be compared to determine which of two or more independent variables is the more important in relation to the dependent variable.

One of the questions that researchers ask is how well the independent variables (job characteristics in this test) explain the dependent variable (the feelings of empowerment here). Multiple coefficient of determination ( $R^2$ ) is a measure of the collective effect of all of the independent variables upon the dependent variable. For example, in a regression analysis, which will be discussed again later, the seven job characteristics were tested as independent variables and meaningfulness as a dependent variable. The resultant  $R^2$  value for the equation as a whole is 0.22, implying that 22 percent of the variance in meaningfulness is explained by the seven job characteristics variables in the equation. However, the magnitude of  $R^2$  is bound to be inflated by the number of independent variables associated with the regression equation. Hence, behaviour literature would use adjusted  $R^2$ , which can be easily computed through SPSS, instead. The adjusted  $R^2$  corrected for the inflation by adjusting the level of  $R^2$  to take account of the number of independent variables.

The  $F$  ratio test generated by SPSS is based on the multiple correlation ( $R$ ) for the regression analysis. The multiple correlation, which is the square root of the coefficient of determination, expresses the correlation between the dependent variable and all of the independent variables collectively. The  $F$  ratio test allows us to test the null hypotheses that the multiple correlation ( $R$ ) is zero in the population from which the sample was taken. For example, if  $F = 40.80$  and the significance level is 0.0000 (expressed as  $p < .001$ ), this suggests that it is improbable that  $R$  in the population is zero.

**Table 7.2 Means, Standard Deviations, Reliabilities, and Correlations: Job Characteristics and Feelings of Empowerment**

	Mean	SD	$\alpha$	Zero-order correlation														
				1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11				
1 Variety	3.73	1.31	.58															
2 Identity	4.78	1.16	.56	.31***														
3 Significance	4.19	1.32	.43	.40***	.30***													
4 Autonomy	4.33	1.13	.50	.33***	.46***	.19***												
5 Feedback from job	4.89	1.03	.51	.30***	.41***	.27***	.29***											
6 Dealing with others	5.54	1.1	.41	.26***	.23***	.30***	.19***	.18***										
7 Feedback from agents	4.75	1.13	.65	.15**	.43***	.21***	.25***	.27***	.18***									
8 Perceived control <sup>a</sup>	4.59	1.07	.80	.24***	.28***	.13**	.30***	.21***	.03	.07								
9 Self-efficacy	5.37	.83	.70	.07	.12**	.10*	.01	.25***	.14**	-.07								
10 Meaningfulness	4.86	1.08	.76	.34***	.28***	.32***	.32***	.17***	.21***	.27***								
11 Overall job characteristics <sup>b</sup>	4.60	.73	.73	.65***	.71***	.64***	.61***	.61***	.53***	.56***	.29***	.14**	.45***					
12 Overall empowerment <sup>c</sup>	4.92	.81	.85	.38***	.40***	.31***	.39***	.36***	.20***	.15***	.69***	.50***	.50***	.51***				

<sup>a</sup>Factor scores with varimax rotation, intercorrelations between these three empowerment scores should not be obtained (Bryman and Cramer, 1997).

<sup>b</sup>The average of the seven job characteristic subscales

<sup>c</sup>The average of the 12 empowerment items

Significance level (2-tailed)

\* $p < .05$

\*\* $p < .01$

\*\*\* $p < .001$

Table 7.2 shows the descriptive statistics, scale reliabilities, and correlation matrix for the motivating core job characteristics and empowerment. As can be seen, the highest mean score of the motivating job characteristics was that for dealing with others, suggesting that most employees felt their jobs involving high contact with co-workers and customers. Of the characteristics, skill variety, with the mean of 3.73 and standard deviation of 1.31, had the lowest mean score. It shows that the Taiwanese hotel industry tends to arrange jobs in the paradigm of simplification and specialisation, and is less concerned with enlarging jobs for new learning and career development.

The results of zero-order correlation coefficients indicate that strong, positive relationships exist between most of the job characteristics and dimensions of hotel employees' perceived empowerment in terms of their feelings of control, self-efficacy, and meaningfulness. However, feedback from others was not correlated with perceived control ( $r = .07, p = .10$ ) and self-efficacy ( $r = -.07, p = .09$ ). The insignificant or even negative (but not significant) links between these three variables were indeed surprising. The hotel workers do not see the increase in feedback as related to their feelings of self-efficacy and control. The study reviews that, at least, typical feedback in the Taiwanese hotel industry is not empowering; at most, it might be detrimental to the feelings of empowerment. It is also possible that the type of feedback they have received is not constructive or encouraging enough.

Although the intercorrelations for several of the indicators of job characteristics were significant, they were not so large as to raise issues of conceptual overlap. According to Bryman and Cramer (1997), the Pearson's  $r$  between each pair of independent variables (the seven job characteristics in this case) should not exceed 0.80; otherwise the independent variables that show a relationship at or in excess of 0.80 may be suspected of exhibiting *multicollinearity*. Multicollinearity is usually regarded as a problem because it means that the regression coefficients may be unstable. This implies that they are likely to be subject to considerable variability from sample to sample. If any pair of job characteristics (independent variables) should be highly correlated, this study would not treat them as separated entities.

**Table 7.3 Full Sample Analyses: Job Characteristics Regressed on Dimensions of Perceived Empowerment**

	Dimensions of psychological empowerment			
	Overall empowerment	Control	Efficacy	Meaningfulness
Job characteristics	$\beta$	$\beta$	$\beta$	$\beta$
Variety	.16***	.12*	-.03	.17***
Identity	.19***	.16**	.11*	.03
Significance	.12**	.01	.03	.17***
Autonomy	.19***	.20***	-.08	.18***
Feedback from job	.16***	.07	.26***	-.04
Dealing with others	.02	-.08	.12*	.04
Feedback from agents	-.07	-.07	-.20***	.15**
Adjusted $R^2$	.29	.13	.10	.22
Overall $F$	29.17***	11.44***	8.66***	20.09***
Significance level (2-tailed)				
* $p < .05$				
** $p < .01$				
*** $p < .001$				

Table 7.3 presents the results of four different multiple regression analyses, where job characteristics are independent variables and feelings of control, self-efficacy, meaningfulness, and overall perceived empowerment are dependent variables. The purpose of the analyses was to examine the degree to which variety, identity, significance, feedback (from job and agents), autonomy, and dealing with others explained employee feelings of control, self-efficacy, meaningfulness, and the overall cognitive empowerment. The overall  $F$ -values ( $p \leq .001$ ) for each of the four regression analyses support the first hypothesis that the enriched jobs provide a significant explanation for variation in the experienced empowerment, and the job characteristics differentially affect the four aspects of empowerment. The variance in overall feelings of empowerment and the dimensions of empowerment explained by the job characteristics (adjusted  $R^2$ ) ranged between 10-29 percent (overall empowerment, 29%; control, 13%; self-efficacy, 10; meaningfulness, 22%). The results indicated that the set of job enriching interventions had pronounced effect on the cognition of empowerment. Of the three dimensions, the variance of meaningfulness was best explained by the enriched job characteristics (adjusted  $R^2 = .22$ ), which is consistent with Herzberg's (1968) argument that job enriching



practices, either to increase the components of “doing” or “controlling”, must be referred to as meaningful by the employee first. As a whole, then, job enrichment is empowering for hotel employees.

### **The individual impacts of job characteristics upon overall psychological empowerment**

Table 7.3 also supports the proposition that job characteristics are likely to have varying relations with the multiple aspects of empowerment. The overall cognition of empowerment was significantly positively associated with variety ( $\beta = .16, p < .001$ ), identity ( $\beta = .19, p < .001$ ), significance ( $\beta = .12, p < .01$ ), autonomy ( $\beta = .19, p < .001$ ), and having a job that provides inherent feedback ( $\beta = .16, p < .001$ ). Comparing the standardised regression coefficients ( $\beta$ ) in the overall empowerment model reveals autonomy support and task identity to have the largest effect on the cognition of empowerment, which indicates that the autonomous and identifiable job design have better effects upon the hotel employee’s empowerment than the rest of the job characteristics. Of the independent variables, dealing with others and feedback from agents were not significant predictors of empowerment.

**The individual impacts of job characteristics upon feelings of control:** Feelings of control were significantly positively associated with skill variety ( $\beta = .12, p < .05$ ), having a job that provides an identifiable piece of work ( $\beta = .16, p < .01$ ), and having autonomy support ( $\beta = .20, p < .001$ ). It is unrelated to task significance, feedback from the job itself, dealing with others, and feedback from others.

**The individual impacts of job characteristics upon feelings of efficacy:** Feelings of self-efficacy were significantly associated with having an identifiable whole piece of work ( $\beta = .11, p < .05$ ) and having a job that provides inherent feedback ( $\beta = .26, p < .001$ ). Unexpectedly, the cognition of efficacy was however significantly negatively associated with receiving feedback from others ( $\beta = .20, p < .001$ ).

**The individual impacts of job characteristics upon feelings of meaningfulness:** Feelings of meaningfulness were significantly positively associated with skill variety

( $\beta = .17, p < .001$ ), task significance ( $\beta = .17, p < .001$ ), autonomy support ( $\beta = .18, p < .001$ ), and feedback from others ( $\beta = .15, p < .001$ ).

### **Summary**

In summary, the results of hypothesis 1 supported the proximity of the set of job characteristics to hotel workers' empowerment. It was demonstrated that these classical motivating interventions were energising and empowering in the hotel industry. When present simultaneously, variety, identity, significance, autonomy support, and the inherent feedback from doing the job contribute to a positive psychological state for the hotel employee. In the labour intensive hotel setting, service workers are in constant contact with others. More opportunities to deal with others does not improve the feelings of empowerment; perhaps, getting involved (autonomy, variety, significance, identity, and feedback from jobs) is much more important than simply getting along (dealing with others).

The regression analyses revealed that different motivating core job characteristics were predictive of different aspects of empowerment. Skill variety, task significance, autonomy support, and feedback from others were a set of predictors of meaningfulness. Variety, identity, and autonomy support could collectively improve the feelings of control. As to the feelings of self-efficacy, the identifiable peace of work and the inherent feedback from doing the job would increase the perceived competence. Nevertheless, although feedback from others is positively related to perceived meaningfulness, the negative relationship obtained between feedback from others and self-efficacy was indeed quite surprising. Since the feedback technique has been a complicated issue in management literature (Ilgen, *et al*, 1979; Bandura and Cervone, 1983; Fedor, Eder and Buckley, 1989; Baker and Buckley, 1996). Ilgen *et al*, (1979: 350) defined feedback as:

...a special case of the general communications process in which some sender conveys a message to a recipient. In the case of feedback, the message comprised information about the recipient. The recipient's perception of the feedback and response to it depends upon his or her

personal characteristics, the nature of the message, and characteristics of the source of feedback.

In addition, Ilgen *et al* (1979) suggest that feedback should have a directional function, informing the recipient of expected behaviour, and a motivational function, communicating information about the connection between behaviour and rewards. In this sense, the received information from feedback would be perceived as meaningful since it could eventually be related to different types of rewards. On the other hand, Ilgen *et al* (1979) also suggest that individuals will ignore negative feedback if it is inconsistent with their perceived abilities. In other words, negative feedback will be less effective than positive feedback when it is inconsistent with an individual's perceived ability. It is likely that the externally generated feedback in the hotels studied is perceived as informative and related to the resultant rewards, and, thus, meaningful. At the same time, the way the feedback is provided might not be positive or appreciative enough; thus its intended positive impact on the employee's perceived empowerment is attenuated.

#### **7.4 Testing for hypothesis 2**

The study's second objective aims to clarify whether psychologically empowered hotel workers have better affective outcomes, as opposed to those who feel powerless. Holding a behaviourist perspective, the consequent work attitudes and performance usually concern the employee's internal work motivation, general job satisfaction, and growth needs satisfaction (Hackman and Oldham, 1980). These three variables were treated as dependent variables in relation to the multidimensional empowerment construct.

**Hypothesis 2:** hotel employees' perceptions of empowerment will account for a significant proportion of the variance in their reported levels of perceived internal work motivation, general job satisfaction, and growth needs satisfaction.

**Table 7.4 Means, Standard Deviations, Reliabilities, and Correlations: Aspects of Perceived Empowerment and Affective Outcomes**

	Mean	SD	<i>a</i>	Zero-order correlation			
				1 <sup>a</sup>	2	3	4
1 Internal motivation	5.21	.82	.63				
2 General satisfaction	4.66	.93	.68	.21***			
3 Growth satisfaction	4.75	1.04	.79	.29***	.57***		
4 Overall perceived empowerment <sup>b</sup>	4.92	.81	.85	.24***	.42***	.47***	
5 Feelings of control <sup>c</sup>	4.59	1.07	.80	-.02	.17***	.25***	.69***
6 Feelings of self-efficacy	5.37	.83	.70	.17***	.08	.05	.50***
7 Feelings of meaningfulness	4.86	1.08	.76	.33***	.51***	.53***	.50***

<sup>a</sup>1: Internal work motivation; 2: General satisfaction; 3: Growth satisfaction; 4: overall cognitive empowerment.

<sup>b</sup>The average of 12 empowerment items.

<sup>c</sup>Factor scores analysed by using a principal component method, varimax rotation; intercorrelations between the three empowerment scores should not be obtained (Bryman and Cramer, 1997).

Significance level (2-tailed)

\* $p < .05$

\*\* $p < .01$

\*\*\* $p < .001$

The means, standard deviations, alpha coefficients, and correlations among the modelled variables are presented in Table 7.4. As can be seen, all reliabilities are within ranges deemed acceptable for basic research (Hair *et al.*, 1998). The overall feelings of empowerment were significantly correlated with internal work motivation ( $r = .24, p \leq .001$ ), general job satisfaction ( $r = .42, p \leq .001$ ), and growth needs satisfaction ( $r = .47, p \leq .001$ ). It is worth noting that the three affective outcomes are significantly correlated. It suggests that hotel employees' job satisfaction is associated with internal work motivation ( $r = .21, p \leq .001$ ); in other words, a satisfied hotel worker has better intrinsic work motivation which could lead to initiative, flexibility, creativity, resiliency, self-regulation, concentration (Thomas and Velthouse, 1990). It also reveals that the growth needs satisfaction was linked to higher work motivation in this sample ( $r = .29, p \leq .001$ ). At the same time, 32.4 percent of the variance was shared by job satisfaction and growth needs satisfaction ( $r = .47, p \leq .001$ ). Taiwanese hotel workers value the

growth opportunities, which is consistent with the motivation studies of Hong Kong and North American hotel workers in which the employees rated opportunities for advancement and development the most important and the third most important motivation factor respectively (Simon and Enz, 1995; Siu *et al*, 1997).

**Table 7.5 Full Sample Regression Analyses: Dimensions of Experienced Empowerment Regressed on Affective Outcomes**

	Dependent Variables		
	Internal work motivation	General satisfaction	Growth satisfaction
Empowerment Variables	$\beta$	$\beta$	$\beta$
Feelings of control	-.02	.17***	.25***
Feelings of self-efficacy	.17***	.08*	.05
Feelings of meaningfulness	.33***	.51***	.53***
Adjusted R2	.14	.29	.34
Overall <i>F</i>	26.25***	67.16***	83.95***

Significance level (2-tailed)

\* $p < .05$

\*\* $p < .01$

\*\*\* $p < .001$

Table 7.5 presents the results of three different multiple regression analyses. In each model, the dependent variable was regressed on the three dimensions of perceived employee empowerment. The purpose of the analyses was to examine the degree to which meaning, control, and self-efficacy explained employee perceptions of satisfaction, level of intrinsic motivation, and growth needs satisfaction. The overall *F*-values for each of the three regression analyses support the second hypothesis that the dimensions of empowerment collectively provide a significant explanation for variation in intrinsic work motivation ( $F = 26.25, p \leq .001$ ), general job satisfaction ( $F = 67.16, p \leq .001$ ), and growth needs satisfaction ( $F = 83.95, p \leq .001$ ).

The adjusted multiple coefficient of determination (adjusted  $R^2$ ) of each regression model presents the relative strength of the perceived empowerment that alters how the hotel employee views the job in terms of the three affective outcomes (Table 7.5). The greatest degree of variance explained by empowerment was found in the

models that examined the growth satisfaction (Adjusted  $R^2 = .34$ ), and then general job satisfaction (Adjusted  $R^2 = .29$ ). In comparison with the other two outcomes, a smaller, but still pronounced, amount of explanatory power is found when predicting the level of internal work motivation (Adjusted  $R^2 = .14$ ). The three models indeed reflect the behaviourists' notion that empowerment is expected to have a great effect on work attitudes (Deci and Ryan, 1987; Ashforth, 1989; Thomas and Velthouse, 1990). While intrinsic motivation is regarded as the proximity of performance (Staw, 1984), the hotel employee's perceptions of empowerment will more positively and significantly affect perceived job satisfaction and growth needs satisfaction than inherent drive for work performance and the level of service delivery.

Examination of the beta weights ( $\beta$ , or standardised regression coefficient) as shown in Table 7.5 offers insight into which dimensions of empowerment offer the greatest predictive strength. Meaningfulness is the most critical dimension of empowerment when explaining intrinsic motivation, general job satisfaction, and growth satisfaction. Perceived self-efficacy is a significant predictor of motivation and general satisfaction, but not growth satisfaction. Perceived control is a significant predictor of general satisfaction and growth satisfaction, but not intrinsic motivation.

### **Summary**

In conclusion, the tests of hypothesis two demonstrate that multidimensional empowerment collectively correlates with the dependent variables. In conjunction with the support for hypothesis one (that the motivating job characteristics do have a positive effect on an individual's psychological state), enriched job design is empowering and could reduce the hotel employee's feelings of powerlessness, and in turn contribute to affective motivation outcomes. This proposition can, in part, be supported by the larger variance of psychological empowerment which is explained by the set of job characteristics ( $R = .298, p < .001$ ; see Table 7.6) rather than that of internal motivation ( $R = .213, p < .001$ ). Table 7.6 reminds us that some enriching interventions *per se* might not be motivating as many empowerment researchers have proposed, unless they are perceived as empowering (meaningful, controlling, and self-efficacious). For example, in the analysis of enriching interventions directly

regressed on the hotel employee's internal work motivation (Table 7.6), merely providing autonomy did not improve intrinsic motivation, and requiring a wider variety of tasks could be related to work motivation in a negative manner. This finding suggests that hospitality empowerment research should adopt a behavioural and social psychology paradigm (Thomas and Velthouse, 1990; Gagné, Senécal and Koestner, 1997), using internal processes to help explain service workers' behaviour. In order to enhance cognitive empowerment, which in turn generates intrinsic motivation, Thomas and Velthouse (1990) suggest changing the environment or altering one's interpretations of the environment (the process of task assessment). Job design, such as the job characteristics studied here, are an instance of the first type of change. In this vein, Hackman and Oldham (1975, 1980) propose concrete interventions intended to increase levels of the desirable job characteristics. The various dimensions of empowerment then mediate the relationship between job characteristics, such as skill variety and autonomy support, and intrinsic motivation and job satisfaction at work.

**Table 7.6 The Prediction and Collective Effect of Job Characteristics upon the Cognition of Empowerment and Internal Work Motivation**

	Cognitive empowerment	Internal motivation
Motivating job characteristics	$\beta$	$\beta$
Variety	.16***	-.11*
Identity	.19***	.09
Significance	.12**	.02
Autonomy support	.19***	-.02
Feedback from job	.16***	.11*
Dealing with others	.02	.33***
Feedback from agents	-.07	.19***
Adjusted $R^2$	.29	.21
$F$	29.17***	18.99***

Significance level (2-tailed)

\* $p < .05$

\*\* $p < .01$

\*\*\* $p < .001$

### 7.5 Testing for hypothesis 3

The third hypothesis proposed is as follows:

**Hypothesis 3:** Four contextual characteristics (job security, pay satisfaction, constructive supervision, supportive peers and the summary index of contextual factors) in a hotel moderate the proposed causal relationships between motivating job characteristics and the employee's experienced empowerment as well as their internal work motivation.

It was predicted that the contextual factors would moderate the relationships between job characteristics and hotel workers' cognition of empowerment as well as their internal work motivation. Specifically, hotel employees who perceive their supervision quality, peer relationships, pay, and job security as constrictive and fair should evolve greater perceived empowerment and elicit higher intrinsic motivation when working on enriched jobs than individuals dissatisfied with these contextual factors.

To test this prediction, hotel employees in the top and bottom quartiles on each of the context measures and the summary index of contextual factors, which consists of the average of the scores obtained from the four scales measuring specific aspects of the work context described above, were identified (Table 7.7). Correlations were then computed separately between the overall job characteristics scale and empowerment as well as internal work motivation scales for these groups. For each relationship tested, it was predicted that the correlation would be higher for individuals high in contextual scores than for employee who are relatively low in the work contextual scores.

**Table 7.7 Frequencies Statistics**

	Overall contextual factors	Supervision	Co-workers	Pay	Job security
Percentiles 25	3.9583	4.0000	5.0000	3.0000	3.5000
50	4.5000	4.6667	5.3333	4.0000	4.0000
75	5.2083	5.6667	6.0006	5.0000	5.5000



**Table 7.7.1 Relationships between Motivating Potential Score and Outcome Measures as Moderated by Satisfaction with Constructive Contextual Factors**

Outcome	Overall contextual factors <sup>a</sup>		Supervision <sup>b</sup>		Co-workers <sup>c</sup>		Job security <sup>d</sup>		Pay <sup>e</sup>				
	Low	High	z <sup>f</sup>	Low	High	z	Low	High	z	Low	High	z	
Empowerment	.40***	.45***	.47	.39***	.40***	.06	.34***	.49***	.53***	.41	.46***	.67***	2.06
Internal work motivation	.09	.36***	2.18	.09	.45***	2.71	.10	.15	.34**	1.35	.08	.35**	1.94

<sup>a</sup>ns = 112 and 119 respectively, in the low and high quartiles: ns are unequal because of tied scores.

<sup>b</sup>ns = 97 and 99 respectively, in the low and high quartiles: ns are unequal because of tied scores.

<sup>c</sup>ns = 113 and 49 respectively, in the low and high quartiles: ns are unequal because of tied scores.

<sup>d</sup>ns = 96 and 79 respectively, in the low and high quartiles: ns are unequal because of tied scores.

<sup>e</sup>ns = 104 and 83 respectively, in the low and high quartiles: ns are unequal because of tied scores.

<sup>f</sup>Refers to the significance of the difference between rs; z above 1.96 is significant at .05 2-tailed level.

Significance level (2-tailed)

\* $p < .05$

\*\* $p < .01$

\*\*\* $p < .001$

Results shown in Table 7.7.1 provide some support for the hypothesis. For each measure (each of the four context measures as well as the summary index of contextual scale), the differences between the correlation coefficients for individuals satisfied with the contextual factors and those dissatisfied with the work context were in the predicted direction. Additionally, all relationships between motivating job scope and the outcome measures for hotel employees satisfied with the work context are positive and significant. In the test of perceived empowerment, for one outcome measure (i.e., pay,  $z = 2.06$ ), the difference between correlation is significant. In the test of internal work motivation, for two outcome measures (i.e., overall contextual factors,  $z = 2.184$ ; supervision,  $z = 2.715$ ), the difference between correlations are significant.

### **Summary**

The result of this hypothesis test is relatively straightforward. These four contextual factors affect the hotel employee's task assessment procedure. Hotel employees tend to respond more positively to complex, challenging work when they are working in a constructive work climate. It suggests that prior to various job enriching practices, such as, job enlargement, job enrichment, layering (Lashley, 1999) and functional flexibility (Wood, 1997), practitioners should carefully assess contextual sources of dissatisfaction. If employees are found to be substantially dissatisfied with pay, co-workers, supervisor, or security, then implementation of job design should be done with caution – and perhaps should be delayed until the senior managers create a constructive organisation climate and culture (Schneider *et al*, 1994).

Essentially, hypothesis three is reminiscent of many empowerment notions in either qualitative or quantitative studies, in that it argues that work systems must be substantially in congruence with one another for job improvement to have the intended beneficial effects. The findings extend and add specificity to the general implications of the existing empowerment research, however, in three ways. First, this study replicates the procedure applied in classical work redesign research by splitting participants into two groups based on the moderators of interest (Oldham, Hackman and Pierce, 1976; Stone, 1976); correlations between job characteristics

and perceived empowerment are then calculated and compared across groups. In the present study, the subgroup analysis was used to explore whether the four situational variables, varying across organisations, could influence the magnitude of correlation between job characteristics and the feelings of empowerment as well as internal work motivation. The premise behind it is Quinn and Spreitzer's concept of organic empowerment (1997) which states that the intended benefits of mechanistic job enrichment practices are boosted in the presence of the constructive environmental factors. The implication of the findings suggests that practitioners should analyse the interpersonal and remunerative conditions in the organisation prior to and after making substantive empowerment changes in jobs. If poor interpersonal conditions are detected, job enrichment change agents should consider actions to improve the interpersonal skills and competence of those employees whose jobs are to be changed as well as the individuals they are most likely to interact with. Improving levels of interpersonal competence should help employees deal with more interpersonal conflicts and reap more satisfactions out of their work. On the other hand, satisfied remuneration and job dependability should also encourage employees to accept enriched jobs.

Second, the results obtained from the testing for moderated relationships are consistent with the propositions proclaimed in research on social political supports (Spreitzer, 1996), organisational culture (Sparrowe, 1994; Schneider *et al*, 1994) and organisational internal relationships (Corsun and Enz, 1999). It also quantitatively justifies and specifies some propositions from Lashley's (1999) and Hales and Klidas' (1998) qualitative empowerment studies in spite of a slight difference in the operational definitions. In this case, the four specific aspects of the work context are demonstrably important if job improvement is to lead to improved work outcomes.

Finally, the analysis framework of this section is a contingency approach to hotel employee empowerment and work motivation. This study is structured to focus on hotel employee's internal empowerment procedures in response to the empowering task characteristics and contextual variables, as is the combination of content (e.g., motivator-hygiene) and process (e.g., expectancy) motivation theories. In hypothesis

one and two, management practices that enlarge tasks (variety, identity), provide information (feedback from the job) and increase discretion (autonomy) are intended to give employees an empowered state of mind, which moderates the relationship between objective management practices and affective outcomes. However, the key contingencies that should govern this model and make it more valid are the four environmental moderators in the current study's framework.

#### 7.6 Testing for hypothesis 4

The hypothesis proposed here is as follows:

**Hypothesis 4:** Hotel employees' perceived empowerment can significantly predict the level of attitudinal commitment in a positive manner. Further, these two constructs are reciprocal, so they are significantly correlated.

A two-stage of intercorrelation analysis was performed to examine the proposed hypothesis. In the first step, Pearson correlations (Pearson's  $r$ ) were computed between the global measure of empowerment and commitment as well as their sub-dimensions. In the second step, correlations were calculated between each empowerment dimension and the summary commitment scale as well as commitment subscales. The results are presented in Table 7.8.

As can be seen in the overall empowerment column (Table 7.8), the global measure of empowerment indicates a strong correlation with the summary indicator of commitment (Pearson's  $r = .56, p \leq .01$ ) and three commitment sub-dimensions. Empowerment showed slightly better correlation with affective commitment (Pearson's  $r = .45, p \leq .01$ ) than with value congruence (Pearson's  $r = .30, p \leq .01$ ) and loyalty (Pearson's  $r = .25, p \leq .01$ ).

**Table 7.8 Correlation Coefficients between Feelings of Empowerment and Commitment Variables**

Empowerment Commitment	Overall empowerment	Dimensions of organisational commitment		
		Control	efficacy	Meaningful- ness
Summary Indicator of commitment	.56***	.27***	.14**	.59***
Value congruence	.30***	.14**	-.02	.43***
Affective commitment	.45***	.24***	.22***	.33***
Loyalty	.25***	.06	.17***	.24***

Significance level (2-tailed)

\* $p < .05$

\*\* $p < .01$

\*\*\* $p < .001$

As far as the three empowerment dimensions are concerned, meaningfulness showed a better correlation with the summary organisational commitment ( $r = .59, p \leq .001$ ) than the other empowerment aspects. Positive relationships exist between the meaningfulness and value congruence ( $r = .43, p \leq .001$ ), affective commitment ( $r = .33, p \leq .001$ ), and loyalty ( $r = .24, p \leq .001$ ). Except for the intention to remain with the organisation, feelings of control are significantly associated with commitment ( $r = .27, p \leq .001$ ) and its sub-dimensions – value congruence ( $r = .14, p \leq .01$ ), and affective commitment ( $r = .24, p \leq .001$ ). The cognition of efficacy is related with the summary indicator of commitment ( $r = .14, p \leq .001$ ), affective commitment ( $r = .22, p \leq .001$ ) and loyalty ( $r = .17, p \leq .001$ ); it is unrelated to the value congruence.

Once again, the analyses of three aspects of empowerment result in an unequivocal support of what is argued in the literature review, meaningfulness is synonymous with value congruence. Further, the convergence of these two concepts will motivate the hotel employee to put extra-efforts into the job and believe that it is worth remaining with the hotel. In general, the intercorrelation tests also confirm that control and efficacy are the ingredients of the employee's attachment to the job although nearly no variance, represented in this sample, was shared by control and loyalty, and by efficacy and value congruence.

Four regression analyses were performed to further examine the impact of the scales of empowerment on commitment (Table 7.9). The first regression model is to explore the degree to which meaning, self-efficacy, and control explain the summary indicator of commitment in this sample. The other three are to identify how well each commitment aspect could be predicted by the empowered feelings. All four models were significant ( $p < .001$ ). Almost half of the variance of the summary commitment could be predicted by the hotel employee's perceived empowerment (Adjusted  $R^2 = .44$ ,  $p < .001$ ). Of the three regression on the commitment aspects, value congruence, and affective commitment were best explained by empowerment variables (Adjusted  $R^2 = .20$ ,  $p < .001$ ; Adjusted  $R^2 = .21$ ,  $p < .001$ ). The smallest amount of explanatory power is found when predicting levels of loyalty (Adjusted  $R^2 = .08$ ).

**Table 7.9 Full Sample Regression Analysis: Dimensions of Cognitive Empowerment Regressed on Multidimensional Organisational Commitment**

Empowerment Variables	Summary indicator of commitment $\beta$	Dimensions of Organisational Commitment		
		Value congruence $\beta$	Affective commitment $\beta$	Loyalty $\beta$
Control	.27***	.14***	.24***	.06
Efficacy	.14***	-.02	.22***	.17***
Meaningfulness	.59***	.43***	.33***	.24***
Adjusted $R^2$	.44	.20	.21	.08
$F$	125.28***	40.80***	43.87***	15.79***

Significance level (2-tailed)

\* $p < .05$

\*\* $p < .01$

\*\*\* $p < .001$

Examination of the beta weight, as shown in Table 7.9, offers insight into which dimensions of empowerment offer the greatest predictive strength. In the model of global commitment, meaningfulness has the largest effect on organisational commitment. Control was the second most important predictor variable in the model, and efficacy was the third.

In each model of commitment dimensions, meaningfulness is the most critical dimension of empowerment when explaining value congruence, affective commitment and loyalty. Control and efficacy are equally significant predictors of affective commitment. Control is a predictor of value congruence, but not of loyalty. Efficacy is a predictor of loyalty, but not of value congruence.

### **Summary**

The data reported above overwhelmingly supports the proposed hypothesis that the hotel employee's organisational commitment is greater when perceptions of experienced empowerment exist. These significant relationships hold for each of three dimensions of commitment – value congruence, affective commitment, and loyalty. The results are consistent with theoretical models of cognitive empowerment and commitment formation as well as existing empirical evidence.

Three major findings emerge from the above analyses. First, perceived empowerment has a greater effect on the hotel employee's willingness to perform beyond the call of duty and establishing shared vision, but has a lesser degree of influence on intention to remain. These observations suggest that perceiving oneself as empowered is positively linked to the culture of service excellence and cohesive work groups, but is not as strongly linked to labour mobility. Empowerment may shape the hotel employee's attitude towards work and group norms, but not profoundly contribute to employee loyalty.

Second, meaningfulness is the strongest of the empowerment variables suggesting that when employees find a fit between their values and the organisation's goals they are more likely to be loyal and service oriented. The values-to-goals fit is clearly more important than self-efficacy (i.e., the confidence in their ability to perform the task well). The implication of this finding is that efforts to establish work goals that support employee values will most likely elicit positive employee involvement. Put simply, customer service and work climate itself may improve when employees perform jobs they find meaningful. Permitting employees to perform jobs that they

can master, but which do not fit with their own values will not elicit the same degree of positive outcomes.

Perceiving oneself to have control is the second important factor in shaping organisational commitment. Being able to have a sense of self-determination and influence on decision-making are critical in eliciting extra-role behaviour and identifying with organisational goals and values. When the job provides substantial control to the hotel workers performing it, work outcomes will be viewed as depending substantially on their own efforts, initiatives, and decisions. They are likely, thereafter, to have a sense of ownership, and are more likely to share a common mission.

Feelings of self-efficacy are positively associated with overall attachment to the work environment, but it seems that self-efficacy does not have the motivational potential to elicit value identification. The largest sub-sample in this study constitutes non-managerial waiters and chambermaid, which reflects the population in the hotel industry, and the mastery in cleaning guestrooms or table setting and food delivery is not a sufficient condition for the fit of personal work values. In reflection on the tenets of a weak internal labour market, it is likely that self-efficacy is more attainable or has received more attention, as can be supported by the staffing flexibility conventionally adopted by the hospitality human resource management (Lockwood and Guerrier, 1989). If it were so difficult to learn the skills necessary to perform the chambermaid or waiting work activities, the hospitality industry would not be able to heavily utilise temporary, part-time and casual workers. Riley *et al* (1998: 161) have it:

The notion of skill specificity implies that those with specific skills have to bear the cost of being restricted to a small labour market. However, if those skills are easy to learn then their uniqueness losses its power to confine and the occupation takes its place in the larger unskilled and semi-skilled labour market. Riley (1991) shows that catering skills, including bar work, fall into this category.



If the employee sees that the job is relatively simple and repetitive, and he or she can master the skills easily, it might be less likely that mastery *per se* would be sufficient to lead to a fit of personal values and organisational values. This is one of the reasons why another hypothesis was proposed – knowledge enlargement is more motivating. When hotel employees are exposed to different departments, they have greater opportunities to learn more skills and knowledge required. Under the circumstances, it might be more likely to expect a stronger link between efficacy and value congruence.

The positive links of self-efficacy to affective commitment and loyalty indicate that developing a sense of competence in doing the job may pay dividends in the short term by increasing extra-role behaviour and in the long term by increasing employee retention. Is the significant link between efficacy and intention to remain contrary to Baum's conundrum? The answer might be "no", since attitudes are not perfectly linked to behaviour (Schneider, 1988). Intention to leave is not equivalent to actual turnover (Mobley *et al*, 1979; Michaels and Spector, 1982). Most people yearn for better income and opportunities, and they could still be lured by better offers they value (Hulin, Roznowski and Hachiya, 1985). Hence, too much emphasis on the ability of empowerment to reduce the actual turnover rate might result in unrealistic expectations in practice. However, at least, results from this study give us the confidence to say that increasing competence increases the "intention" to remain with the company.

To sum up, the findings from hypotheses 1 to hypothesis 4 offer an encouraging picture for the adoption of empowerment efforts in developing operational practices for hotel employees. Evidently, motivating job design and constructive work environment are empowering, and empowered employees have better attitudes towards work.

### 7.7 Testing for hypothesis 5:

The fifth hypothesis is as follows:

**Hypothesis 5:** In a hotel setting, adding varied tasks to those who have opportunities to rotate or get trained in different work units leads to better motivation outcomes than those who do not have. The outcomes are tested in terms of overall organisational commitment, overall perceived empowerment, and internal work motivation.

During the fieldwork, several managers were asked whether every employee could have equal opportunity to rotate or be trained in different work units. The answers indicated that the degree of education might be a predominant determining criterion for such an opportunity. In any case there should be other demographic factors that could also be significant predictors in discriminating such an opportunity. Therefore, hypothesis testing proceeded in two stages. The first step is called logistic regression analysis. This is aimed to identify the respondent characteristics, such as age, sex, marital status, education, income, position level, department, hotel type (city or resort) and the length of employment, that would be significant predictors of opportunity for interdepartmental experience. Five departments were categorised into front-of-the house and back-of-the house in the logistic regression model. The second step is similar to the procedure employed in the testing for hypothesis three (testing for moderated relationships), to analyse the relationships between variety and the set of motivation outcomes in two categories respectively (knowledge and task enlargement). The only difference is that the demographic variables identified in step one are controlled.

As shown in Table 7.10, primary logistic regression analysis indicates that the respondent education and hotel type are the demographic variables significantly correlated with the binary dependent variable (having rotation or not). Hotel workers, having higher degree of education, tend to have better opportunities to rotate in different work units. Resort hotels experience more obvious peaks and valleys in

occupancy throughout the year than city hotels (i.e., national holidays, summer and winter vacations, weekends) so it is reasonable that more functional flexibility is implemented in resort hotels. Once these two variables were identified, it was controlled in the following two sets of partial correlation analyses.

**Table 7.10 Full Sample Logistic Regression Analysis: Demographic Variables Regressed on Opportunity of Job Rotation**

Variables in the Equation							
Dependent variable	B	S.E.	Wald	df	Sig	R	Exp (B)
Sex	-.2218	.2428	.8345	1	.3610	.0000	.8011
Marital	.1068	.2892	.1364	1	.7119	.0000	1.1127
Age	.1046	.1484	.4965	1	.4810	.0000	1.1103
Tenure	-.1251	.0784	2.5473	1	.1105	-.0296	.8824
Education	-.4135	.1040	15.8205	1	.0001	-.1488	.6613
Income	.0741	.0972	.5811	1	.4459	.0000	1.0770
Hotel type <sup>a</sup>	-.8242	.2230	13.6571	1	.0002	-.1366	.4386
Department <sup>b</sup>	-.1869	.2400	.6063	1	.4362	.0000	.8296
Title	-.1340	.2154	.3866	1	.5341	.0000	.8746
Constant	3.5077	1.0949	10.2625	1	.0014		

<sup>a</sup>City or resort hotels

<sup>b</sup>Front-of-the-house or back-of-the-house

To test this prediction, hotel employees falling into the knowledge group and task enlargement group were identified. Partial correlations were then computed between the variety scale and the three outcome scales (cognitive empowerment, internal motivation, and organisation commitment) separately for these groups while education and hotel type variables were controlled constantly. For each relationship tested, it was predicted that the correlation would be higher for individuals in the knowledge group than for employee who are in the task enlargement group.

The results reported in Table 7.11 provide strong support for the hypothesis. All differences between correlations for knowledge enlargement and task enlargement employees are in the predicted direction. For two outcome measures (i.e., perceived empowerment,  $z = 3.493$ ; and internal motivation,  $z = 3.126$ ) the difference between

correlations is significant. For cognitive empowerment outcome measured, the partial correlation coefficients are .54 ( $p < .001$ ) for knowledge enlargement group and .27 ( $p < .001$ ) for task enlargement group respectively. Evidently, substantially stronger relationships are obtained between variety and empowered feelings in the knowledge enlargement group. As to internal motivation measures, there is a partial correlation coefficient between enlargement and work motivation of .23 ( $p < .01$ ) for the knowledge enlargement group; the relationships is negative (partial correlation coefficient = -.06) though not significant for the task enlargement individuals. The relationships between enlargement and internal motivation for the knowledge enlargement group are substantially stronger in magnitude than its counterpart. Finally, for the organisational commitment outcome measure, the correlation is significantly positive for both groups, but is greater for the knowledge enlargement individuals (partial correlation coefficient = .35,  $p < .001$ ) than the task enlargement group (partial correlation coefficient = .23,  $p < .001$ ).

**Table 7.11 Second-Order Correlation between Skill Variety Score and Motivation Outcomes (Perceived Empowerment, Internal Motivation, Commitment), Controlling for Degree of Education and Hotel Type Variables**

Outcome Measure	Skill Variety		$z^a$
	Knowledge enlargement Group	Task enlargement group	
Cognition of Empowerment	.54***	.27***	3.493
Organisation Commitment	.35***	.23***	1.369
Internal Motivation	.23**	-.06	3.126

Note.  $n = 178$  (with rotation) - 283 (without rotation) in each group

<sup>a</sup> Refers to the significance of the difference between  $r$ s;  $z$  above 1.96 is significant at .05 2-tailed level.

\* $p < .05$

\*\* $p < .01$

\*\*\* $p < .001$

## Summary

The results of this hypothesis are intriguing. Three major themes emerge from the analyses. First, strictly speaking, rotation is not a motivating job characteristic of job design because neither the nature of the task nor the method of working is restructured (Mullin, 1995). Also, it is not a characteristic of a constructive work environment because moving from one work unit to another does not necessarily mean that there is a change in terms of supervision style, peer relationships, pay, and job security. Nevertheless, when a hotel implements functional flexibility (e.g., skill variety), the interdepartmental arrangement can positively multiply the expected benefits of job enlargement, and contribute to better employee work attitudes.

Second, three causal relationships were hypothesised and structured in this section. The moderating effects of interdepartmental experience upon the three outcomes are substantial. The increase in variety for the task enlargement group would not lead to increased intrinsic work motivation. This finding, in fact, is not surprising at all. The difference between knowledge enlargement (variety along with interdepartmental knowledge) and task enlargement (variety without interdepartmental knowledge) is enlightening in that adding knowledge areas leads primarily to positive outcomes. Invoking the distinction between enlargement and enrichment (Herzberg, 1966) may help understand these results. Knowledge enlargement may be more like enrichment than task enlargement because it enhances the level of knowledge requirements as opposed to just enhancing the number of activities or new skills that could be mastered in a few days. Knowledge enlargement may add a higher level mental ability as opposed to more tasks of the same ability level (Campion and McClelland, 1993). It could also lead to the acquisition of additional skills, understanding and experience of the work of other departments, as should help the person to identify more with the total work of the hotel and with the complete delivery of service.

Finally, under the constraint of this research design, the results of this hypothesis should not be interpreted as direct causal relationships between interdepartmental experience and the three motivation outcomes. The interdepartmental experience, in

itself, sometimes might not be beneficial because as Mullins (1995: 268) notes “under normal circumstance (in the hospitality setting), job rotation is often positively resisted by some staff. If the tasks involved are all very similar and routine, then once the person is familiar with new tasks the work may quickly prove boring again”. Here, we can only say that enlarging knowledge about other work units is a catalyst that can facilitate and modify the direction of job enlargement intervention. Put simply, it is a moderator not an independent variable (predictor) in a quantitative term.

### **7.8 Testing for hypothesis 6 and 7:**

The following statement is hypothesis 6:

**Hypothesis 6:** For the hotel employee, there is two-way interaction between support for autonomy and feedback; thus, the presence of autonomy support can influence (and partly explain) the relationships of feedback to internal motivation, perceived empowerment, and organisational commitment. Likewise, the presence of feedback can influence (and partly explain) the relationships of autonomy to internal motivation, perceived empowerment, and organisational commitment.

Since the term feedback in the management literature usually includes feedback from the job and from others, these two types of feedback are included in the analysis. The premise behind hypothesis 6 is that in the domain of the mechanistic motivating job design, hotel practitioners should not selectively “confer” one or two of the enriching characteristics to workers as a tentative strategy or an act of expediency. Each of the characteristics is expected to support one another and should not be implemented independently. This hypothesis is to explore what would be the impact of amount of feedback in work on the perceived empowerment, commitment, and internal motivation when the hotel employee’s own discretion is not supported. Could the three outcome variables be determined solely by the interventions of feedback, or should autonomy design be considered in conjunction with this? By the same token,

working in an autonomy-supportive context, employees may need specific information regarding whether a standard was met, and information concerning the effectiveness of the work method used. To answer these questions, two multiple causation models were devised with partial correlation technique. The first partial correlation design examines the relationship between feedback and the outcome variables while holding the autonomy variable constant; the resulting correlation is known as a first-order correlation, and its coefficients are called partial correlation coefficients. At the same time, the original correlation, so-called zero-order correlation, is also computed without controlling for the autonomy variable. If the first-order correlation is considerably less than the zero-order correlation, the proposed hypothesis can then be held. The second partial correlation design examines the relationship between autonomy and the three outcome variables while controlling for two types of feedback. Since two variables are controlled in the second model, the resulting correlation is called second-order correlation, which is compared with its zero-order correlation.

The results of the first model reported in Table 7.12 provide moderated support for the hypothesis. All differences between each pair of coefficients are in the predicted direction. For the measure of the interplay between feedback from others, autonomy and empowerment, the zero-order correlation coefficient ( $r = .15, p < .01$ ) is substantially larger than its counterpart ( $r = .06$ ). When the influence of autonomy is controlled, receiving feedback from others is not related to perceived empowerment; when the influence of autonomy is taken into account, receiving feedback from others become significantly and positively associated with empowerment.

The results of the second model also support the hypothesis (Table 7.13). Obviously, each pair of the second-order correlation coefficients is considerably less than the comparable zero-order correlation coefficients. Also, autonomy support is hardly associated with internal motivation at all if the effects of feedback are controlled.

**Table 7.12 Correlating Feedback, Empowerment, Commitment and Internal Work Motivation (Partial Correlation Coefficients)**

Partial Correlation Coefficients					
Controlling for Autonomy					
	Feedback from job	Feedback from agents	Empowerment	Commitment	
Feedback from job	.21***				
Feedback from agents	.06				
Empowerment <sup>a</sup>	.17***	.22***	.49***		
Commitment <sup>b</sup>	.20***	.28***	.21***	.16***	
Internal motivation					

Zero-order Correlation Coefficients					
	Feedback from job	Feedback from agents	Empowerment	Commitment	Internal motivation
Feedback from job	.27***				
Feedback from agents	.36***	.15**			
Empowerment	.25***	.29***	.56***		
Commitment	.22***	.30***	.24***	.20***	
Internal motivation	.29***	.25***	.39***	.35***	.12**
Autonomy					

<sup>a</sup>Summary score of empowerment

<sup>b</sup>Summary indicator of commitment

Significance level (2-tailed)

\* $p < .05$  (2-tailed)

\*\* $p < .01$  (2-tailed)

\*\*\* $p < .001$  (2-tailed)



**Table 7.13 Correlating Autonomy Support, Empowerment, Commitment and Internal Work Motivation (Partial Correlation Coefficients)**

Partial Correlation Coefficients

Control for feedback from the job and from others

	Autonomy support	Empowerment	Commitment
Autonomy support			
Empowerment <sup>a</sup>	.31***		
Commitment <sup>b</sup>	.27***	.52***	
Internal motivation	.01	.16***	.09*

Zero-order Correlation Coefficients

	Autonomy support	Empowerment	Commitment	Internal motivation
Autonomy support				
Empowerment	.39***			
Commitment	.35***	.56***		
Internal motivation	.12**	.24***	.20***	
Feedback from the job	.29***	.36***	.25***	.22***
Feedback from others	.25***	.15**	.29***	.30***

<sup>a</sup>Summary score of empowerment

<sup>b</sup>Summary indicator of commitment

Significance level (2-tailed)

\* $p < .05$  (2-tailed)

\*\* $p < .01$  (2-tailed)

\*\*\* $p < .001$  (2-tailed)

The following statement is hypothesis 7:

**Hypothesis 7:** For the hotel employee, the degree of job variety will influence (and partly explain) the links of autonomy to internal motivation, empowerment, and commitment. Likewise, the relationships between skill variety and the three outcome variables are influenced by the presence of autonomy support.

The analytical procedure for hypothesis 7 is the same as that used in the testing for hypothesis 6. Two multiple causation models were devised to test this hypothesis. In the first model, the extent to which the presence of variety would influence the relationships between autonomy and the three outcome variables was examined. The second model is to assess the extent to which autonomy support influences the relationships between variety and the three outcomes. The results of the first and second model are presented in Table 7.14 and Table 7.15 respectively. All differences between each pair of coefficients are in the predicted direction; namely, the first-order correlation is less than the zero-order correlation. Thus, this hypothesis is fully supported.

**Table 7.14 Correlating Autonomy, Empowerment, Commitment and Internal Work Motivation (Partial Correlation Coefficients)**

Partial Correlation Coefficients  
Controlling for Variety

	Autonomy	Empowerment	Commitment
Autonomy			
Empowerment <sup>a</sup>	.30***		
Commitment <sup>b</sup>	.29***	.52***	
Internal motivation <sup>c</sup>	.11*	.23***	.19***

Zero-order Correlation Coefficients

	Autonomy	Empowerment	Commitment	Internal Motivation
Autonomy				
Empowerment	.39***			
Commitment	.35***	.56***		
Internal Motivation	.12**	.24***	.20***	
Variety	.33***	.38***	.27***	.06

<sup>a</sup>Summary score of empowerment

<sup>b</sup>Summary indicator of commitment

Significance level (2-tailed)

\* $p < .05$

\*\* $p < .01$

\*\*\* $p < .001$

**Table 7.15 Correlating Variety, Empowerment, Commitment and Internal Work Motivation (Partial Correlation Coefficients)**

Partial Correlation Coefficients  
Control for autonomy support

	Variety	Empowerment	Commitment
Variety			
Empowerment <sup>a</sup>	.29***		
Commitment <sup>b</sup>	.17***	.49***	
Internal motivation	.02	.21***	.16***

Zero-order Correlation Coefficients

	Variety	Empowerment	Commitment	Internal motivation
Variety				
Empowerment	.38***			
Commitment	.27***	.56***		
Internal motivation	.06	.24***	.20***	
Autonomy support	.33***	.39***	.35***	.12**

<sup>a</sup>Summary score of empowerment

<sup>b</sup>Summary indicator of commitment

Significance level (2-tailed)

\* $p < .05$

\*\* $p < .01$

\*\*\* $p < .001$

**Summary**

Both of these two hypotheses are supported. This section tests the additive and interactive effects of what are arguably the most critical of the core dimensions – variety, autonomy, and feedback – on psychological states and work attitudes. This notion is more obvious in the interactions between two types of feedback and autonomy support, and variety and autonomy support. In the hotel setting, information about the performance outcomes becomes more empowering in conjunction with a high level of autonomy. Judging from the resultant data, if the hotel workers have little discretion over their work, receiving feedback from others will have no effect on the perceived empowerment. If they have an appropriate amount of discretionary power, adding feedback would have a noticeably positive effect on empowered feelings. The additive and interactive effects can also apply to observed organisational commitment and internal motivation.

The additive and interactive effects of autonomy and variety are also supported in the current study. It is interesting to refer to the results from previous hypotheses that hotel workers' attitudes towards job enlargement are complicated. It is suggested that the interpretation of this section must entail other considerations, such as contextual effects or rotation.

### 7.9 Testing for hypothesis 8

The following is the proposed hypothesis:

**Hypothesis 8:** When empowering practices are implemented, some personal factors are related to perceived empowerment in the hotel setting; in other words, some demographic characteristics have significant effects on empowerment, beyond that accounted for by motivating job and structural characteristics.

This section focuses on personal factors and perceived empowerment in the hotel setting. It is well known that not all employees want enriched work (Hackman and Oldham, 1975, 1980; Wan-Huggins, *et al*, 1998), and research should also examine the joint effects of design and demographic characteristics on attitude and behaviour for a better understanding of macro-micro links in organisations (Rousseau, 1978; Spreitzer, 1996). Hence, a hierarchical regression mode was devised to investigate the incremental and joint effects of motivating practices and demographic factors on empowerment through hierarchical regression models, which calculate the increment in variance explained by personal factors in addition to the variance accounted for by job and contextual characteristics (Carmer, 1998). A two-step hierarchical regression analysis was conducted using perceived empowerment as the dependent variable. The summary score of job characteristics and the indicator of contextual characteristics were entered first, followed by demographic factors entered as step two. Characteristics of departments were categorised into front-of-the house and back-of-the house in this analysis.

**Table 7.16 Hierarchical Regression Results of Perceived Empowerment on Job Characteristics, Contextual Scales and Demographic Variables**

Independent Variables	Standardised Coefficients ( $\beta$ )
Step 1:	
Indicator of job characteristics	.43***
Summary index of contextual factors	.18***
Adjusted $R^2$	.28
$F$	95.25***
Step 2:	
Indicator of job characteristics	.42***
Summary index of contextual factors	.15***
Gender	-.10*
Marital Status	.02
Age	.07
Tenure	.20***
Rotation	.02
Education	.002
Income	.04
Hotel type <sup>a</sup>	-.02
Department <sup>b</sup>	.002
Title	.14**
Adjusted $R^2$	.41
$F$	28.98***

Dependent Variable: Perceived Empowerment

<sup>a</sup>City or resort hotels

<sup>b</sup>Front or back-of-the-house

\* $p < .05$  (2-tailed)

\*\* $p < .01$  (2-tailed)

\*\*\* $p < .001$  (2-tailed)

The data in Table 7.16 indicate job ( $\beta = .43, p < .001$ ) and contextual ( $\beta = .18, p < .001$ ) characteristics are significant predictors of empowerment (Signif  $F < .001$ ).

They explain 28% of the variance of perceived empowerment when demographic characteristics are controlled. To calculate the increment of variance explained by the investigated personal characteristics, we subtract the *R* Square of job and contextual characteristics (Adjusted  $R^2 = .288$ ) from the *R* Square of all the independent variables entered separately in step one and two (Adjusted  $R^2 = .419$ ). In other words, when demographic variables were added into the equation, an additional 13% of the variance in perceived empowerment was accounted for (Signif  $F < .001$ ). Gender ( $\beta = -.10, p < .05$ ), tenure ( $\beta = .20, p < .001$ ) and position level ( $\beta = .14, p < .01$ ) are the demographic variables which have significant relationships with empowerment. Each of the job and contextual characteristics has a significant beta weight in the final regression equation. Of these two scales, motivating job characteristics has a greater predictive strength than contextual characteristics.

### Summary

The statistically significant relationship between empowerment and the three personal characteristics may not be surprising. People in higher levels of the organisational hierarchy usually have better control over the decision-making (Parker and Price, 1994; Keller and Dansereau, 1995) and a wider span of control (Spreitzer, 1996). If position is regarded as a surrogate measure of personal achievement or ability, one explanation of this relationship could be related to the intrinsic and extrinsic work values that account for the fulfilment of a person's career aspiration.

Of the three personal characteristics, tenure exhibited the largest variance in empowerment. It is likely that individuals may develop shared values or attitudes consistent with the organisational culture over time, and, thus, have greater perceived meaningfulness. Another explanation could be that, in comparison with a large number of newcomers and part-timers, employees with longer tenure may have greater impact on the group performance outcomes, self-assured competence in service delivery, awareness of the rules and policies, self-determination at work, and a say in the work group decision-making. This assertion is especially true in the hotel labour market when experienced employees work with the inexperienced ones. It is

also likely that in Japanese and Taiwanese culture employees with longer position or organisation tenure tend to be esteemed as mentors, and earn more respect from peers.

**Table 7.17 Position Level by Gender**

		Gender	
		Male %	Female %
Job level	General worker	44.5	72.4
	Supervisor	41.1	24.8
	Middle Manager	14.4	2.8
Total		N = 146	N = 322
$\chi^2 = 42.14$		$p < .001$	

This primary data also shows that men feel more empowered than women. It could well be that the impact of this variable on empowerment is indirect through job position level. Although women play a major role in the hotel labour force, they are under-represented in managerial positions in the Taiwanese hotel industry. To explore the relationship between gender and position, a chi-square test was used. Table 7.17 shows that the Pearson chi-square value is 45.73 with two degrees of freedom and the significance level is .00, implying that men are more likely than women to work in higher positions in the population. Is this a matter of culture difference, or could this significant relationship be valid in other societies? In a discussion of sex discrimination in the UK work-force, Goldsmith *et al* (1997) note:

Due to occupational segregation there still exists the case that to secure promotion women do not simply have to prove that they are able, but they must also fight to gain entry to a predominantly male arena.

Traditionally, Taiwanese women have taken prime responsibility for household tasks and child rearing, both of which represent a significant stereotype and have limited

their opportunities of maintaining long-term employment and being strategic decision-makers. As more and well-educated women enter the Taiwanese labour market, this traditional organisational barrier may need to be tempered; yet data in this sample still represents a powerful affirmation of this stereotype.

As expected, experience of job rotation is not found to be significantly related to empowerment (Table 7.16). This finding is consistent with Mullin's (1995) *a priori* notion. To further illustrate this point it is instructive to note the comment of the Taipei Grand Hyatt housekeeping manager, who suggested in relation to the question of whether rotation is empowering and motivating: "They (housekeepers) would like to observe and learn new skills in other departments, but they are not necessarily committed to the tasks in different departments." For those hotel workers studied, willingness to expose themselves to different working areas does not mean they are going to feel empowered if they are asked to make every endeavour to do the jobs of other work units.

The department in which employees were based played no significant role in explaining levels of empowerment. One implication of this finding is that efforts to empower may best be attempted on all versus a select subset of employees. Employees in high customer contact positions, such as front desk and restaurant may not be the only or the best work group to concentrate on when trying to engage in empowerment. Housekeeping, kitchen, and administration employees may also be well suited to empowerment efforts.

Next, in an earlier section the influence of constructive work context is designed as a moderator that strengthens the links of motivating job characteristics to perceived empowerment. When the contextual influence, along with two other sets of variables, is included in the regression model, it reaches the significant level and is proved to be predictive of the hotel employee's perceived empowerment. However, it is worth noting that motivating job characteristics has a greater predictive strength than contextual characteristics in the final regression model. The message of the difference is clear, and can be supported by Herzberg's two-factor theory, that no



amount of environmental improvement can compensate for task impoverishment. If we are concerned to motivate people, we must look again at the tasks we ask them to do (Herzberg, 1968, 1974).

Finally, the increment in variance explained by the demographic characteristics indicates the hotel workers' opinions about a given work situation (empowerment in this case). It is concerned with the differences between various kinds of individuals or groups in response to various kinds of circumstances. The pattern of perceived empowerment revealed by the current study suggests that different situations have a different psychological dynamic, and tend to produce certain kinds of response from certain people. If our concern is to explore the various ways in which hospitality employees adjust or adapt to their job, or to investigate the many different manifestations of individual/group behaviour, it is unrealistic to look to only the job/contextual characteristics for more than a partial explanation.

### **7.10 Conclusion**

The chapter provides detailed data analytical procedure and the results for each of the first eight hypotheses. In general, the hypotheses proposed are supported. It is worth noting that each variable tested in this chapter can be seen as an element in a cyclical process of work empowerment. For example, motivating job scope increases perceived empowerment, which in turn leads to higher levels of commitment. When a committed employee finds a fit between his or her beliefs and the organisational values and is willing to put in extra effort, it is reasonable to expect that this employee will be more willing to take on enriched jobs and thus become more empowered. Likewise, an employee with higher intrinsic work motivation takes greater pride in his or her job, and thus should have higher morale and accept more challenging task activities. In this sense, empowerment becomes an on-going task assessment. The enhanced outcomes lead to newly enhanced outcomes at the very core of all organisational functioning. This chapter only considers the analytical procedure and brief summary for each section; an in-depth discussion of these findings will be presented in the discussion chapter.

## CHAPTER 8

### DATA ANALYSIS II: ANALYTICAL PROCEDURE AND RESULTS

#### 8.1 Introduction

In the previous chapter, empowerment was found to be highly related to organisational commitment. With this in mind, this chapter focuses on organisational commitment. Motivating job characteristics are tested as a set of antecedents of commitment in the first section. The four contextual conditions are then investigated in the second section. Following the ideas proposed in JCM that high growth-needs-strength (GNS) employees are more positive in their attitude towards enriched job requirements, it is interesting to consider whether the hotel employee's GNS can moderate the relation of motivating job design to commitment, and whether the hotel should refrain from imposing job enrichment interventions on low GNS employees. Another test in this chapter is related to hotel employees' intention to leave. In closing this chapter another hierarchical regression model will be devised. In this model, job and contextual characteristics will be entered in the first step, then demographic factors are put into the model to identify their incremental effect on empowerment and the personal factors by which hotel workers' being committed is more likely to be predetermined.

In general, the analytical procedure in this chapter is similar to that employed in the previous chapter. Correlation, multiple regression and testing for moderated relationships are the major approaches of quantitative data analyses. The variables studied relating to organisation commitment consist of four components: (1) the seven motivating job characteristics proposed in JCM; (2) four contextual conditions; (3) the indicator of personal growth needs strength; and (4) demographic factors.

#### 8.2 Testing for hypothesis 9

**Hypothesis 9:** Job characteristics in JCM are one set of work attributes that might significantly affect the hotel employee's identification toward

the organisation, In other words, the hotel employees' job characteristics will account for a significant proportion of the variance in their reported levels of organisational commitment.

The analytical procedure for this hypothesis is similar to that of testing for hypothesis 1. We investigated the correlations between each pair of variables and then employed a multiple regression models to identify the predictive weight of each job characteristic on the attitudinal organisational commitment. Table 8.1 indicates that the correlations among the seven motivating job characteristics are moderate but clearly distinct from unity. Moderate correlations (.40 – .46) were found between: (1) identity and significance ( $r = .40, p < .001$ ); (2) identity and autonomy ( $r = .46, p < .001$ ); and (3) identity and feedback form job ( $r = .41, p < .001$ ). The correlation coefficients between these three pairs of variables are not so large as to raise issues of conceptual overlap because multicollinearity is not typically considered to be problematic until correlations reach about .80 (Bryman and Cramer, 1997).

**Table 8.1 Zero-order Correlation: Job Characteristics and Organisational Commitment**

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1 Organisational commitment							
2 Variety	.27***						
3 Identity	.36***	.31***					
4 Significance	.21***	.40***	.30***				
5 Autonomy	.35***	.33***	.46***	.19***			
6 Feedback from job	.25***	.30***	.41***	.27***	.29***		
7 Dealing with others	.15**	.26***	.23***	.30***	.19***	.18***	
8 Feedback from agents	.29***	.15**	.43***	.21***	.25***	.27***	.18***

<sup>a</sup>Summary indicator of organisational commitment

Significance level (2-tailed)

\* $p < .05$

\*\* $p < .01$

\*\*\* $p < .001$

Multiple regression provides general support for this hypothesis (Table 8.2). The overall F-value indicates that the seven job characteristics collectively provide a significant explanation for variation in organisational commitment (Adjusted  $R^2 = .20$ ,  $\text{Signif } F < .001$ ). Examination of beta weight as shown in Table 8.2 offers insight into the predictive strength of each job characteristic. Autonomy ( $\beta = .19$ ,  $p < .001$ ) has the largest effect on hotel employees' psychological attachment to the organisation. Task identity ( $\beta = .14$ ,  $p < .01$ ) is the second most important predictor in this model. Feedback from others ( $\beta = .13$ ,  $p < .01$ ) and skill variety ( $\beta = .09$ ,  $p < .05$ ) are also found to be significant predictors of organisational commitment. Unexpectedly, task significance, self-generated feedback, and dealing with others do not appear to be related to commitment.

**Table 8.2. Full Sample Analysis: Job Characteristics Regressed on Commitment**

	Organisational commitment <sup>a</sup>
	$\beta$
Variety	.09*
Identity	.14**
Significance	.04
Autonomy	.19***
Feedback from job	.06
Dealing with others feedback from agents	.008
	.13**
Adjusted $R^2$	.20
Overall $F$	17.93***

<sup>a</sup>Summary indicator of organisational commitment  
Significance Level (2-tailed)

\* $p < .05$

\*\* $p < .01$

\*\*\* $p < .001$

**Summary:**

Job enrichment could lead to greater organisational commitment in hotel work. The results also provide support for some key motivating job characteristics. Consistent with the empowerment multiple regression model, autonomy and task identity are the two most important predictors of both commitment and perceived empowerment. Contrary to expectations, task significance, feedback from job, and dealing with others were not found to be significantly related to organisational commitment. An explanation may account for the statistically insignificant causal relationships between commitment and task significance as well as feedback from job. The correlation among the identity, autonomy, and feedback scales ranged from .40 to .46. The moderate correlation coefficients among these three variables may have suppressed the effect of task significance and feedback from job on the dependent variable. With respect to the dealing with others variable, two explanations may account for the insignificant findings. First, in the multiple regression results of perceived empowerment on job characteristics, dealing with others was not found to be related to empowerment either. The insignificant causal relationships between dealing with others and perceived empowerment as well as commitment provides us with the consistent assumption that more opportunities for personal interactions in hotel work might not be able to empower hotel workers and thus could not increase the psychological bond to the organisation. Second, factor analysis of the 12 psychological empowerment items has revealed that task interdependence could best characterise the nature of hotel work. Mowday, Porter and Steers (1982) argue that task interdependence should be regarded as a potential moderating variable that affects possible results of commitment research. Having opportunities for interactions do not necessarily mean having pleasant or satisfied interactions. Whether the peer relationships and leadership quality are positively related to commitment will be tested; such a test would better explain Sheldon's (1971) proposition that opportunities for social interaction should be positively associated with the resulting commitment.

In general, the significant link of motivating job characteristics to commitment is supported in the literature. It has commonly been found that job scope is positively

related to organisational commitment (Buchanan, 1974; Marsh and Mannari, 1977; Steers, 1977; Stevens *et al*, 1978). When job scope is viewed as a summary construct composed of separated task dimensions such as variety, autonomy, significance, and feedback, it is clear why higher levels of commitment are generally found among employees in higher scope jobs. Such task characteristics as autonomy, challenge, and significance may increase the behavioural involvement of employees in their job and thus increase their felt responsibility. Another task characteristic that may be expected to foster commitment is task interdependence (Salancik, 1977). Felt responsibility generally increases among employees when tasks are interdependent. Morris and Steers (1980), for example, found that commitment was positively related to functional dependence among work roles. Alternatively, a persuasive explanation for the job characteristics-commitment link is the path from empowerment procedure. In the previous chapter, the set of job characteristics was found to explain about 30 percent of the variance of perceived empowerment for the hotel workers, which is a pronounced causal relationship. Feelings of meaningfulness, control and self-efficacy manifest the people's needs for challenge, and increase the felt responsibility; the three critical psychological states could then increase job involvement and organisational commitment.

### **8.3 Testing for hypothesis 10**

The following statement is hypothesis 10:

**Hypothesis 10:** Hotel employees' four elements of working experience, job security, pay satisfaction, peer relationship, and leadership, are significantly but differentially associated with organisational commitment.

Table 8.3 shows the correlation matrix for the variables studied. The results indicate that strong, positive relationships exist between the work environment variables and organisational commitment. Most notable are the relationships between

organisational commitment and the employee work conditions of pay, job security and supervision. While the intercorrelations for several of the indicators of contextual factors were high (e.g., pay and job security, supervision and peer relationships), they were not so large as to raise issues of collinearity (conceptual overlap) in the subsequent multiple regression model.

**Table 8.3 Means, Standard Deviations, Reliabilities, and the Correlations: Contextual Conditions and Organisational Commitment**

	Mean	SD	Alpha	Zero-order Correlation			
				1	2	3	4
Job security	4.28	1.30	.75				
pay	3.83	1.34	.72	.60***			
peer relationships	5.34	.79	.55	.34***	.25***		
supervision	4.70	1.23	.80	.48***	.48***	.49***	
commitment	4.75	.82	.86	.49***	.49***	.38***	.50***

Significance level (2-tailed)

\* $p < .05$

\*\* $p < .01$

\*\*\* $p < .001$

**Table 8.4 Full Sample Analysis: Contextual Factors Regressed on Commitment**

	Organisational commitment <sup>a</sup>
	$\beta$
Supervision	.22***
Co-workers	.14**
Pay	.24***
Job security	.18***
Adjusted $R^2$	.37
Overall $F$	70.91***

<sup>a</sup>Summary indicator of organisational commitment

Significance Level (2-tailed)

\* $p < .05$

\*\* $p < .01$

\*\*\* $p < .001$

As shown in Table 8.4, the multiple regression analysis provides persuasive support for this hypothesis ( $R^2 = 37$ , Signif  $F < .001$ ). Each of the four characteristics is found to be a significant predictor of organisational commitment. With respect to the relative weight of each antecedent, pay satisfaction has the most predictive weight ( $\beta = 24$ ,  $p < .001$ ); supervision is the second most predictive variable ( $\beta = 22$ ,  $p < .001$ ); job security is the third ( $\beta = 18$ ,  $p < .001$ ); and co-worker relationships are the fourth predictor ( $\beta = 14$ ,  $p < .001$ ). The collective effect of these four contextual variables accounts for 37 percent of the variance of the hotel employee's organisational commitment. In comparison with the set of motivating job characteristics tested earlier ( $R^2 = 20$ , Signif  $F < .001$ ), this set of contextual variables has a stronger effect on resulting organisational commitment.

**Summary:**

Since these four contextual variables are all significant antecedents of organisational commitment, they will be discussed as follows.

**Pay satisfaction:** The test of the relative weights of the four contextual factors demonstrates the persuasiveness and importance of hotel employees' concern about monetary rewards. Of the four contextual characteristics, satisfaction with pay is the most predictive variable of commitment. Because pay provides an important inducement for employees to remain as members of organisations, it is reasonable to say that the level of pay satisfaction is positively related to commitment, especially because pay in the hotel industry is relatively low. It should be noted that the present study's instrument of pay measure encompasses satisfaction with fairness and satisfaction with amount of pay, so the interpretation of the findings should not be confused with those resulting from those of purely measuring the pay level. The question about pay level is categorised in demographic variables. In general, empirical support for pay level as antecedent of commitment is weak; better-paying positions are not necessarily associated with higher commitment in organisations (Mowday, Porter and Steers, 1982). However, when employee contributions are high, the perceived equity of pay may be a more important determinant of



commitment then level of pay. There are theoretical reasons to doubt that level of pay will always be associated with high commitment. Salancik (1977) suggests that levels of reward influences the perceived instrumentality of work. Moreover, he suggests that when instrumental rewards for work are salient, it reduces the employee's felt responsibility. This follows from the view that salient extrinsic rewards provide external justification for engaging in the task and lower the need for employees to provide internal justification for task involvement.

Since loyalty and commitment are valued by many segments of our society, it is fair to say that employee commitment should deserve better rewards. Committed hotel employees, depending on organisational reward systems, should be rewarded more highly than uncommitted employees for putting effort, committed membership, and loyalty. In addition, highly committed and loyal employees may be more attractive to alternative hoteliers. Although commitment itself may make it more difficult to attract an employee away from his or her organisation, it is likely that competing employers would be attracted to employees who exhibit high levels of commitment to their current organisation.

The more visible the committed individual's position in the organisation, the more likely the individual is to be attractive to other organisations (Mowday, Porter, Steers, 1982). The hotel industry is no exception, and we have seldom heard things like a lifetime commitment to a single hotel. In observing hotel middle-level and senior managers, we may find that their reported commitment level may not related to position level or income (which will be tested later). However, they might have had more experiences "ascending" among competing hotels in their careers.

**Supervision:** Of the four contextual factors, supervision is the second most important predictor of organisational commitment. The interpretation of this should also resort to the instrument of the suppression measure. This score is focused on the degree of respect, fairness, support, guidance, and overall impression the hotel employee received. Research on leader behaviour reviewed by Stogdill (1974)

generally confirms that a more considerate leader style facilitates job satisfaction; whereas, a more task-oriented or structured leader style often inhibits satisfaction. Further, traditional managerial behaviour might not be desirable in service industries because of the mechanical nature of Tayloristic job design. Leadership in the hospitality industry, however, is needed to provide a sense of purpose and direction as well as to shape the organisation's culture and decision processes for service excellence.

In the previous chapter, satisfaction with leadership was found to be a moderating variable in the motivating job design to perceived self-efficacy relation. When taken together, at least within the scope of this study's measuring instrument, these findings indicate that hotel managers in high-commitment organisations need a particular set of leadership skills that will allow them to do four critical things for the company.

1. Building trust and fairness.
2. Treating subordinates with respect and care.
3. Providing support, coaching and guidance.
4. Empowering others by supporting job-enriching practices.

**Job security:** The test of the relative weight of the four contextual factors also explicates the importance of hotel employees' concern about job security. It is ranked the third important antecedent out of the four contextual factors. The test of the relative weight of the four contextual factors explicates the importance of the hotel employee's need for job security. This finding reflects an interesting phenomenon in Taiwan or, perhaps, universally in the hotel industry. As the hotel industry realises that pursuing and maintaining TQM is the only way for a company's long-term competitiveness, employers start to support each member's commitment to service excellence. Executive rhetoric increasingly calls for greater dedication, but corporate behaviour often manifests decreasing commitment to employees. Several studies have proposed that commitment should be related to perceived organisational dependability (Buchanan, 1974; Steers, 1977; Grenny, 1993). These studies suggest a

reciprocation norm in which employees develop greater feelings of responsibility when organisations are viewed as caring about employee well-being. The paternalistic management practices and job security found in Japanese organisations, for example, have often been cited as one factor leading to high levels of commitment among Japanese employees (Marsh and Mannari, 1977).

**Peer relationships:** Co-worker relationships are related to organisational commitment. Hypothesis 3 tested in the previous chapter also found that peer relationships are important moderators in the job enrichment to empowerment relation. When taken together, it becomes clear that satisfied task interdependence experience in hotels not only leads to commitment but also creates positive attitudes towards enriched jobs. This assumption is supported in some relevant research. For example, work experiences that have been found to influence commitment include positive group norm about hard work, group attitudes toward the organisation (Buchanan, 1974; Patchen, 1970). When group cohesiveness is based on confidence in the group's work, and the members feel the group and management are supportive, then cohesiveness can indeed increase the overall productivity of the group.

#### **8.4 Testing for hypothesis 11**

**Hypothesis 11:** Job enrichment is related to hotel employees' organisational commitment, but moderated by growth needs strength.

Job enrichment is tested with the overall job characteristics score. It was predicted that the hotel employee's growth needs would moderate the relationships between the job characteristics and organisational commitment. When empowering employees with enriched jobs, employees highly desirous of growth opportunities at work were expected to demonstrate higher organisational commitment than employees not desirous of such growth satisfaction. The hypothesis testing proceeded in two steps. First, employees in the top and bottom quartiles on the growth need strength measure were identified. Next, correlations between the job score and commitment score are computed separately for these two groups. If the

hypothesis is correct, correlation coefficients should be higher for employees in the top quartile of the distribution of growth need scores than for those in the bottom quartile.

The results, reported in Table 8.5, provide strong support for the hypothesis. The relationships between motivating job characteristics for employees with high growth needs ( $r = .52, p < .001$ ) are substantially higher than the same relationships for all employees in the sample ( $r = .43, p < .001$ ). The relationship for the full sample is then higher than that for low-growth-need employees ( $r = .32, p < .001$ ). In spite of the different correlation strength, these three sets of correlation are all in persuasively positive fashion.

**Table 8.5 Relationships between Motivating Potential Score and Organisational Commitment as Moderated by Growth Needs Strength**

	Full sample Correlations	Growth needs strength (GNS) <sup>a</sup>		
		Low	high	$z^b$
Organisational commitment	.43***	.32***	.52***	1.91

<sup>a</sup>n = 115 and 117, respectively, in low and high growth needs groups (GNS < 3.312, bottom quartile; GNS > 4.854, top quartile); ns are unequal because of tied scores.

<sup>b</sup>Refers to the significance of the difference between  $r$ s;  $z$  above 1.96 are significant at .05 2-tailed level.

Significance level (2-tailed)

\*\*\* $p < .001$

### Summary:

Critically speaking, to prove the moderating effect of growth needs strength may not have any practical implications because growth needs strength could only be a moderating or controlling variable in any research design, and practitioners can not do anything to modify or “spur on” an individual’s growth needs. Much research has suggested that not all employees want enriched work (Hackman and Oldham, 1975), and not every company implementing motivating job design elicits increased organisational commitment from employees (Wan-Huggins *et al.*, 1998). Nevertheless, the results of this present study not only support the hypothesis that growth need strength is a moderator in enrichment to commitment relations but also

provide us an encouraging word for the adoption of job enrichment efforts to develop organisational commitment for all hotel employees, whether the individual's growth needs strength is high or low. When investigating the correlation coefficients for the sub-sample with higher growth needs, evidently, we can assert that hotel employees in this category best react to enriched jobs. Yet, employees in the category of the opposite growth need quartile will also positively react to enriched jobs.

### 8.5 Testing for hypothesis 12

**Hypothesis 12:** Hotel employees' organisational commitment is inversely related to intention to leave (ITL) the company. In addition, high growth-needs-strength (GNS) employees tend to search for better alternative employment opportunities; thus the employee's GNS is related to ITL.

Hypothesis 12 predicted that organisational identification would be inversely related to intention to leave. As depicted in Table 8.6, the results indicate that organisational commitment was significantly and negatively related to intention to leave ( $r = -.58, p < .001$ ). The results also showed that the hotel employee's GNS was not related to intention to leave.

**Table 8.6 Correlating Organisational Commitment , Intention to Leave and Growth Needs Strength**

	Commitment	ITL
Commitment <sup>a</sup>		
Intention to leave (ITL)	-.58***	
Growth needs strength (GNS)	.12**	-.007

<sup>a</sup>Summary indicator of commitment

Significance level (2-tailed)

\* $p < .05$

\*\* $p < .01$

\*\*\* $p < .001$

### **Summary:**

The negative relationship between commitment and intention to leave has been well supported in the literature (Mowday, Porter and Steers, 1982). The second part of this hypothesis is based on some hospitality researchers' argument that hospitality work (i.e., hotel, catering, etc.) may have less opportunities for career development (Ackerman, 1981). Faulkner and Patiar's (1997) study reveal that "under promotion" and "unclear promotion prospects" are the sources of work place induced stress among housekeeping and front office staff respectively. In addition, during the current study's fieldwork, some managers interviewed also admitted that many ambitious employees were often dissatisfied with the lack of promotion opportunity due to the nature of relatively fewer managerial positions for a large number of entry level employees in the labour intensive organisational structure in a hotel. It has long been difficult for Taiwanese hotels to keep the ambitious employees. However, the data do not support this hypothesis. An explanation for this could be that career development might not necessarily mean promotion; the opportunity of new learning (i.e., training, enriched job design, etc.) may compensate for this need. An alternative explanation is that the interpretation of findings may allow for some external employment issues. Research has noted that employees consider such issues as the rate of unemployment and the number of external employment alternatives available when assessing their options with regard to staying or leaving their employing organisation (Farrell and Rusbult, 1981; Price and Mueller, 1981, 1986; Hulin, Roznowski, and Hachiya, 1985). It could be that, in this case, the external environmental factors might override the effects of the internal factors (growth needs strength). For example, from the autumn 1997 through the spring 1999, the economy in Taiwan suffered from the impact of the Asian economic crisis. During the two-year economic downturn, employees, whether growth needs are high or low, may have had strong intentions to remain with the company because external employment alternatives were perceived to be limited.

## 8.6 Testing for hypothesis 13

**Hypothesis 13:** Motivating job and contextual characteristics have positive effects on organisational commitment; in addition, some demographic characteristics have additive effects on commitment, beyond that accounted for by job and contextual characteristics.

The analytical procedure for this hypothesis is similar to that of hypothesis eight. A two-step hierarchical regression was devised using organisational commitment as the dependent variable. The summary score of job and contextual characteristics were entered first; then the set of demographic factors was entered as step two. Ten demographic variables were tested. They are gender, marital status, age, tenure, rotation opportunity, education, income, hotel type (resort or city hotel), job level, and department (front-of-the house or back-of-the house).

The data in Table 8.7 indicate that motivating job and contextual characteristics have positive effects on organisational commitment (Signif  $F < .001$ ), and explain 41% of the variance of commitment when demographic characteristics are controlled. To calculate the increment of variance explained by the personal characteristics, we subtract the  $R$  Square of the two independent variables entered in the first step ( $R^2 = .418$ ) from that of all the independent variables in the final regression ( $R^2 = .452$ ). It shows that an additional 4% of the variance was accounted for by the demographic variables.

As may be seen, except for age ( $\beta = .17, p < .01$ ), none of the demographic variables showed any strong relationship with organisational commitment. The overall job characteristic score and contextual score are both significantly related to the hotel worker's reported level of organisational commitment. The contextual score has stronger perceptive weight ( $\beta = .47, p < .001$ ) than the job characteristic score ( $\beta = .24, p < .001$ ), which is consistent with the results of hypothesis 9 and hypothesis 10. This provides a strong support for the viability and validity of this study's scales.

**Table 8.7 Hierarchical Regression Results of Organisational Commitment on Job Characteristics, Contextual Scales and Demographic Variables**

Independent Variables	Standardised Coefficients ( $\beta$ )
Step 1:	
Indicator of job characteristics	.22***
Summary index of contextual factors	.52***
Adjusted $R^2$	.41
$F$	167.94***
Step 2:	
Indicator of job characteristics	.24***
Summary index of contextual factors	.47***
Gender	-.05
Marital Status	.01
Age	.17**
Tenure	.03
Rotation	-.06
Education	-.05
Income	.01
Hotel type <sup>a</sup>	-.01
Department <sup>b</sup>	-.01
Title	-.001
Adjusted $R^2$	.45
$F$	32.98***

Dependent Variable: Organisational Commitment

<sup>a</sup>City or resort hotels

<sup>b</sup>Front or back-of-the-house

\* $p < .05$  (2-tailed)

\*\* $p < .01$  (2-tailed)

\*\*\* $p < .001$  (2-tailed)



**Summary:**

The data in Table 8.7 indicate that when the empowering variables are included in the analysis, age is the only demographic variable which has a strong and statistically significant relationship with commitment. The strong and statistically significant relations between age and commitment may not be surprising at all. Service industries in Taiwan have a long-standing preference of recruiting young people, mainly because it is believed that young or inexperienced people find it easier to adopt new organisational culture and are more flexibly socialised in a new working environment. In addition, younger people are more capable of coping with physical fatigue in the daily routine, which is particularly common in hotel work. Referring to the literature, as age increases, an individual's opportunities for alternative employment become more limited. The decrease in an individual's degrees of freedom may increase the perceived attractiveness of the present employer, thereby leading to increased psychological attachment (Mowday, Porter, and Steers, 1982). On the other hand, older workers may psychologically become more attitudinally committed to an organisation for a variety of reasons, including greater satisfaction with their jobs, having received better positions, and having "cognitively justified" remaining in a organisation (Meyer and Allen, 1984). Although Table 8.7 reveals that tenure is not directly associated with commitment, some research has suggested that in many cases tenure tends to be the correlate of age (Hall and Schneider, 1972; Meyer and Allen, 1984). If age is associated with tenure the calculative consideration, such as side bets, could also strengthen the bond of individual to the organisational. However, the regression model presented in Table 8.7 fails to confirm this point, and this could partly be explained by characterised high turnover culture and easily poached employees in the hospitality industry.

**8.7 Conclusion**

Organisational commitment is an important issue in hospitality research. Especially, the weak internal labour market is often a concern in studies of hospitality human resource management. Committed employees will have stronger psychological bond to the hotel they work for, and be expected to have better performance and lower

intention to turnover. Of course, there are many ways to elicit this bond, job characteristics and contextual conditions tested here are only examples of management effort. The core job characteristics is not only the antecedent of perceived empowerment but also that of commitment. Supportive supervision and peers, fair pay and dependable organisation give the hotel employee reasons to get involved in their jobs. This chapter only deliberates the analytical procedure and brief summary for each section; an in-depth discussion of these findings will be presented in the discussion chapter.

## CHAPTER 9

### DATA ANALYSIS III: SUPPLEMENTARY ANALYSIS

#### 9.1 Introduction

In the previous two analytical chapters, job characteristics and four contextual variables proposed in Hackman and Oldham's JCM can be seen as two sets of "empowering means". These two sets of variables have been found to be empowering in this empirical test; each of them exerts different pressures in relation to empowerment on Taiwanese hotel employees, and the interactions of many variables shape the hotel employee's organisational commitment. Likewise, several demographic factors have also been found to be related to perceived empowerment and organisational commitment. With this in mind, this chapter will diagnose the job and contextual characteristics and Taiwanese hotel workers' empowerment and commitment in five departments – restaurant, kitchen, front office, housekeeping, and administration.

#### 9.2 Diagnostic survey of variables studied in Taiwanese hotel work

The data were obtained from 468 hotel employees who worked in the departments of restaurant ( $n = 182$ ), kitchen ( $n = 34$ ), front office ( $n = 66$ ), housekeeping ( $n = 103$ ), and administration (HR:  $n = 16$ ; finance:  $n = 14$ ; marketing and sales:  $n = 25$ ; others:  $n = 28$ ) in 16 Taiwanese international tourist hotels. The survey was administrated from November 1998 through February 1999 during the present study's fieldwork. Each score of the respondents who worked on a specific job was averaged and the means and standard deviations were calculated. Means and standard deviations for each job and contextual characteristic are presented in Table 9.1 on the basis of full sample and each department. As can be seen the means and standard deviations of each variable in each department (group) varied from one another. This chapter will begin with the job content (job characteristics), and then look at the environmental issues (contextual variables); further turn to perceived empowerment and organisational commitment and other motivation outcomes. Because the nature of jobs in the five departments is different, this chapter only investigates means and

standard deviations of full sample and each component; thus it performs no statistical analysis on the differences, and any significance is not ascribed to those differences.

### **9.2.1 Job characteristics**

This section provides a brief profile of the job scopes in terms of the current study's variables. There are skill variety, identity, autonomy, feedback from the job, dealing with others, and feedback from others.

**Skill variety:** As may be seen in Table 9.1, the means of the five groups, in ascending order, are housekeeping, restaurant, administration, kitchen, and front office. Workers in front office and kitchen use a substantially wider variety of skills on the job than those in housekeeping and restaurant. Because all the sample hotels are top class hotels providing delicate cuisine, it is a skill/labour-intensive job to work in these properties' kitchens.

As noted earlier, variety is a significant predictor of perceived meaningfulness, and control. If a task requires the hotel workers to engage in activities that challenge or stretch their skills or abilities, they experience that task as meaningful. Additionally, the more skills involved, the greater perceived control is likely to be. When the nature of a job tends to be low in skill variety (e.g., housekeeping), with the current study's findings in mind, it is suggested that executives should consider using other motivating job characteristics, rotation, or empowering contextual conditions to counterbalance the "inherent weakness".

**Task identity:** From the lowest to highest level, the task identity scores for the five departments are administration, restaurant, kitchen, front office, and housekeeping. To compare the matched departments, as may be seen in Table 8.1, a job may not be perfect in each job characteristic. For example, housekeeping is low in skill variety but high in identity; simple as their job scope is, it requires a completion of an identifiable piece of work and doing a job (cleaning a certain number of rooms in their daily routine) from beginning to end with a visible outcome. This implies that to

diagnose each job characteristic could generate a clearer profile of hotel work instead of a too broad term “job enrichment”.

**Significance:** The means of the five groups listed in ascending order are administration, housekeeping, restaurant, kitchen, and front office. As identified in testing for hypothesis 1, when a hotel worker’s job has a substantial influence on customers’ experience and other employees’ work, his or her perceived meaningfulness is enhanced. JCM suggests that significance, identity and variety have an additive effect upon employees’ feelings of meaningfulness about the jobs.

**Autonomy:** Housekeepers work in the lowest autonomous support context; restaurant, kitchen and administration are in the middle; front office staff have the highest autonomy support on this scale. As identified earlier, autonomy is significantly related to the hotel employee’s perceived control and meaningfulness. One housekeeping manager interviewed said that chambermaids might see their own jobs as less autonomous due to large number of simultaneous requests from the guests or front office to service particular rooms urgently in the middle of other activities but still have to adhere to schedules despite such problems as shortages of staff and inefficient cleaning equipment or materials, etc. Further, as identified earlier, the increased skill variety has an additional effect of autonomy on the hotel employee’s perceived empowerment. Should a hotel job be inherently low in autonomy and management could not do anything about it, providing opportunities to stretch the performer’s skills and talents might be recommend; for example, promoting variety in couple with rotation has also been found to be empowering in this study (see testing for hypothesis 5 and 7 in Chapter 7).

**Table 9.1 Empowerment Diagnostic Survey: Means and Standard Deviations for Full Sample and Five Hotel Departments**

Variable	Full Sample		Restaurant		Kitchen		Front office		Housekeeping		Administration	
	Mean	S.D.	Mean	S.D.	Mean	S.D.	Mean	S.D.	Mean	S.D.	Mean	S.D.
Skill variety	3.73	1.31	3.67	1.31	4.01	1.22	4.21	1.21	3.47	1.30	3.70	1.34
Task identity	4.78	1.16	4.69	1.20	4.70	1.04	4.91	1.07	5.00	1.17	4.61	1.16
Task significance	4.19	1.32	4.12	1.32	4.16	1.06	4.64	1.17	4.12	1.41	4.08	1.39
Autonomy	4.33	1.13	4.32	1.27	4.33	1.03	4.71	.99	4.11	.95	4.36	1.09
Feedback from job	4.89	1.03	4.83	1.14	4.67	.95	5.16	.92	4.92	.93	4.86	1.00
Dealing with others	5.54	1.10	5.73	1.01	5.05	.90	6.13	.98	4.86	1.16	5.69	.91
Feedback from others	4.75	1.13	4.86	1.21	4.39	1.04	4.90	1.12	4.81	1.00	4.47	1.06
Overall job characteristics	4.60	.73	4.60	.78	4.47	.59	4.95	.63	4.47	.68	4.53	.73
Job security	4.28	1.30	4.18	1.38	4.22	1.20	4.03	1.40	4.63	1.12	4.31	1.26
Pay	3.83	1.34	3.79	1.47	4.08	.85	3.49	1.34	3.94	1.32	3.98	1.21
Co-workers	5.34	.79	5.27	1.36	5.18	.73	5.48	.80	5.43	.70	5.32	.67
Supervision	4.70	1.23	4.60	1.36	4.81	1.02	4.79	1.17	4.82	1.12	4.67	1.17
Overall contextual conditions	4.54	.90	4.46	.98	4.57	.69	4.45	.89	4.70	.86	4.57	.85
Feelings of empowerment	4.92	.81	4.92	.87	5.01	1.00	5.08	.81	4.83	.61	4.87	.83
Organisational commitment	4.75	.82	4.69	.88	4.69	.71	4.74	.92	4.90	.71	4.70	.72
Internal work motivation	5.21	.82	5.19	.88	5.09	.82	5.42	.70	4.98	.85	5.44	.66
General job satisfaction	4.66	.93	4.58	.97	4.98	.80	4.62	.94	4.79	.88	4.58	.92
Growth satisfaction	4.75	1.04	4.71	1.10	4.73	.87	4.89	1.02	4.70	.99	4.78	1.04
Growth need strength	4.23	.80	4.23	.82	4.06	.76	4.57	.62	3.94	.81	4.39	.74
Intention to leave	3.31	1.72	3.50	1.81	2.76	1.85	3.42	1.69	3.07	1.58	3.32	1.58

Full sample: n = 468

Restaurant: n = 182

Kitchen: n = 34

FO: n = 66

HK: n = 103

Administration: n = 83 (Human resource: n = 16; Finance: n = 14; Marketing: 25; Others = 28)

**Feedback from the job:** Comparing the mean scores from the five departments, the work of front office is the highest and the kitchen is the lowest in this scale. Note that the focus there is on feedback obtained directly from the jobs. Employees in charge of check-in and out, switchboard and information inquiry may more easily know the information about the quality and effectiveness of their performance, rather than some other person who collects data or makes a judgement about how well the work is being done. In comparison with front office, kitchen employees might need more feedback from others to remind or rectify omissions or errors that might be overlooked due to the rapid pace in preparing food during the meal hours and the lack of contact with consumers.

**Dealing with others:** The mean (5.54) of the full sample is higher than any other scale, which confirms that the hotel workers see their jobs are interdependent with others. Except for housekeeping and kitchen, all department' average scores are higher than 5.5 (in the 7-point scale). Front office staff are in more direct contact with other hotel workers and guests as they handle and audit transactions in their properties. The means of housekeeping and kitchen are lower than that from restaurant and front office, and this is largely explicable by the nature of work in these departments.

In addition to the low score in variety and autonomy, housekeeping staff generally have relatively little interaction with the guests and their work is usually performed in isolation. Therefore, some of the hotels studied have used contractors to clean or wax public areas, but, for security reasons, guestrooms are only cleaned by housekeepers. However, the low means in variety, autonomy, and dealing with others identified by housekeepers should alert management to the possibility that meaningful motivating practices may require attention to an interconnected set of housekeeping jobs that may have prompted hotel workers' task significance and social interactions with other workers. The housekeeping role is fundamental to the presentation of the hotel's product in the sense that any lapse in the standards of their work have a profound effect on guests' comfort and overall expression of the establishment.

**Feedback from others:** Front office and restaurant are higher on this scale than administration and kitchen. It is plausible that owing to the frequent contact with customers, the workers' performance outcomes in front-of-the-house are more evident, and thus elicit more feedback from others. As noted earlier, any empowering feedback must be positive and encouraging; otherwise, negative feedback would erode confidence and work motivation.

**Overall job characteristics:** Because a given hotel job can be relatively high on one or more of the seven characteristics described above and simultaneously low on others, it is always useful to consider the standing of a job in relation to each of the job characteristics. Nevertheless, it also can be informative to combine the seven characteristics into a single index that reflects the overall job scope to explain hotel workers' perceived empowerment, organisational commitment, and intrinsic motivation.

Table 9.1 indicates that the work in front office is more enriched than that of any other department. Referring to the seven characteristics discussed above, jobs in this department excel in all but task identity scale. Front office is often regarded as the "nerve centre" of the hotel, the front office is where guests check in and out, payments on accounts are made, and messages are exchanged. Hence, front desk task activities are more people-oriented, require good problem solving skills, and need to be attentive to details. Their actions and attitudes displayed towards guest are a big part of what the hotel is selling – service. Consequently, the attributes of its work tend to be perceived as more varied, identifiable, autonomous, and richer in feedback.

Compared to front office, jobs in housekeeping has the lowest mean in the overall job scope scale. It could be argued that housekeeping jobs are significantly lower in motivating job characteristics than front office. Should housekeeping staff perceived empowerment and commitment be lower than front desk staff. This proposition is not necessarily true. Several reasons could possibly explain this situation. First, housekeeping staff's growth needs strength are significantly lower than other four



groups (Table 9.1), so they might want their task activities simpler and more predictable than front office work. Second, in previous chapters, we have found that tenure and age are the predictors of empowerment and commitment respectively. “Within a hotel, this department usually has longer average tenure, and they are a mature and experienced work group on the jobs in comparison with other service workers in the hotel industry”, noted a manager interviewed in this study.

Therefore, it might not be a good idea to say which hotel jobs are absolutely more empowering or less empowering. The present study would propose contingent view that job enrichment is empowering and at the same time some other factors, such as leadership, job security, reasonable monetary compensation, and some personal factors, should also be taken into account. A contingent empowerment approach could motivate the hotel workers, no matter what jobs they are under taking. Managers would consider how each job and contextual component supports and balances one another in different types of hotel work for different people. Apparently, the objective “job” in the four departments may not be as enriching as that in front office; whilst, it is still possible for “people” in the jobs in the four department to experience high levels of perceived control, efficacy, and meaningfulness. Empowered housekeeping staff would take pride in maintaining property cleanliness and be constantly monitoring guest’s comfort and safety. Empowered kitchen and restaurant staff would be committed to providing people with a pleasant experience and take interest in the preparation or serving of food and beverage. Empowered marketing and sales personnel would take initiative to discover what guests want, to know how to build guests’ needs into the services sold, and to know how to best reach potential guests. Empowered staff in finance departments not only take responsibility to record sales, control expenditure, calculate costs and keep track of overall profits, but also help make important financial recommendations, and even forecast industry trends to help the hotel succeed.

### 9.2.2 Contextual variables

**Pay:** The mean of the full sample is 3.83, which is lower than the middle anchor of the seven-point scale. This reveals that the average hotel employees are not satisfied with their pay. The employee's desire for a particular work facet is strengthened when he or she believes it is lacking (Kovach, 1987; Siu *et al*, 1997), which might be one reason that pay satisfaction is found to be the most important antecedents of the organisational commitment.

**Security:** Housekeeping is the highest on this scale. It is likely that most housekeeping staff do not take great stock in advancement opportunities and focuses instead on a secure job with steady income, which makes them less frustrated by other unattainable alternative intrinsic or extrinsic rewards and so feel secured. It is also likely that low-growth-needs employees may prefer task activities that are much more predictable and less complicated. In contrast to housekeeping, front desk staff are the lowest in this scale. It is likely that although front office work is more enriching, challenging jobs sometime might become insurmountable obstacles when resources of support (i.e., authorisation, monetary compensation, etc.) are inadequate.

**Supervision, peers, and overall contextual indicator:** Since the means on these three scales in the five departments are similar, they are discussed here. With respect to supervision scales, means of the five departments range from 4.60 to 4.84, which reveals that these groups are all moderately satisfied with supervisor's support, credibility and guidance. Generally speaking, employees in the five departments are satisfied with their peer relationships; means of the five departments only slightly vary, and range from 5.18 to 5.48. Finally, means of the five departments on the composite overall contextual indicator range from 4.45 to 4.70; work conditions among departments are equally satisfactory.

### 9.2.3 Outcome variables

The five departments on perceived empowerment, organisational commitment, general satisfaction, and growth satisfaction scales are only slightly different. Full sample means on these four scales range from about 4.66 to 4.92, which is a modestly satisfactory level. Although some differences do stand out, they are relatively similar. At the departmental level, housekeeping is the highest group on organisational commitment. This could be attributed to their satisfaction with job security as well as overall contextual satisfaction which is high, and intention to leave which is low. Although their perceived empowerment is low and overall job characteristics are low, this is counterbalanced by their low growth needs strength. Apparently they do not seek much challenge and complexity at work and are relatively happy with the amount of job enrichment and contextual conditions they have in their work as it is designed. Additionally, it could be argued that the skills that housekeeping staff have limit their ability to transfer to other industries, and the dissonance-reducing process in their longer tenure may assure them that they have chosen commitment wisely. Contrary to housekeeping department, restaurant employees have the lowest scale of commitment, which also echoes with their highest mean for "intention to leave".

With respect to internal work motivation, employees across the departments are different on the levels of internal work motivation. Staff in administration and front office are higher on this scale than kitchen and housekeeping groups. Additionally, staff's growth needs strength is also different across the five work groups. Front office staff is the highest on this score; administration staff the second; restaurant workers the third; kitchen the fourth; housekeeping staff the lowest. To identify people's difference in grow need strength could help management to decide what are the empowering ingredients and how to motivate employees in different departments. Loher *et al's* (1985) study investigates 28 JCM research reports. They conclude that the more enriched a job is the more likely the high-GNS person who possesses a high need for personal growth and development will be satisfied with that job. In contrast, for low-GNS strength employees, who have less need for growth and development, the presence of certain external situational characteristics (such as monetary

incentives, work group, or management support for enrichment activities) may be necessary if the motivating job design is to increase employee satisfaction. In other words, the opportunities for an enriched job offers may not be recognised or cared about by low-GNS employees who might complain about the additional burden deriving from the extra work activities, or be sceptical about the management intention of the empowering practices. What may be more important is how the employee's work group views these opportunities. As emphasised earlier, as hotel jobs intensively interconnect with others, group norms would thus have a powerful effluence on shaping group members' work attitudes (Steers, 1977). If the work group is supportive of enriched work, this may help to enhance the employee's satisfaction with more challenging jobs. Clearly, to maximise effectiveness of empowerment practices, employees desirous of growth-needs satisfaction should be placed in the most complex jobs or in jobs that are to be enriched. When the individual-job match is achieved, the employee is most likely to thrive and be highly psychologically empowered.

### **9.3 Conclusion**

Focused on work empowerment procedure, this table extends Hackman and Oldham's job diagnosis survey by integrating their core job characteristics, contextual conditions, affective motivation outcomes and Spreitzer's psychological empowerment as well as Porter's commitment scales into the table. It profiles the current conditions of each score in the Taiwanese hotel industry. Since the hotels studied are all international tourist hotel standard (which are officially evaluated as high quality hotels), this table not only is useful for description but also could serve as a primary data source for comparison and diagnosis. The means of the sub-groups on each variable reflect areas of work empowerment "strength" and "weakness" in the five departments. Although it could be argued that some hotel jobs might tend to be more empowering; others may have been deliberately rationalised to meet hotel staffing needs, and thus less empowered; chambermaids may not want their jobs as enriched as those of front office staff. Yet, it is extremely rare to find a work situation in which nothing can be changed or improved (Lee-Ross, 1998).

## CHAPTER 10

### DISCUSSION

#### 10.1 Introduction

The fundamental framework of the thesis is based on Hackman and Oldham's job characteristics model, Spreitzer's Psychological empowerment model and Porter's work on organisational commitment. This study synthesises their work and investigates a work empowerment procedure specifically in the hospitality domain. Empirical data were collected from 16 Taiwanese hotels. As emphasised in the literature review chapters, empowerment has evolved from various streams of motivation theories; it is in no way possible to address comprehensive reviews of all disciplines in one thesis. As such, the author applies a multidisciplinary view, but grasps definition-specificity throughout the whole thesis.

This chapter starts with a discussion of the empowerment construct; then we turn to summarise our findings. In order to generalise from this work, results of different hypotheses will be discussed in one section. Each section will return to some management considerations and occasionally draw on additional motivation and leadership literature for the interpretation of the findings. Suggestions and implications for academic and practitioner consideration are proposed in each section.

#### 10.2 Discussions and implications of findings

##### 10.2.1 Empowerment dimensions

The three-dimensional empowerment model identified in Chapter 6 reflects a hotel worker's relationship with his or her work unit. It is individual/team dynamics that can contribute to feelings of empowerment. Empowerment as conceptualised in this study emphasises the need to integrate personal task activities with the whole work unit and organisation, so the dimensions used are those identified through the empirical data, instead of those from research conducted in a manufacturing environment (Spreitzer, 1995). The dimensionality considered in the current study

suggests that, in hospitality research, a focus on personal and social development requires the study of the whole or total situation and not merely its constituent parts. In the current study, the essential nature of task interdependence and interconnection is discovered not alone by any of its separate elements, but also by observing how these elements interact. Therefore, a wide variety of quantitative designs and analytical methods were employed in Chapter 7 and Chapter 8 so as to clarify how each of the job components as well as contextual characteristics, and other variables (i.e., rotation, three aspects of organisational commitment, and so on) support one another. The theory presented here implies that cognition of empowerment must come from the intermingling of the whole group in which each hotel worker's tasks "fits into the various downstream and upstream activities in the service delivery system" (Bowen and Lawler, 1995: 75). This holistic perspective serves as a foundation for the current study's framework.

The conceptualisation of the current research design is based on the process philosophy of cognitive empowerment (Conger and Kanungo; 1988; Thomas and Velthouse, 1990; Spreitzer, 1996), and we found that Taiwanese hotel workers view power as perceived control, efficacy, and meaningfulness. Each of these feelings is the evolutionary product emerging from work experience. Hence, instead of assuming what are the managerial meanings of empowerment (i.e., job enrichment, job enlargement, delayering, commitment, etc.), this study prefers to discuss how and why to empower, energise, and motivate hotel workers. In this sense, the operational definition of "empowerment" is clear and dynamic in this study. It refers to the self-developing capacity (perceived control and efficacy) and meaning (perceived meaningfulness) generated from people's interpretations of their work rather than the equivalence of any antecedents that are delegated to or designed for the employee. The philosophy distinguishes this study from many others, and provides the basis upon which the investigated hypotheses were built.

### 10.2.2 Findings of hypothesis 1, 6 and 7

Hypothesis 1, 6 and 7 focus on job characteristics and the two-way interplay between skill variety, autonomy, and feedback. Since all the elements investigated could be categorised into core job characteristics (Hackman and Oldham, 1980), for the sake of convenience, results of these three hypothesis are discussed in this section.

The results of the hypothesis 1 provide support for some key job characteristics associated with empowerment perceptions by the Taiwanese hotel workers. Except for feedback of others and dealing with others, all job characteristics are significant predictors of the summary indicator of perceived empowerment. The findings not only go beyond Hackman and Oldham's work (1980) by integrating job characteristics research with the newly emergent cognitive empowerment research, but also further identify the most predictive five job characteristics out of the seven core job characteristics specifically in hospitality work. The interpretations of the findings may raise several issues for future hospitality job content/empowerment research.

The results indicate variety was related to empowerment as well as two of its dimensions – perceived control and meaningfulness, but was insignificantly related to perceived efficacy. The significance is consistent with many job enlargement related studies. For example, Hackman and Oldham's (1980: 78) JCM consistently found that “when a task requires workers to engage in activities that challenge or stretch their skills or abilities, they almost invariably experience that task as meaningful, and the more skills involved, the more meaningful the work is likely to be.” Champion and his associates (Champion and McClelland, 1991; 1993) compare four types of job design (see Chapter 2), and found that work which taps and stretches the performer's skills and talents would have the benefits of more employee satisfaction, less mental underload and better customer service. However, enlarged jobs inevitably have the costs of higher training requirement, higher basic skills, and higher compensable factors – monetary and non-monetary rewards. (Champion, 1989; Champion and McClelland, 1991). These costs might be able to explain the insignificant relationship between variety and efficacy in the current sample. As

shown in Table 7.1, a large percentage of hotel workers have relatively short tenure. The short period of service in an organisation might adversely affect the process of building additional skills for jobholders. This phenomenon would further discourage companies to invest greater resources in training and employee career development (Bowen and Lawler, 1992; Baum, 1995). Under the circumstances, the effects of skill variety on perceived efficacy become insignificant.

Identity and significance were also related to empowerment, which is consistent with the literature as well. The original JCM posits that variety, identity and significance could be combined into one factor that would in turn have additive effects on perceived meaningfulness. In addition, we also found an interesting occupational characteristic in the hospitality milieu. Although in their intensive review of empirical research on work attitudes, Dodd and Ganster (1996) argue that identity has seldom emerged as a strong predictor of outcomes in job characteristics studies, identity and autonomy in this sample share the most important predictive weight on empowerment. The salience of identity reflects the fact that hotel work is constantly interrupted by flux of demands, enquiries, or unexpected incidents from clients and colleagues which tends to result in work induced stress among operational staff in the hotel industry (Faulker and Patiar, 1997). It is plausible that working in situations of the constant interruptions, hotel workers would have stronger need for identifiable work (from beginning to the end). As a result, this scale becomes one of the most important predictors of perceived empowerment of the job characteristics.

Autonomy support was related to empowerment, and its sub-dimensions – perceived control and meaningfulness. Like identity, autonomy is one of the most salient predictors of empowerment for Taiwanese hotel workers. The autonomy scale comprises some key words, such as decision-making, independence, initiative, personal judgement, and so on (see autonomy scale). Since those key words have generally appeared in empowerment, involvement, and enrichment literature, the significant relationships are not surprising at all. On the other hand, the insignificant relation of autonomy to efficacy might be accounted for by two explanations related to results from hypothesis 6 and 7. First, the results of hypothesis 6 provide



persuasive evidence that there are two-way interactions between autonomy support and feedback. At the same time we have found that externally generated feedback is negatively related to efficacy in this sample. When information from feedback is not constructive (which will be discussed later), workers might not develop the confidence in their ability to perform work activities effectively. Second, supporting autonomy should simultaneously enlarge skill variety (see the results of hypothesis 7). As discussed above, if the sample shows that skill variety is not significantly related to efficacy, it is reasonable to predict that autonomy might not be associated with efficacy either. Unless more coaching and training for skill development and better orientation of feedback source is undertaken, having discretion and authority might not advance the feelings of efficacy.

Unexpectedly, dealing with others was not found to be significantly related to empowerment. Two alternative explanations may account for the statistically insignificant finding. First, looking back over the history of work motivation theory development, much traditional field research on work motivation was empirically conducted in settings where jobs, such as car making (Gyllenhammar, 1977), key punching (Hackman and Oldham, 1980), or telephone service employees (Hackman and Lawler, 1971), key-in tasks (Herzberg, 1968), tend to be isolated and do not require high degrees of attention to interconnected set of jobs. In these workplaces, a new intervention of increasing the interaction with colleagues would provide workers with better self-reference, identity, and awareness of their work, which in turn leads to higher work motivation. As a result, the findings of these studies suggest that dealing with others should be beneficial for work motivation. However, it could be argued that service workers in the hotel industry are in constant contact with others. Their day-to-day activities inherently involve extensive interaction with colleagues and clients. Under the circumstances, the benefits of an increase in dealing with others might be suppressed by other job characteristics that might be considered more. Second, it is likely that, for some respondents, having opportunities for interaction is not as important as having pleasant or satisfied task interdependence. Clearly, future hospitality research on the effect of dealing with others is necessary

before any firm conclusions on the role of dealing with others as a condition important for empowerment are drawn.

Feedback from the job itself is related to empowerment, but feedback from others was not found to be significantly related to empowerment. Although “feedback from agents is often useful in supplementing JDS (Job Diagnosis Survey) information on feedback from the job itself” (Hackman and Oldham, 1980: 103), these two types of feedback are essentially distinctive entities. Hackman and Oldham did not explicitly address the utility of different sources of feedback on its effectiveness in terms of the cognitive mechanisms underlying the relation of feedback to perception. The current study shows that feedback would be more effective in improving perceived empowerment if it is self-generated rather than externally generated. This finding is supported in the literature (Greller and Herold’s, 1975; Earley, 1986). Earley’s (1986) study of employees in a magazine publisher found that self-generated feedback has a stronger effect on performance. Similarly, Greller and Herold (1975) examined the effect of different feedback sources on an individual’s reliance on feedback information, and they also found that individuals place a greater reliance on sources that are psychologically “close”. By “close”, they referred to feedback sources as intrinsic to the individual – “self-generated”.

Additionally, four alternative explanations may account for the insignificant relationship between externally generated feedback and empowerment. First, the sample in this study shows that feedback from others is negatively associated with their self-efficacy (see Table 7.3). Some research studies suggest that individuals will ignore negative feedback if it is inconsistent with their perceived abilities (Ilgen *et al*, 1979); namely, negative feedback will be less effective than positive feedback when it is inconsistent with an individual’s perceived ability. Several studies, examining the effect of feedback orientation on subsequent outcomes (Bandura and Cervone, 1983; Earley, 1984; Early, 1986), suggest that effective feedback must provide an individual with information relevant to his or her estimations of capacity to perform.

Second, in addressing the utility of different sources of feedback on its effectiveness, Earley (1985, 1986) suggests that feedback should be more effective in influencing a worker's performance when the worker trusts the source. When an individual perceives the feedback as reliable, fair, unbiased, his or her trust and acceptance would mediate the effect of the feedback source.

Third, feedback must aim for obtaining positive reinforcement, which is constant coaching, focused on solving a problem instead of punishing the employee as in traditional disciplinary systems. Coaching is a form of constant training and work motivation reinforcement. When empowered employees have made a mistake, in the vast majority of cases, the only appropriate reaction is coaching that tells them about how to work on their jobs. Punishing employees for mistakes will cause them to avoid taking the initiative or making additional decisions without approval. Instead of making things happen for guest satisfaction, employees who have too much concern about being chastised spend their time covering their backs.

Finally, Table 7.3 indicates that feedback from others is not related to perceived control in the sample studied. One important element of the perceived control scale is the capacity of using judgement and discretion to influence what is to happen in the group and how to achieve it (see the discussion of empowerment scales in Chapter 5). Increasingly, evidence suggests that "feedback specificity influences performance to the extent that it provides individuals with task-relevant information (a basis for planning)" (Earley, 1986). It is possible that typical feedback in the sample studied does not provide enough specific task-relevant information enough to be the basis for goal planning. The effects of specific versus non-specific feedback is discussed by Ilgen *et al* (1979), who argue that in general feedback is more beneficial if a superior provides specific information in the feedback process, rather than for a supervisor providing general feedback. The issue of feedback specificity had special significance in the goal-setting model (Earley, 1986); setting clear specific goals is more effective than vague goals (Locke and Latham, 1990). Informative feedback allows individuals to adjust their actions and the goals they set, which serves as a

cueing device to aid the development of information search and task strategy (Earley *et al*, 1990).

Thus, the line of reasoning in this section leads to the following implications:

**Implication 1:** More efforts need to be made to stretch workers' skills and develop their talents in the Taiwanese hotel industry if job enlargement is to lead to intended empowerment.

**Implication 2:** It is suggested that actions to change feedback orientation towards a more informative, specific, reliable, positive, evaluative, and appreciative manner might be appropriate in the Taiwanese hotel industry. The deliberate and nondeliberated feedback source will contain:

- more reliable and consistent messages that employees can trust and accept (relating feedback to efficacy);
- more expressions of high appreciation, encouragement, and support (relation of feedback to efficacy); and
- more specific information which would become an important reference to the employees for initiating and regulating actions, and influencing process or operating outcomes at work (relation of feedback to perceived control).

**Implication 3:** Since autonomy, variety and feedback are proved to influence one another, the considerations suggested in implications 1 and 2 will directly affect autonomous job design. The emergence and effectiveness of autonomy support will be facilitated to the extent to which:

- there is an opportunity for substantial two-way communication to enhance the mechanisms of feedback-autonomy interactions;
- the organisational culture values participation, open discussion, and a creative problem solving process;
- there is an opportunity for knowledge and skills development to enhance the mechanisms of variety-autonomy interactions; and

- human resource management emphasises flexibility and decentralisation.

### 10.2.3 Findings of hypothesis 2

The results of hypothesis 2 indicate that perceived empowerment facilitates employees' internal work motivation, which is supported by Thomas and Velthouse's (1990) conceptual work and Gagné *et al*'s (1997) quantitative study. The links from the empowerment dimensions to intrinsic motivation provide evidence for the differential influence of empowerment on intrinsic motivation experienced at work. For the empowerment dimensions, the more meaningful the work was perceived to be, the more intrinsically motivated the employee felt.

Employees' perceived efficacy affects their intrinsic motivation at work, which is also supported in literature (Conger and Kanungo, 1988; Thomas and Velthouse, 1990). Research generally shows that perceptions of competence are conducive to higher levels of intrinsic motivation (Bandura and Cervone, 1983; Deci and Ryan, 1985; Harackiewicz and Larson, 1986; Harter and Jackson, 1992; Losier and Vallerand, 1994). On the other hand, the insignificant links of this scale to growth needs satisfaction might be due to the relatively low mean of variety scale (Mean = 3.73 in seven-point scale). When the hotel employee's job is too simplified, he or she may have less opportunity to have the feeling of worthwhile accomplishment. At the same time, a simplified job would curtail the opportunity for using personal judgement and decision making, which could be one of the explanations as well. If efficacy perceived by the hotel employee is not accompanied by job challenges, it may not have the expected effects on growth need satisfaction.

Feelings of control are not related to internal work motivation in this sample. This finding is quite surprising in light of Deci's self-determination theory (Deci *et al*, 1989), in which self-determination is proximal to intrinsic motivation. There are two possible explanations for this. First, employees in the sample may need more constructive feedback in order to take initiative. Second, the employees are not satisfied with their pay (mean = 3.83 in seven-point scale). Employees need to have

adequate monetary compensation in order to use power and take pride in their jobs (Lawler 1992; Bowen and Lawler, 1992). It could be argued that intrinsic motivation should not be associated with extrinsic reward. However, monetary rewards sometimes serve as a means of a self-referent process. It shows employers' appreciation and reassures employees' self-worth.

Thus, the considerations suggest the following implication for Taiwanese hotel management:

**Implication 4:** In hotel work, perceived efficacy may not have the expected effects on growth need satisfaction, unless the jobs are challenging and could stretch the employee's skills and talents.

**Implication 5:** Perceived control should not simply be "delegated" or "conferred". It needs informative guidance and appropriate rewards in order to facilitate the hotel employee's internal work motivation.

#### **10.2.4 Findings of hypothesis 3 and 10**

##### **Pay**

Of the four contextual conditions, pay satisfaction was found to be the most influential moderator in job enrichment of empowerment relations, and it had the most predictive weight on organisational commitment. An explanation of this could be attributed to the unsatisfactory pay in the sample. As shown in Table 8.3, in comparison with the other contextual conditions, pay is the only factor that employees in the sample are not satisfied with (mean = 3.83). As argued by Kovach (1987), workers' desire for a particular work facet is strengthened when they believe it is lacking. It has been generally assumed that intrinsic and extrinsic reward have an additive effect upon the motivation of individuals in organisations. In other words, it is assumed that a person's overall level of motivation to perform effectively is determined by the sum of the person's intrinsic and extrinsic sources of motivation

(Boal and Cummings, 1981). The importance of pay found in the current study reflects the need for more research interest in monetary reward systems is needed.

On the contrary, this study also found that the amount of income was not related to empowerment and commitment. As previously discussed (see Chapter 8), these two findings are not contradictory to each other at all because better pay is not necessarily associated with higher commitment. Monetary rewards often lose their ability to motivate as employees with higher income levels may feel that they “deserve” it. On the other hand, perceived equity of pay has been associated with commitment (Salancik, 1977; Mowday *et al.*, 1982). To interpret the conceptual differences, it is useful to draw on Lawler’s (1987, 1992) work. Lawler suggests that compensation systems must meet employees’ expectations for equity or fairness since individual work motivation and performance are two of many factors that contribute to perceived compensation fairness (under the consideration of prevailing labour market wages, the responsibility of the position, skill and knowledge requirements, performance, and so on).

Virtually, all compensation studies note that pay is intended to attract and retain the employees as well as motivate greater individual performance (Boal and Cummings, 1981; Lawler, 1987, 1992). Compensation systems have already been burdened by demands for comparable worth, retention of “good” performers, inflation, and the like. As noted by the managers interviewed in this study, monetary rewards carry some considerable real cost to the organisation, and structuring a “good” reward system has been a serious concern in every Taiwanese hotel.

The terms – contingent reward, profit sharing, merit pay, or pay by performance systems – commonly appear in the empowerment literature. Two overall considerations were generated from the interviews during the fieldwork. The first concern is consistent with Lawler (1987); because the hotel (and restaurant) business is volatile and subject to economic fluctuation, it is believed that bonus plans are seen as more applicable than pay-raise and salary-increase plans. The use of bonuses permits substantial variation in an individual’s pay from one time period to another.

With salary-increase plans, in contrast, such flexibility is very difficult because past raises tend not to be rescinded especially when companies are facing financial pressures.

Second, all the managers interviewed supported team-based profit sharing systems instead of individual-based systems. They pointed out that in rewarding team members at the team level, the overall compensation system actively supports and reinforces team-based initiatives by rewarding co-operation, collaboration, teamwork, and collective results. Team level rewards direct members' efforts toward common goals, strategies and success factors, which in turn create value for both the employers and employees.

Of course, a team compensation system is not without its weakness, and an individual-based system has its merit. Peer pressure usually has a positive effect on team performance, but it can also prove negative (Newman and Krzystofiak, 1998; Zabal, 1999). To some extent, team compensation systems sometimes might serve to promote negative conformity; for example, an individual (star performer) feels that his or her contributions are undervalued, or this person feels pressure to perform at a minimum level in order to conform to lower performance exceptions. In this way, team pay may contribute to stifling individual efforts and creativity. In support of individually contingent pay, Weaver (1988) proposes a "Theory M" programme of motivation based on direct cash rewards for above-average productivity. The employee receives a percentage of any increase in sales or savings to the company generated by his or her efforts. Weaver suggests that this idea is primarily suited to hourly workers. Further, it could be extended to motivate general food and beverage employees and even other hotel employees, for example a bonus payment to night-desk staff for selling as many vacant rooms as possible or a pay incentive to housekeeping staff for dealing with an above-average number of rooms in a shift. The incentive should be paid to the employee as soon as possible. Weaver (1988: 41) argues:



During the phase-in period, the employee should receive the cash each night, since this will have the greatest impact on motivation. Employees should also be encouraged to compare their incentive earnings with each other. They are going to do this anyway, and their comparisons should be geared toward employees realising that they can earn substantially more money if they produce more.

However, this idea has never been empirically tested in the literature. The author discussed Weaver's proposition with the hotel managers interviewed. Generally, they believed that such a "transactional type" of individual merit pay might be based on a false assumption. It could be problematic in practice in that Weaver's proposition interferes with the dependence of individuals on the team (or in their organisations). To support the managers' scepticism, it is useful to draw on Thompson's (1967) dependence relations in organisations, which the author believes could best describe the concerns about total quality management in hotel work.

First, individuals are most interdependent when they must work together, interacting during task performance, in order to complete their work. Individually contingent pay would rarely be advocated in the case of this reciprocal interdependence, since credit and blame are virtually impossible to assign to individuals.

Second, sequentially dependent employees rely on others for either their inputs, for the disposal of their outputs, or both. Thus, pay dysfunction may result from the use of individually contingent pay for sequentially dependent employees, which is rarely fair to others in upstream work activities and could damage the norm of respectful reciprocity.

Third, pooled interdependence is the collective dependence of employees on the continued success of the organisation. Thompson argues that employees may not be directly independent from others for their task performance but are still jointly dependent with all other participants on their organisation's ability to provide employment and other resources.

In addition, individually contingent pay (i.e., Theory M) may distract employees' attention from more abstract dependence relationships and interfere with members' commitment to their team and employers. By treating them as labour contractors, employees are encouraged to work only on activities represented in their contracts, and are motivated to reject or avoid unattractive assignments, in the absence of expected direct incentives. While this "transactional contract" becomes a group norm, organisational commitment will be undermined. In such a work climate, it may seem stupid to take on an unattractive assignment, go beyond the call of duty, or make personal sacrifices for the collective mission. When the employer pays only for the recent performance period, such transactional norms deliberately or undeliberately communicate that the employer is only concerned with the employee's immediately measurable performance, and is indifferent to past or unobservable contributions, and to the employee's potential for other kinds of work.

Therefore, paying people on the basis of their recent measured individual performance simply does not build on the relative advantages of the organisational form. Most hotels succeed because of co-operation among their members, not because of the members' discrete, independent performance. Such co-operation is particularly critical among employees with either valuable expertise (which may be the basis for the hotel's competitive advantage) or the discretion to commit the organisation's resources (i.e., managers). It is simply not in the hotel's interest to encourage short-term single-transaction expectations among such important employees. Drawing on Schneider *et al* (1994), we have to realise that organisational culture partly stems from employees' interpretations of organisational practices, procedures, and rewards. Pay is important, and the ways in which organisations dispense it suggests a lot about the actions they expect from their employees; it directly reinforces desired behaviour and forms the culture. Put simply, groups could be formed for economic reasons. "Where bonuses are paid to workers on the basis of group productivity, and incentive exists to band together for mutual gain" (Steers and Porter, 1991). When management rewards collective effort, employees value collective effort.

In conclusion, does money cause changes in the hotel employee' perceptions of work? This study provides strong evidence that the answer is yes – monetary compensations affect the levels of empowerment, commitment, and work motivation; at least money matters to hotel workers. Perhaps most importantly, companies need to ask how various types of reward systems can further their objectives. So far, most of the empowerment research has involved monetary compensation. We have already begun to learn how money can increase performance and stimulate employees to build skills and knowledge. Will other rewards also stimulate such outcomes and add to the intrinsic or extrinsic value chain that motivates performance, builds commitment and encourages growth in employees' skills? The answer is also yes – based on the evidence from job and contextual characteristics in this study. If we begin to answer these questions, we can understand the impact of what motivation researchers call “intrinsic” (i.e., job characteristics discussed here) and “extrinsic” rewards (i.e., contextual conditions in this case) more completely. Elements in these two sets of factors are value-added in the empowerment procedure. No matter how job characteristics could provide growth opportunities, interests, and challenges, there will still be dissatisfaction if pay or any sort of social structural support is inadequate. No matter how good extrinsic compensations may be, this alone will not provide the intrinsic satisfaction or motivation that comes from doing a worthwhile job. So far we have recognised that an effective reward system depends on our ability to monitor and strengthen all complements and interrelationships of the value-added elements. “People respond in one way to their task, in another way to their environment: management ignores either at its peril” (Paul and Robertson, 1970: 14).

**Implication 6:** In order for a compensation system to be an effective motivator, hotel compensation systems must consider:

- the behaviour and results desired (why);
- the rewards that motivate employees (what); and
- the conditions necessary to facilitate this relationship (how and when).

**Implication 7:** Teams have become a popular way for hotels to organise business because they enable management to be responsive to the ever-changing business arena. One way to support and reinforce this team concept is through the compensation system at the team level. Specifically, the ideal team compensation system must:

- assure perceived equity and justice;
- support cohesive and coactive teams;
- compliment and reward organisational citizenship behaviour which reinforces synergistic energy; and
- foster teamwork and organisational goals.

### **Security**

Job security was found to be a significant predictor of organisational commitment. These findings reassure us that security of employment could signal a long-standing commitment by the organisation to its workforce. Norms of reciprocity tend to guarantee that this commitment is “repaid”. This reciprocity is like a two-way street. Without increased “corporate commitment” to people, we can barely expect increased “employee commitment”. However, conversely, an employer that explicitly or implicitly signals through word and deed that its employees are dispensable is not likely to generate much loyalty, commitment, or willingness to expend extra effort for the organisation’s benefit.

Moreover, perceived job security was found to be one of the moderators that affect job enrichment and perceived empowerment relationships in the Taiwanese hotel industry. This data suggests that employment security should enhance employee involvement because employees are more willing to contribute to the work process when they do not need to fear losing their own or their co-workers’ jobs. In this way, job security would contribute to training employees for taking enriched jobs as both employer and employee have greater incentives to invest in training because there is some assurance that the reliable relationship will be of sufficient duration to earn a return on the time and resource expended in skill development. Employees will feel

more empowered once basic conditions of security are met. They know they are cared for and trust that the reciprocity will be sustained and not be violated. Although, fluctuating demand for labour characterises hospitality organisations (Baum, 1995, Wood, 1997), the author of this study believes that, in some cases for full time employees, the specific decisions made by top management or voluntary turnover (i.e., in some inevitable and painful situations) may be less important for future corporate success than the fact that people have the trust in organisational dependability.

**Implication 8:** Although job-hopping is common in the hospitality industry, it by no means implies that hotel employees do not care about organisational dependability. Without corporate loyalty to employees, organisations cannot expect increased commitment from them.

### **Peer relationships**

The data from this study suggests that positive and supportive relationships among co-workers will moderate the direction of job enrichment to perceived empowerment. The results also suggest that hotel workers who are more satisfied with interpersonal relationships and helping behaviour among peers are more likely to have higher organisational commitment. This relationship suggests that the kinds of consequences to be expected from having jobs with high positive interpersonal components are primarily social in nature. The author posits two considerations specific to hospitality work that may hinder the development of constructive peer relationships, and therefore establishing organisational citizenship behaviour can not be overlooked. First, with the new members joining and old ones leaving at a fairly consistent rate in service organisations, high turnover culture might become a barrier for affiliation among peers and cohesive work groups. Second, people in many departments have to work in different shifts, which could slow the process of establishing close relationships.

To maintain total quality management and excellent service (i.e., “whatever it takes” or customised service; see Lashley, 1999), hospitality organisations should not only focus on the employee’s personal role-prescribed task performance, which can be thought of as the proficiency with which people perform activities that are formally recognised as part of their jobs (Borman and Motowidlo, 1993). These role-prescribed activities often are those identified by job analysis techniques of the industrial psychologist (which is one of the reasons why this study avoided using ratings to measure personal performance effectiveness, and therefore used internal work motivation and organisational commitment scales instead). Alternatively, organisational citizenship behaviours are less frequently thought of as in-role and, therefore, are more discretionary in nature. These behaviours include volunteering to help out a co-worker and to take on other duties beyond regularly assigned ones (Brief and Motowidlo, 1986; George and Brief, 1992, Van Dyne, Graham and Dienesch, 1994). In this respect, OCBs can be thought of as forms of contextual performance, as an individual expands the role-prescribed criterion domain to include elements of contextual performance (Borman and Motowidlo, 1993). The spontaneous helping behaviour among co-workers will then automatically constitute a set of extra role behaviour including protecting the organisation, making constructive suggestions, and spreading goodwill (George and Brief, 1992). People who are more satisfied with how their co-workers treat them are more likely to volunteer to take on duties beyond those regularly assigned to them. These voluntary acts can facilitate organisational goal attainment (Batemen and Organ, 1983).

### **Supervision**

The results also found that supportive supervision was positively related to organisational commitment and could positively moderate the direction of job enrichment to hotel workers’ internal work motivation. As measured in this research, this relationship suggests that the kinds of consequences to be expected from having superiors with the traits of showing respect, fair treatment, support, guidance, and overall quality supervision are primary empowering and motivating in nature, and are one of the reason why employees would be more committed to their hotels.

In the past five decades or so, the concept of leadership has grown in popularity in the literature (for a review of this literature from the Ohio State leadership studies in the late 1940s to recently popular topics on leader-member exchange, charismatic, transformational leadership, etc.; see Steers *et al*, 1996). Researchers and practitioners have conceptualised it in work settings as a social influence process through which one individual exerts influence over others to structure the behaviours and relationships within a group or organisation (Yukl, 1994). From the standpoint of understanding the behaviour of people at work, Katz and Kahn (1978) present a particularly useful definition of leadership – the essence of organisational leadership is “the influence increment over and above mechanical compliance with the routine directives of the organisation” (Katz and Kahn, 1978: 528). Furthermore, from Katz and Kahn’s perspective, leadership occurs when one individual influences others to perform voluntarily above the minimum requirements of their work roles. These authors argue that the voluntary aspect of followers’ responses to leadership distinguishes leadership from other influence processes, such as position power or formal authority. Several issues closely related to this study’s findings are now discussed.

Empowerment involves allowing employees to make decisions. When a hotel supervisor resists empowering line employees, the resistance is typically based on the fact that the supervisor does not trust the subordinate to make the decision; an example of this non-empowerment is when front desk clerks must get their managers’ approval to make adjustments to a guest’s disputed bill. In fact, there is always a paradox between autonomy support and the risks of incurring too many mistakes made by empowered employees. In the case of the front desk, even if management has set ceilings under which the clerks can grant room-rate adjustment, the concern is that too many adjustments will be granted. Even when the authorisation has been granted, the managers are still held accountable for employees’ actions. Therefore the contradiction between the employees’ perception of management rhetoric and the perception of continuous support, in terms of managers’ attitudes and behaviour, could often undermine mutual trust over time.

Could management reach a balance between the inevitable costs and benefits for empowerment? It is a difficult question, and there is no set or easy answer for how far to extend employees' empowerment to make decisions. In the literature, it was suggested that there are so many benefits from empowerment, but there are always costs for every action taken to empower employees. Perhaps a way to resolve this issue is for managers to ask themselves whether they really have the trust in authorising the control (the extent of support)? Sternberg (1992: 71) suggests:

When a supervisor resists empowerment, examine the issue of trust. Why doesn't trust exist? If it is a lack of training or experience, the deficiency can be remedied over time. If you (managers) believe that the person will engage in malfeasance, that is an issue that must be dealt with in other ways. Assuming there's no illicit intent, training often helps both supervisors and subordinates become comfortable with empowerment.

Training is one of the key methods that hospitality managers employ to maintain product and service quality. Training has long been a popular topic in the literature. Specific or development-oriented training (i.e., short-term, long-term, skill/knowledge-based, interpersonal relationships, decision-making process, etc.) has been linked with many motivation and satisfaction outcomes. Roehl and Swerdlow (1999) review this literature and note:

Training has been linked with improved self-esteem, reduced turnover, better product and service consistency, higher guest satisfaction (Wheelhouse, 1989), reduced business cost, the use of new technology (Van Hoof *et al*, 1995), greater ability to meet the needs of target market (Shaw and Patterson, 1995), more qualified employees (Josiam and Clements, 1994), increased self-awareness, improved attitude, more teamwork (Conrade *et al*, 1994), greater job satisfaction, and greater organisational commitment.



Roehl and Swerdlow conducted a study of employees in franchise lodging organisations in the U.S., and found that training had not only a direct positive relationship with morale, perception of supervisor quality, and awareness of rules, but also a significant indirect effect on organisational commitment. Although some research speaks to the proposition of training cost in which considerable money and resources may be invested (Bowen and Lawler, 1992), the author of the current study could not identify any direct test that found the benefits of training would eventually fail to compensate its cost. Apparently, employees can be empowered not only because managers are willing to support autonomy, but also because the authorised ones have developed the capacity to use the power. To ask the question again – “how far could an empowered employee go to make decisions?” Before answering this question, management may well ask themselves – “what training have they undertaken?” The underlying conception is that constructive supervision should be proactive in orientation. Quality supervision involves assisting employees so that they will become empowered and begin to take on greater responsibilities.

In closing this section, the author of this study will allude to two concerns that probably should have received more empowerment research attention than they have. First, perhaps for many practitioners, there is a blurred line between coaching (continuous guidance from supervisors) and training, and this line become a management folly in the process of building employees’ efficacy. Krazmien and Berger (1997) surveyed 94 hotel managers and found a common misconception in the industry. They note (Krazmien and Berger, 1997: 8):

Training is a structured and formal organisational activity, employees often concentrate to intensely on learning new information and the practice and follow-up are overlooked. The fundamentals of a new skill are learned or knowledge pertaining to certain issues is increased. Moreover, training is often conducted in large groups. Finally, the employees may not be involved in the decision to train or in the selection of training topics and the timing of the training may not be suitable. As a result, basics may be learned but finesse usually is not developed.

In contrast with training, coaching tends to be perceived as less formal and is often provided on an individual needs basis. Managers determine when coaching is appropriate through observation and feedback. Coaching does not replace formal training; rather, it supplements and supports more formal efforts. It is important that you deliberately select coaching as the appropriate method of intervention rather than simply respond by coaching whenever a performance problem arises.

It could, to some extent, be too artificial to impose a distinction between these two constructs because training programmes could also be personal and situational (Beckert and Walsh, 1991). Krazmien and Berger point out the common misconceptions which occurs frequently in the hotel industry. In the meantime, this study believes that future research on the conceptual differences in service organisations is optimistic, given Krazmien and Berger's (1997) distinction.

The second issue is the fair treatment of managers. Equity theory can be thought of as concerned with distributive justice, referring to the distribution of outcomes (e.g., rewards). Following the publication of Folger and Greenberg (1985), organisational scientists broadened their interests in justice to include procedural as well as distributive concerns. Procedural justice shifts attention from what is decided to how decisions are made to distribute reward (Cropanzano and Folger, 1996). Perception of fairness matters, but this study's concern is Brief's (1998) notion that when workers receive outcomes they judge to be unfair, perceptions of procedural fairness protect them against the level of dissatisfaction they might have otherwise experienced. Given that highly interdependent task activities and collective effect might cause the cognitive unfairness of reward distribution, what hospitality managers should learn in order to promote service workers' perception of procedural justice that dissipates the dissatisfaction of distributive injustice should be a good topic for future hospitality research.

**Implication 9:** Service organisations must not overlook the important role of constructive peer relationships. To improve the chances of success in structuring empowerment efforts and attaining high organisational commitment, supportive and helping relationship should be developed. As these values come to be shared and lived, the quality of work and service provided are likely to increase in work groups.

**Implication 10:** A supportive manager should be a proactive coach who builds employees' capacity prior to sharing authority; empowering procedure is an "enabling" procedure. To ask the question – "how far could an empowered employee to make decisions?" Before answering this question, management may well ask themselves – "what training have they undertaken?"

#### **10.2.5 Findings of hypothesis 4**

The results of hypothesis 4 support the argument that three empowerment dimensions are strongly associated with organisational commitment. Since the general interpretation of the findings has been discussed in Chapter 7, this chapter only raises some critical considerations that have often been ignored by practitioners.

#### **Meaningfulness**

Meaningfulness was found to have the strongest relationship with the three aspects of organisational commitment – value congruence, extra efforts and loyalty. The reasoning of this is simple in that the cognition of value-fit is obviously the bridge to the person-organisation bond. However, the salience of the "value-fit" is often ignored by practitioners and researchers. Thus, to have a complete upstanding of it several considerations must be deliberated.

It is an interesting question: how and why would there be a value-fit for hotel workers? According to Schneider *et al* (1994), the organisational values could predominantly be initiated by managers' behaviour and the actions they reward; such as different intrinsic and extrinsic rewards, or many charismatic leadership behaviours (i.e., values and moral justification; reference to history; story telling;

positive references to employees' self-worth; and so on). However the critical point is that these actions should appeal to existing elements of the line employees' values and identities (Shamir *et al*, 1993). In other words, to bridge personal values and organisational interests, top managers should not install totally new values and identities in the line employees' self-concept; rather they should articulate followers' values and identities that they hold (but have not been able to articulate clearly to themselves), and connect them with goals and values required (Shamir *et al*, 1993). In this sense, the values raised by top managers must respond to line employees' personal values, no less than the line employees' values to the top managers'. As argued by O'Reilly (1989, in Steers *et al*, 1996: 373), "it is a common occurrence to find a noble sounding statement of corporate values framed on the wall and a very different and cynical interpretation of this creed held by people who have been around long enough to realise what is really important." As such, the real value internalisation process can only occur when the values of the followers and the leader are not in opposition (Shamir *et al*, 1993).

However, how do top managers identify line employees' values and concerns? The results of testing for hypothesis 4 provide an answer – the employee's perceived control has a significant effect on value congruence. One way to identify line employees' values and obtain the fit between an individual's beliefs and top managers' values is to encourage participative decision-making (Macher, 1988; Rudolph and Kleiner, 1989). As Spreitzer (1996: 489) recognises that "the participative climate provides a frame of reference through which individuals make sense of organisational life, and shapes behaviours and modes attitudes". Moreover, she further notes:

In participative climates, the acknowledgement, creation, and liberation of employees are valued. Whereas in nonparticipative climates control, order, and predictability are valued (Evered and Selman, 1989). Furthermore, participative climates emphasise individual contribution and initiative rather than top-down command and control (Lawler, 1992). Such a climate recognises the critical value of human capital to the

success of an organisation and the importance of employees' creativity and initiative for organisational responsiveness in a competitive external environment (Bowen and Lawler, 1992).

Employees who find a fit between the requirement of a work role and their personal concerns and beliefs make a fundamental shift from a passive to a creative orientation concerning their roles and responsibilities. As a result they become willing and able to invest themselves fully in their work. "They think and act like partners in business rather than employees. This shift occurs because their deepest needs are met – the needs for meaning, for power or significance, and for true camaraderie" (Rudolph and Kleiner, 1989: iii). Service workers become involved in their jobs that, first of all, have meaning for them.<sup>1</sup> Cynicism about work and membership in organisations is a common occurrence in workplaces. It is a natural emotion that there are psychological protections against chronic frustration. "Empowered people take personal responsibility to ensure that their work has meaning and that they do not become cynical" (Macher, 1988: 42). They are committed workers because their companies provide jobs that they desire (Mathieu and Zajac, 1990).

### **Perceived control**

It is appropriate to review the definition of perceived control this study generalised from the imperial data factor analysis:

Perceived control is the hotel employee's belief that he or she can use personal initiative and discretion on the job, and can control or influence what will happen on the team.

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<sup>1</sup> Although job involvement is a widely used term in recent empowerment research, it is often vaguely defined and used. It is interesting to draw on Morrow (1983). He defined this term as "the degree to which a person is identified psychologically with his or her work" (Morrow, 1983: 488). The primary distinction between job involvement and organisational commitment is that job involvement describes an employee's attachment to his or her job, whereas organisational commitment describes an attachment between an employee and the organisation. Mathieu and Zajac, (1990) argue that these two constructs would be corrected to the extent that an organisation provides employees with the jobs they desire.

Results from Hypothesis 4 indicate that the systems advancing the employee's perceived control is a critical mechanism in developing organisational commitment. These systems encourage people to be involved and send signals to the individual that he or she is valued. In hotels, these systems may range from higher levels of control, such as "encouraging employees to make recommendations for improving the system (i.e., the policies, procedures, and rules; equipment and supplies; and the physical plant)", to everyday control, such as "giving employee the authority to make everyday (routine) decisions" (Sternberg, 1992: 69). The perceived control can also be elicited by any managerial effort, for example, team briefings, open-door policy and suggestion box. "The idea of MBWA (management by wandering around) has been a popular trend in several Taiwanese hotels studied in recent years", said an F&B manager interviewed in this study. It is believed that MBWA could help management identify problems actively, and its informal and caring style creates better two-way communication and a participative climate. In a study of employee empowerment in services, Lashley (1999: 177) notes that "pre-service team briefing sessions are used to both provide employees with immediate information about the operation and company objectives, but are also used to test out ideas with employees and gain suggestions." What is important about these processes is that the employee is encouraged to develop a sense of responsibility, ownership for their actions, and to make incremental decisions. The perceived control would then become the ingredients for shared values and prosocial behaviours (which is quantitatively proved in this sample as well; see Table 7.9).

### **Perceived efficacy**

The data indicated that the hotel employees' perceived efficacy is related to extra role behaviour and organisational loyalty. However its relation to value congruence is not significant. This insignificant link reveals an issue that the hotel managers in this sample should not overlook in order for people to be motivated to contribute to more collective efforts. To explain it, the author of this research borrows two interactive concepts from the motivation literature under the consideration that most hotel jobs involve intensive "sequential" and "pooled" task interdependence. The two

concepts are: (1) Lawler's (1982) expectancy formula of collective motivation; (2) shared values.

Lawler's proposes an expectancy formula of collective motivation. Since it has been discussed in the literature. This section only briefly reiterates the formula:

$$\text{Collective motivation} = \text{prob} (P_i \rightarrow P_o) \times \text{prob} (P_o \rightarrow O_i)$$

Where  $P_i$  = performance of the individual,  $P_o$  = performance of the organisation, and  $O_i$  = outcomes for the individual.

According to this formula, the worker is motivated to contribute to collective performance to the extent that his or her self-efficacy would have an impact on collective performance, and to the extent that the collective performance would eventually result in his or her extrinsic or intrinsic rewards. However, in most of the situations, it is difficult for a hotel worker to accurately assess the probability that his or her self-efficacy will result in collective accomplishments because the intensively interdependent work also depends to some extent on the personal efficacy of other team and organisational members (their level of professional competence, knowledge, skills, etc). Therefore, perhaps an element sometimes missing from the above expectancy formula in a hospitality worker's everyday work life is the perceived probability that his or her collective effort will definitely result in collective accomplishment. Further, it could be unrealistic to expect that the effort invested by the person would perfectly and accurately serve as the criterion for reward allocation (which is discussed in the pay section above in this chapter). When these two aspects of perceived probability are vague (or mostly subject to situations), the internalised norms and values could become an evaluative ingredient for the person to exert collective efforts regardless of the calculative considerations (Shamir, 1990). Thus, a person who is interested in maintaining or increasing collective effort either for its own rewarding properties or because it is instrumental for obtaining other outcomes, has very good reasons to maximise his/her contribution, even when the probability that the contribution will make a difference is low. Following this line of reasoning, it is clear at present that the concept of value congruence or group

coherence should be combined with Lawler's collective expectancy model in order to strengthen group morale. This consideration is related to the concept of group potency, which refers to "the collective belief in a group that it can be effective" (Guzzo *et al*, 1993: 87). If efficacious employees could have internalised values, they will be to the ultimate advantage of most of the hotels.

Finally, taking all the issues discussed in this section together (the multidimensional constructs of perceived empowerment and organisational commitment), the author of the current study believes that commitment is the synergistic outcomes at the individual and organisational levels, derived from the service workers' three aspects of empowerment. Also, such outcomes would lead to newly enhanced outcomes at the very core of all organisational functioning. It is the interactions of individuals in an ongoing organisational process in which people's work attitudes, values and moods are shaped. Given this circular response, the achievement of involvement and functional unity is always a process not a product. At this point, the author echoes many researchers' opinions, and suggests that empowerment in service organisations is an ongoing and continual cyclical process (Conger and Kanungo, 1988; Thomas and Velthouse, 1990; Hurst, 1992; Eylon, 1998).

These considerations suggest the following implication:

**Implication 11:** The more the hotel workers perceive that their jobs are meaningful, the more the hotel employees will demonstrate their organisational commitment. However, organisational values and goals installed by top management should be congruent with the existing values and identities held by line employees, and the messages from top management should contain more reference to values and moral justification in order to promote the intended work climate. One pragmatic way to identify employees' concerns and beliefs is to create a participative climate.

**Implication 12:** Actions to relate shared values to employees' efficacy should be taken for the Taiwanese hotel industry in order to go beyond the limitations of



Lawler's calculative collective motivation model and obtain higher group morale as well as group potency.

#### **10.2.6 Findings of hypothesis 5**

The field test in the Taiwanese hotel industry on the distinction between knowledge enlargement and task enlargement provides positive support for Campion and McClelland's (1993) work. It suggests that knowledge enlargement is better than task enlargement for hotel management to obtain greater employee perceived empowerment, organisational commitment and internal work motivation. These two concepts are briefly reviewed here before the in-depth discussion specific to the hotel job domain. In Campion and McClelland's (1993) field experimental study, a distinction is made between task enlargement (i.e., adding requirements to the job for doing other task on the same product) and knowledge enlargement (i.e., adding requirements to the job for understanding procedures or rules relating to different products), with the former shown to reduce satisfaction and the latter to increase it.

Another innovative concept involved in the hypothetical analysis design is job rotation. The author of the current study was not surprised to learn that the contribution of job rotation itself in hotel work is negligible in this sample (see the results of hypothesis 8). What should be considered in the hotel work redesign research is the fact that many hospitality jobs are rather routine in nature. When an organisation has a series of routine jobs that cannot be combined or enriched, it is possible to rotate workers from one job to the next over time. The aim of this job rotation is to minimise the routine and boredom as much as possible through a change in activities. The commonly expected benefits are that the employee learns different jobs and the company develops a more flexible workforce. Even so, job rotation does not solve the basic problem of unenriched and unchallenging jobs (Herzberg, 1968; Steers, 1981); neither does it increase perceived empowerment and organisational commitment as identified in the current study.

Therefore, the weakness of the job rotation could, in some respects, be the lack of management awareness of the problem – the perception of routine and unchallenging work requirements. In fact, Steers (1981) suggests that job rotation “should be used only as a temporary or last resort technique.” If a job does not become more enriched, rotation is no more than rotating the assignments of a number of jobs that need to be enriched. Of course, from the employers’ point of view, rotation could perfectly meet the company’s interest, in terms of staffing and functional flexibility. Consequently, it tends to be “seen primarily as a means of increasing productivity rather than improving the quality of working life” (Wood, 1997: 176). Taco Bell’s unsuccessful experience in the late 1980s could exemplify the weakness of rotation (see literature review). Rotating Taco Bell’s waiters between kitchens and dining rooms might seem to be knowledge enlargement because they were expected to learn back-of-the-house and front-of-the-house activities. However, if the expanded skills were seen as simple and the additional tasks activities were regarded as unenriched and unchallenging, the way job rotation was introduced at Taco Bell might not be perceived as the opportunity to enhance skill variety (i.e., jobs are enriched to challenge or stretch their skills or abilities) but as an unwarranted workload. Indeed, as far as employees are concerned, the benefits of job rotation depend on how management arranges it. A front office manager interviewed in this study suggested that job rotation should be a way of alleviating stress among employees and providing a respite from particularly stressful jobs. Therefore, in the hotels studied it is common to see front office clerks transfer from reception desk to information desk, to business centre, or to reservation in a certain period of time (mostly on an ad hoc basis, subject to situations and people). In this sense, rotation could serve as a means of “respite” from stress or mental overload or underload. However, there is still no direct and persuasive evidence to link it to perceived empowerment, organisational commitment, and internal motivation.

Thus, is it an unrealistic hypothesis for management to relate job rotation to intended empowerment and commitment? This study provides strong evidence that the answer is no – rotation could be empowering but it is conditional. The critical criteria are the opportunities of stretching various skills – an extension of Campion and

McClelland's (1993) work on knowledge enlargement. The author of the current study suggests a correct way to conceptualise it – do not think of rotation as a primary move; instead, treat rotation as the “grease” that allows the wheels of job enlargement design to turn smoothly.

In closing this section, this study provides an optimistic view of future knowledge and task enlargement as well as job rotation research. Still, many questions remain unanswered, such as:

- What is the optimal combination of different hotel job components?
- What are the best intervals to transfer different workers among different departments?
- How do the costs and benefits in practising knowledge and task enlargement would change over time in longitudinal research design (Whether there is a transient Hawthorne effect or situational changes)?

Research on knowledge and task enlargement and their motivation outcomes is rewarding because hotels always have a series of routine jobs that need to be combined, and flexibility will become more and more important in human resource management. This study takes the first step and awaits further such investigations in hospitality literature.

Thus, a managerial implication is proposed:

**Implication 13:** Managers should not think of job rotation as a primary move; instead, they should treat rotation as the “grease” that allows the wheels of job enlargement design to turn smoothly.

#### **10.2.7 Findings of hypothesis 9, 11 and 12**

Results of hypothesis 9 suggest that there is a positive collective effect of job characteristics on organisational commitment. This study draws on the job

characteristics model (Hackman and Oldham, 1980) and Steers (1977) commitment research to suggest that enriched jobs should yield higher organisational commitment from employees. Further, borrowing the logic of the job characteristics model, employee growth needs strength were directly tested to be a moderator of this relationship in hypothesis 11, and the role of growth need strength as a moderator were supported. Since these two hypotheses are an expansion of the job characteristics model, there is much theoretical overlap between this section and above-mentioned job characteristics section; the conceptual repetition is not reiterated here.

With respect to the results of hypothesis 12, the negative relation between commitment and intention to leave is supported in the literature (Mathieu and Zajac, 1990). On the other hand, it is speculated that due to the lack of a career development path, high growth-needs-strength hospitality workers might either see current jobs as a stepping stone for better alternative job opportunities or be disappointed by unsatisfactory growth opportunities. However, contrary to expectation, personal growth needs strength was found not to be related to intention to leave. It is likely that during the period of the survey, business in Taiwan suffered from the Asian economic crisis. As such, it is obviously a wise choice for them to stay with the organisation when alternative employment opportunities are limited.

Before summarising this section, one more point must be stressed. Although the role of growth needs strength as a moderator of the relationship between enrichment and motivation outcomes was supported in this study, it will be a spurious assumption to say that low-growth-needs hotel workers do not want enriched jobs – the data tell us that employees with low grow needs will positively react to enriched jobs as well. The author suggests that, in order to be effective, the presence of certain external situational characteristics, such as pay and supervision support, should be contingent with the adoption of enrichment interventions especially for low-growth-needs hotel workers.

Thus, a managerial implication is proposed:

**Implication 14:** Job enrichment is a critical mechanism in developing organisational commitment for all hotel employees, whether the individual's growth needs strength is high or low. In order to be effective, the presence of certain external situational characteristics, such as pay and supervision support may be contingent with the adoption of enrichment interventions especially for low-growth-needs hotel workers.

### **10.2.8 Findings of hypothesis 8 and 13**

The data show that position level and tenure are positively related to hotel employees' perceived empowerment; men are more likely to have higher perceived empowerment than women; older workers become more committed to their company. Since two other variables – job and contextual characteristics – entered in the first step of the hierarchical regression models have been discussed above, this section avoids repetition.

With respect to age, this study would suggest a positive relationship to organisational commitment as both calculative and attitudinal. In calculative terms, older age would limit service workers' alternative employment opportunities. With respect to attitude, Meyer and Allen (1984) suggest that the process of cognitive justification make older employees identify more with organisational values and be more satisfied with their jobs.

The interpretation of the finding regarding the disparity between the workers' perceptions of empowerment in the three position levels (managers, supervisor and general workers) is analogous to that in the supervision section in this chapter. An additional interpretation of the difference is that it is common and healthy to have supervisors with higher power in order to direct the company to the course of sustainable competitiveness. On the other hand, Taiwanese hotel managers should also learn the philosophical distinction between "power with" and "power over" if there is a respectful reciprocity among organisational members; if the power is really an "expandable pie" (Parker and Price, 1994; Keller and Dansereau, 1995; see

Chapter 5 of this thesis). As the Chinese proverb says – there are no weak troops under a strong general. Having powerful troops would not jeopardise a leader's position; instead, winning the war makes him more powerful. In this respect, I only partly agree with the rhetoric – legendary service begins at the bottom (Blanchard, 1990); I believe that legendary service starts with determination at the top.

Next, in normal situations (or at best, when all covariates are controlled), longer tenure means more experience in the process of socialisation. It is plausible that experienced service workers would have better control and higher knowledge and skills, and managers would feel more comfortable to share power with competent ones. This assumption could be extended to explain the value of a lower turnover rate in an organisation.

As previously suggested, women have less opportunities to be empowered to take challenging jobs and to become leaders in the hotel industry. Is there a stereotypical barrier within the business (i.e., hiring, training, managerial selection, etc.), or are women thought of as less effective leaders so that it is not worth the investment to promote their power? Many questions await more empirical testing. If this is because of the former, it may take time for people from predominantly male positions to change this stereotype. If it is because of the latter, more direct tests on the comparison of women and men's leadership style (i.e., interpersonal vs. task achievement; democratic vs. autocratic style, etc.) under a focused culture might be worthwhile. Could we speculate that hotel women workers tend to have less need for empowerment because in climbing the hotel career ladder, a woman would have to sacrifice personal life? It is an interesting question, but this speculation may be theoretically groundless.

## CHAPTER 11

### CONCLUSION

#### **11.1 Introduction**

In this final chapter, the wider implications of this research are discussed. It seeks to draw some conclusions and assess the prospects for empowerment in organisations. This chapter will also consider methodological limitations and directions for future research. This thesis integrates the three models – JCM, psychological empowerment and commitment, and develops a new interpretation of their interplay in the empowerment of service workers. All the issues of interest in this research interweave with the consideration of intrinsic and extrinsic work values held and perceived by jobholders, which illuminates how people's work attitudes are formed in and around work groups and organisations. This thesis views empowerment as an on-going process interwoven with interdependent variables, individuals and situations. Hence, the generalisations of this study arguably go beyond the hospitality industry and can equally be applied to organisations in the wider service sector.

#### **11.2 Wider implications of this research**

Perhaps one of the most important lessons to be learnt from the data investigated here is that if management of service organisations truly wants to improve employees' work attitudes and commitment, they must take an active role in understanding how the dynamic nature of empowerment is enhanced. It is a two-way influence that should aim to integrate the views, ideas, and interests of top management and line employees without coercive authority and deceitful gestures. It is a respect for the law of reciprocity that can be reinforced by various value-added motivating job characteristics and social/contextual supports. In addition, a person comes to the job with certain expectations about the type and amount of rewards that he or she should receive for services rendered; thus, different people in different situations can be empowered in different ways. As such, any attempt by managers to improve empowerment should be prefaced by examining the nature of the tasks which employees are asked to perform. In a broader sense, managers should give

increased attention to creating supportive environments. They must be sensitive enough to know what is empowering and what is disempowering.

More importantly, the thesis develops an analysis of the interactions between each dimension of empowerment and commitment. The underlying premise behind the design of hypothesis 4 hinges on the philosophy that people can not be “told” or “persuaded” to get involved attitudinally in their jobs and become committed to their organisations. Instead, commitment and empowerment are reciprocal, and they are the blossoming of experience (or so-called task and global assessment). We can not confer power because it is a self-developing product. Likewise, we must understand the philosophy that rather than rearranging existing values, to bring more into existence is the highest mission of enlightened human interactions in a culture of success. It is an acting and reacting process which brings out differences and integrates them into a unity (Hurst, 1992); the interweaving of differences is the source of business innovation and the findings of the third way.

With respect to the investigations of job characteristics, this study goes beyond Campion and McClelland’s knowledge and task enlargement experimental field research by also drawing on job rotation, and links these three concepts (knowledge/task enlargement and job rotation) to empowerment, internal work motivation, and commitment. This is an important issue, given that labour flexibility (and particularly multiskilling) is likely to be a key trend in the future of human resource management in the service industry. In addition, the tests on the additive effects of autonomy, variety and feedback in the design of hypothesis 6 and 7, as mechanistic as they may seem to be, does, in effect, demonstrate why so many companies’ empowerment programmes end up being dismissed as nothing more than a fad. Very often, researchers and practitioners over-stress the intended benefits of “delegating” authority and stop short of considering the philosophy that genuine authority is the result of the integrative functions of many managerial elements. For example, the interpretation of the results of hypothesis 6 and 7 in Chapter 10 provides evidence that the emergence and effectiveness of autonomy support will be



facilitated to the extent to which the management values two-way communication, coaching, and learning as well as skill development.

Drawing on the concept of task interdependence within groups and organisations in different aspects of empowerment throughout this study (e.g., job and structural characteristics and commitment) is to identify that empowerment in service organisations should be a team-based approach in any participative or total quality management environment in order to elicit group responsibility. In a service organisation, an individual can be empowered and develop the willingness to take responsibility for the group's work effectiveness and the cross-functional quality cycle. Team based empowerment is not only to build the capability of taking vertical authority but also horizontal authority. The focus on interconnected work activities in an empowerment programme fits exactly the current shift many companies are making towards recognising the importance of cross-functional collaboration and peer networks in running flatter organisations. It is a shift of management orientation from the prolonged obsession with the chain of command and hierarchies of rights and privileges to an active, rather than passive, work role within and between work units of a vertical and horizontal "boundaryless" organisation.

Clearly, the empirical study of cognitive empowerment in service organisations is in its infancy. This research takes some initial steps toward explaining the relationships between empowering characteristics of the job content and work context and different people's task assessment, which in turn predicts the attitudinal commitment and affective work motivation outcomes. It has been recognised that empowerment is influenced by structure, and it will, in turn, influence the form of the organisation. However, the ways, in which empowerment evolves and influences the structure of the organisation, have not been sufficiently researched. This may be due, in part, to the complexity of investigating the process at both the micro and macro levels. Some scholars have voiced scepticism concerning whether or not empowerment can really make a difference to organisational performance. This is usually due to the error of viewing empowerment as the product of an isolated empowerment effort, rather than viewing empowerment as the act of building, developing, and increasing the power

cycle. Empowerment is both internally and externally conditioned, and it is a function of an interweaving between activity of the organism and activity of the environment. We must rid ourselves of the limitations of the more partial points of view, and develop new modes of thinking that identify the importance of conceptualising empowerment as an ongoing process. This process constitutes interdependent variables, individuals and situations. Through this interlocking activity, each element in the process creates itself anew. The dynamic nature of empowerment poses a significant challenge to researchers. Even though the confusion within the academic literature is shared by practitioners, there is much to learn from interacting with managers, consultants and organisation scholars who attempt to understand the “whys” and “hows” of empowerment.

### **11.3 Methodological limitations and suggestions for future research**

As a result of time and financial considerations and the exploratory nature of this research design, there are several methodological limitations embedded within the study. They are discussed as follows.

Although this study suggests a series of causal sequences in this research framework, this is, of course, unstable in the present cross-sectional design. As discussed in the theoretical development, there is likely to be a weak, reciprocal line from organisational commitment back to the three dimensions of perceived empowerment through behaviour and work attitudes. As such, longitudinal studies will ultimately be necessary to clarify the nature and magnitude of these potentially reciprocal linkages. Likewise, there would also be feedback loops from contextual supports to the employee’s attitudes towards motivating job design, and the benefits of motivating job design and structural support at work-unit level would become more salient and distinctive over a certain period of time. In this sense, there would be a major advantage to call for longitudinal design to capture the dynamics of internal empowerment procedure and demonstrate the unidirectional causal flows as well as bi-directional causalities more clearly.

A further limitation is the reliance on self-report measures. Self-reporting may not correspond to actual experiences and is susceptible to common method variance, which could magnify the relationship between predictor and response variables (i.e., spurious relationships might emerge between variables because they were measured with a common method) (Mael and Ashforth, 1992; Spritzer, 1996; Van der Vegt *et al.*, 1998). However, there is not a better source for the perceptions of workers than the workers themselves (Corsun and Enz, 1999). It is the perceptions that are of interest since it is the jobholder's perceived job and contextual characteristics that spark the subsequent empowerment, attitudinal organisational commitment and affective outcomes (Hackman and Lawler, 1971; Hackman and Oldham, 1975; Spreitzer, 1996; Wan-Huggins, 1998; van der Vegt *et al.*, 1998; Corsun and Enz, 1999). As noted by Crosun and Enz (1999: 221), "the problem of common method bias when dealing with self-report, perceptual data had, at least, been overstated in the literature and may be fictitious (Spector, 1987; Crampton and Wagner, 1994)." Moreover, the analyses performed and the results reported in this study reflect the perceptions of nearly four hundred and seventy full-time hotel employees on different jobs in various organisations, which is essentially robust data in quantitative analyses and is expected to dissipate the bias that might result from the common method variance. Nevertheless, this is not to say that common method variance was definitely absent in this study. At this point, future research would be of benefit by utilising alternative sources to assess the dimensions of empowerment and variables of interest. For example, additional ratings of the job/environment characteristics, and the consequences of empowerment could be obtained from supervisors or well trained evaluators. In this respect, it is suggested that conceptual replication should lend more credence to these and past results than would a repetition using the methods employed herein.

Ideally, generalisation of the results beyond the respondents studied requires a true random sample of the defined population. In this survey, however, under the author's request for the stratified random sampling method across departments in each property, 16 hotels agreed to participate in this study. Therefore, the generalisations of this study might not be perfect in relation to the population. However, since the

sample was randomly drawn from diverse departments and the hotels and sub-samples were reasonably in proportion to the population of Taiwanese hotel industry, the degree to which the role of empowerment is a function of a unique hotel is diminished (Fulford and Enz, 1995). In fact, many repeatedly cited quantitative studies in work motivation literature used nonprobability sampling. For example, Herzberg's (1968) job enrichment longitudinal study conveniently selects stockholder correspondents employed in only one corporation; Hackman and Lawler (1971) use a judgement sample (employees working on 13 different jobs in one telephone company), and this inspired Hackman's substantial classical job characteristics research; Spreitzer (1995, 1996) creates and validates her psychological empowerment quantitative research by including managers in only one Fortune 50 company; and furthermore, much research looks at the work motivation, reward, and commitment issues through student samples, whose demographic characteristics are unique and distinct from the wider population in many ways (Deci *et al*, 1981; Mael and Ashforth 1992). As noted by Cramer (1998: 3), "because of the difficulty of obtaining a random sample, many studies in the social sciences use non-random samples and assume that the sample can be thought of as random". To dissipate possible sampling bias, the author devised several sets of moderated designs and partial correlations to control for the effects of the variables that might have "contaminated" the results of interest due to spuriousness, moderated relationships and multiple causation. (Bryman and Cramer, 1997). In addition, two two-step hierarchical regression models were devised in the data analyses. With the hierarchical method, the effects of job and contextual characteristics on empowerment and commitment were measured by controlling for demographic factors (i.e., personal, departmental and hotel effects in the analyses); the incremental and joint effects by including demographic characteristics were then analysed. Hence, the likely generalisability of this study's findings is high.

Additionally, we must be cautious in interpreting these findings due to possible non-response bias. The potential problem with respect to non-response is the possibility that non-respondents will differ from respondents with respect to the survey variables, in which case the survey estimate will be biased. To lessen this effect,

follow-up attempts were made by contact persons in order to encourage as high a response as possible during the fieldwork. The use of contact persons, who constantly communicated with the author during the whole fieldwork, is one of the major strength of this study. They were trained to earnestly and informatively answer questions raised by respondents, monitor the respondent's attitudes towards the survey, and encourage honest and sincere responses.

In order to avoid problems of multicollinearity between study variables, the set of the job and contextual characteristics was selected for quantitative examination. More specialised assessment on focused aspects, such as the comparison of leadership styles, self-management team, mechanisms of feedback and information, organisational citizenship behaviour, participative work climate, and contingent reward systems, may ultimately provide more explanatory power in understanding hospitality work empowerment. Alternatively, the effects on empowerment of other contemporary design features, such as the distinctiveness of employee-customer relationships (Corsun and Enz, 1999), promotion satisfaction (Sparrowe, 1994), and skill development through training should also be examined for future research. At this point, specialised topics concerning empowerment in hospitality settings is recommend, but with certain caveats in quantitative research. Empowerment has a lot to do with work motivation, job enrichment and involvement management (Thomas and Velthouse, 1990; Bowen and Lawler, 1992, 1995; Spreitzer, 1996), and it concerns personal task assessment, generalised psychological states and their attitudinal/behavioural outcomes. Therefore, items in questionnaires must be really relevant to the respondent's working experience and idiosyncratic to their job and contextual characteristics. For years, many empowerment studies have created various scales for different purposes in different industries. When adopting existing measure scales, any future study must conduct careful pilot tests before the subsequent fieldwork. If necessary, a revision or a fine-tuning of questions could increase the insight of the findings. Items in the questionnaire need to refrain from utopian or rhetorical wording in that it could cause cynicism, which would weaken the validity of the scales or even invalidate the findings. For example, questions like "I have access to the strategic information I need to do my job well" might be a

“good” or “important” question to ask in the studies of people in certain occupations or position levels. However, if the majority of the questionnaire respondents are chambermaids and rank-and-file waiters, it might sound unduly irrelevant and naïve to use too many buzzwords like “administrative” and “strategic”. Instead, it might be more appropriate to look at whether the organisational priorities, goals, and values are well informed and the extent to which they receive useful information regarding whether a standard is met or the effectiveness of the work method used.<sup>1</sup> When it comes to the scales on change-oriented participative decision making, it might be more appropriate to lay more stress on whether they have appropriate latitude of discretion to make daily decisions, impact on the creation of a new product, service, idea, procedure, process, or operating outcomes; instead of too much emphasis on such “idealised” words as administrative and strategic system change. Imagine, what a physically fatigued chambermaid would think of the questions – “I have access to the strategic information I need to do my job well” or “My superiors encourage me to participate in strategic and administrative decision making”, when he/she is answering your questionnaire after a day’s arduous work. Empowerment is contingent to the “law of situation” (Hurst, 1992). Decades of research on empowerment (or motivation) has concluded that there is no one best way for everyone. The key contingencies are governed by the attributes of jobs, conditions, and people; so does the design of measuring scales for quantitative empowerment research.

This is an empirical test of Taiwanese hotel employees on the variables studied, and the results reflect the organisational behaviour of service workers in Taiwanese hotel society. Therefore, the interpretation of this work may allow for possible bias derived from culture difference. Including psychological empowerment, motivation research must be related to people’s needs, beliefs, and values. Research on cultures and management behaviour suggests that culture is an implicit social mechanism that shapes people’s thoughts, values, beliefs and, thereafter, guides their behaviour (Hofstede, 1980; Hofstede and Bond, 1988). People from a different society may

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<sup>1</sup> The measure of the information regarding whether a goal is met or concerning the effectiveness of the work method used could also be categorised into items of feedback scale (McAfee *et al*, 1995).

share a common culture and could thus react to the same motivation/empowerment intervention differently. Given that the current study's survey was conducted in Taiwanese hotels, this research itself is culture bound. Even more, the measuring instrument, methodology and underlying theories used are mostly developed in the U.S. and might thus be culturally biased from other national/ethnic standpoints outside North America. There is a need for further conceptual replications of this research in other social and cultural contexts. Comparisons of the findings will be valuable to validate our current management knowledge. It is hoped that the convergence and divergence of the findings from different cultures will broaden our understanding of what we call "work empowerment" in the era of the globalisation.

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### **A final thought**

At the end of this thesis, it is illuminating to turn to Mary Parker Follett. (cited in Metcalf and Urwick, 1941: 101 and Hurst, 1992: 55 respectively):

...our task is not to learn where to place power; it is how to develop power ... Genuine power can only be grown, it will slip from every arbitrary hand that grasps it; for genuine power is not coercive control but coactive control.

I believe we shall soon think of the leader as one who can organise the experience of the group ... It is by organising experience that we transform experience into power ... the task of the chief executive is to articulate the purpose which guides the integrated unity which his business aims to be.

Six decades on, Follett's view on management is as relevant today as it was then. It is hoped that clarifying this holistic and cyclical procedure will encourage more organisational scholars to embark on substantive research addressing the dynamics of

empowerment in the service industry. Hopefully, the current findings will provide guidance to practitioners as they endeavour to develop methods to empower organisations and individuals. Further research into how and why to empower is clearly both timely and appropriate. Exploratory in nature, this study seeks to chart a course for further empirical work.



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**APPENDIX 1**  
**LIST OF SURVEY HOTELS**

**GRAND HYUATT HOTEL**

2 Sung-Shou Road, Taipei, Taiwan, R.O.C.

Tel: 02-2720-1234

Fax: 02-2720-1111

Number of Rooms: 872

**HARWARD PLAZA HOTEL**

160 Jen-Ai Rd., Section 3, Taipei, Taiwan, R.O.C.

Tel: 02-2700-2323

Fax: 02-27000729

Number of Rooms: 606

**ASIA PACIFIC HOTEL**

172 Jung-Shiau East Road, Section 4, Taipei, Taiwan, R.O.C.

Tel: 02-2772-2121

Fax: 02-2721-0302

Number of Rooms: 312

**GRAND FORMOSA REGENT HOTEL**

3 Lane 39, Jung-Shan North Road, Section 2, Taipei, R.O.C.

Tel: 02-2523-8000

Fax: 02-2523-2828

Number of Rooms: 569

**GLORIA HOTEL**

369 Lin-Shen North Road, Taipei, Taiwan, R.O.C.

Tel: 02-2581-8111

Fax: 02-2581-5811

Number of Rooms: 220

**LAI LAI SHERATON HOTEL**

12 Chung-Hsiao East Road, Section 1, Taiwan, Taiwan, R.O.C.

Tel: 02-2321-5511

Fax: 02-2394-4240

Number of Rooms: 705

**THE SHERWOOD INN CROWN PALZA**

111 Min-Sheng East road, Section 3, Taipei, Taiwan, R.O.C.

Tel: 02-2718-1188

Fax: 02-2713-0707

Number of Rooms: 349

**FAR EASTERN HOTEL**

201 Tun-Hwa East Road, Section 2, Taipei, Taiwan, R.O.C.

Tel: 02-2378-8888

Fax: 02-2377-7777

Number of Rooms: 422

**REBAR HOLI AY INN CROWNE PLAZA**

32 Nanking-East Road, Section 5, Taipei, Taiwan, R.O.C.

Tel: 02-2763-5656

Fax: 02-2767-9347

Number of Rooms: 246

**MAGNOLIA HOTEL**

166 Tun-Hwa-North Road, Taipei, Taiwan, R.O.C.

Tel: 02-2712-2122

Fax: 02-2712-2122

Number of Rooms: 351

**HOTEL NATIONAL**

257 Tai-Chung-Kang Road, Section 1, Taichung, Taiwan, R.O.C.

Tel: 04-321-3111

Fax: 04-321-3124

Number of Rooms: 404

**HOWARD PLAZA HOTEL KAOHSIUNG**

311 Chi-Shian 1<sup>st</sup> Road, Kaohsiung, Taiwan, R.O.C.

Tel: 07-236-2323

Fax: 07-235-8383

Number of Rooms: 238

**TA SHEE RESORT HOTEL**

166 Jih-Shin Road, Yung-Fu, Ta-Shee, Taoyuan, Taiwan, R.O.C.

Tel: 03-387-6688

Fax: 03-387-5288

Number of Rooms: 209

**CHINATRUST HOTEL SUN MOON LAKE**

23 Chung-Cheng Road, Sun Moon Lake, Nantou, Taiwan, R.O.C.

Tel: 049-855-911

Fax: 049-855-268

Number of Rooms: 116

**CAESAR PARK HOTEL KENTING**

6 Ken-Ting Road, Hengchun, Pingtung, Taiwan, R.O.C.

Tel: 08-886-1888

Fax: 08-886-1818

Number of Rooms: 250

**HOTEL ROYAL CHHPEN SPA**

23 Lane 113, Lung-Chuan Road, Peinan, Taitung, Taiwan, R.O.C.

Tel: 089-510-666

Fax: 089-510-678

Number of Rooms: 182

**APPENDIX 2**  
**THE QUESTIONNAIRE**

## SECTION ONE

Each of the statements below is something that a person might say about his or her company organisation. You are to indicate your personal feelings about the organisation by marking how much you agree with each of the statements, based on the following scale.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Disagree strongly	Disagree	Disagree slightly	Neutral	Agree slightly	Agree	Agree Strongly

1. I am willing to put in a great deal of effort beyond that morally expected in order to help this organisation be successful.
2. I talk up the organisation to my friends as a great organisation to work for.
3. I feel very little loyalty to this organisation.
4. I would accept almost any type of job assignment in order to keep working for this organisation.
5. I find that my values and the organisation's values are very similar.
6. I am proud to tell others that I am part of this organisation.
7. I could just as well be working for a different organisation as long as the type of work was similar.
8. This organisation really inspires the very best in me in the way of job performance.
9. It could take very little change in my present circumstances to cause me to leave this organisation.
10. I am extremely glad that I chose this organisation to work for over others I was considering at the time I joined.
11. There is not too much to be gained by sticking with this organisation indefinitely.
12. Often, I find it difficult to agree with this organisation's policies on important matters relating to its employees.
13. I really care about the fate of this organisation.
14. For me this is the best of all possible organisations for which to work.
15. Deciding to work for this organisation was a definite mistake on my part.

## SECTION TWO

Each of the statements below is something that a person might say about his or her company organisation. You are to indicate your personal feelings about the organisation by marking how much you agree with each of the statements.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Disagree strongly	Disagree	Disagree slightly	Neutral	Agree slightly	Agree	Agree Strongly

1. I am confident about my ability to do my job.
2. My impact on what happens on my team is large.
3. The work I do is meaningful to me.
4. I have freedom in determining how to do my job.
5. I am self-assured about my capability to perform my work activities.

6. I have a great deal of control over what happens on my team.
7. The work I do is very important to me.
8. I can decide on my own how to go about doing my work.
9. I have mastered the skills necessary for my job.
10. I have significant influence over what happens on my team.
11. I have a chance to use personal initiative in my work.

### SECTION THREE

Part A:

This part of the questionnaire asks you to describe your job, as objectively as you can.

1. To what extent does your job require you to work closely with other people (either "clients," or people in related jobs in your own organisation).

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Very little; dealing with other people is not at all necessary in doing the job			Moderately; some dealing with others is necessary.		Very much; dealing with other people is an absolutely essential and crucial part of doing the job	

2. How much autonomy is there in your job? That is, to what extent does your job permit you to decide on your own how to go about doing the work?

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Very little; the job give me almost no personal "say" about how and when the work is done.		Moderate autonomy; many things are standardise and not under my control, but I can make some decisions about the work.			Very much; the job gives me almost complete responsibility for deciding how and when the work is done	

3. To what extent does your job involve doing a "whole" and identifiable piece of work? That is, is the job a complete piece of work that has an obvious beginning and end? Or is this only a small part of the overall piece of work, which is finished by other people automatic machines?

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
My job is only tiny part of the overall piece of work; the results of my activities cannot be seen in the final product or service		My job is a moderate-sized chunk" of the overall piece of work; my own contribution can be seen in the final outcome.			My job involves doing the whole piece of work, from start to finish; the results of my activities are easily seen in the final product or service.	

4. How much variety is there in your job? That is, to what extent does your job require you to do many different things at work, using a variety of your skills and talents?

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Very little; the job requires my to do the same routine things over and over again.		Moderate variety.			Very much; the job requires me to do many different things, using a number of different skills and talents.	

5. In general, how significant or important is your job? That is, are the results of your work likely to significantly affect the lives or well-being of other people?

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Not very significant; the outcomes of my work are not likely to have important effects on other people.			Moderate significant.		Highly significant; the outcomes of my work can affect other people in very important ways.	

6. To what extent do managers or co-workers let you know how well you are doing on your job?

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Very little; people almost never let me know how well I am doing.			Moderate; sometimes people may give me "feedback"; other times they may not.		Very much; managers or co-workers provide me with almost constant "feedback" about how well I am.	

7. To what extent does doing the job itself provide you with information about your work performance? That is, does the actual work itself provide clues about how well you are doing-aside from any "feedback" co-workers or supervisors may provide?

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Very little; the job itself is set up so I could work forever without finding out how well I am doing.			Moderate; sometimes doing the job provides "feedback" to me; sometimes it does not.		Very much; the job is set up so that I get almost constant "feedback" as I work about how well I am doing.	

**Part B:**

Please try to be as objective as you can in deciding how accurately each statement below describes your job, based on the following scale.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Very inaccurate	Mostly inaccurate	Slightly inaccurate	Uncertain	Slightly accurate	Mostly accurate	Very accurate

1. The job requires me to use a numbers of complex or high-level skills.
2. The job requires a lot of co-operative work with other people.
3. The job is arranged so that I do not have the chance to do an entire piece of work from beginning to end.
4. Just doing the work required by the job provides many chances for me to figure out how well I am doing.
5. The job is quite simple and repetitive.
6. The job can be done adequately by a person working along – without talking or checking with other people.
7. The supervisors and co-workers on this job almost never give me any "feedback" about how well I am doing in my job.
8. The job is one where a lot of other people can be affected by how well the work gets done.
9. The job denies me any chance to use my personal initiative or judgement in carrying out the work.
10. Supervisors often let me know how well they think I am performing the job.
11. The job provides me the chance to completely finish the piece of work I begin.
12. The job itself provides very few clues about whether or not I am performing well.
13. The job gives me considerable opportunity for independence and freedom in how I do the work.
14. The job itself is not very significant or important in the broader scheme of things.



Part C:

Listed below are a series of statements. Please indicate how you personally feel about your job, base on the following scale.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Disagree strongly	Disagree	Disagree slightly	Neutral	Agree slightly	Agree	Agree Strongly

1. It's hard, on the job, for me to care very much about whether or not the work gets done right.
2. My opinion of my self goes up when I do this job well.
3. Generally speaking, I am very satisfied with this job.
4. Most of the things I have to do in my job seem useless or trivial.
5. I usually know whether or not my work is satisfactory on this job.
6. I feel a great sense of personal satisfaction when I do this job well.
7. My job activities are personally meaningful to me.
8. I feel a very high degree of personal responsibility for the work I do on this job.
9. I frequently think of quieting this job.
10. I feel bad and unhappy when I discover that I have performed poorly on this job.
11. I often have trouble figuring out whether I am doing well or poorly on this job.
12. I feel I am personally taking the credit or blame for the results of my work on this job.
13. I am generally satisfied with the kind of work I do in this job.
14. My own feeling generally is not affected much one way or the other by how well I do on this job.
15. Whether or not the job gets done right is my responsibility.

Part D:

Please indicate how satisfied you are with each aspect of your job listed below based on the following scale.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Very inaccurate	Mostly inaccurate	Slightly inaccurate	Uncertain	Slightly accurate	Mostly accurate	Very accurate

1. The amount of job security I have.
2. The amount of pay and fringe benefits I receive.
3. The amount of personal growth and development I get in doing my job.
4. The people I talk to and work with on my job.
5. The degree of respect and fair treatment I receive from my boss.
6. The feeling of worthwhile accomplishment I get from doing my job.
7. The chance to get to know other people while on the job.
8. The amount of support and guidance I receive from my supervisor.
9. The degree to which I am fairly paid for what I contribute to this organisation.
10. The amount of independent thought and action I can exercise on my job.
11. How secure things look for me in the future in this organisation.
12. The chance to help other people while at work.
13. The amount of challenge in my job.
14. The overall quality of the supervision I receive in my work.

Part E:

Please think of the other people in your organisation who hold the same job you do. If on one has exactly the same job as you, think of the job which is most similar to yours. You are to indicate how accurately each of the statements describes the feelings of those people about the job based on the following scale.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Disagree strongly	Disagree	Disagree slightly	Neutral	Agree slightly	Agree	Agree Strongly

1. Most people on this job feel a great sense of personal satisfaction when they do the job well.
2. Most people on this job are very satisfied with the job.
3. Most people on this job feel that the work is useless or trivial.
4. Most people on this job feel a great deal of personal responsibility for the work they do.
5. Most people on this job have a pretty good idea of how well they are performing their work.
6. Most people on this job find the work very meaningful.
7. Most people on this job feel that whether or not the job gets done right is clearly their responsibility.
8. People on this job often think of quitting.
9. Most people on this job feel bad or on happy when they find that they have performed the work poorly.
10. Most people on this job have trouble figuring out whether they are doing a good or a bad job.

Part F:

Listed below are a number of characteristics which could be present on any job. Using the scale below, please indicate the degree to which you would like to have each characteristics present on your job.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Would like to have this only a moderate amount			Would like to have this very much			Would like to have this extremely much

1. High respect and fair treatment from my supervisor.
2. Stimulating and challenging work.
3. Chances to exercise independent thought and action on my job.
4. Great job security.
5. Very friendly co-workers.
6. Opportunity to learn new things from my work.
7. High salary and good fringe benefits.
8. Opportunities to be creative and imaginative in my work.
9. Quick promotions.
10. Opportunities for personal growth and development in my job.
11. A sense of worthwhile accomplishment in my work.

**Part G:**

For each question, two different kinds of jobs are briefly described. In answering each question, assume that everything else about the job is the same. You are to indicate which of the jobs you personally would prefer- if you had to make a choice between them.

An example is given below.

**Example:**

<p><b>Job A</b> A job requiring work with mechanical equipment most of the day.</p>		<p><b>Job B</b> A job requiring work with other people most of the day.</p>
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Response to each item are measured on 5-point scale with scale point anchors labelled: (1) Strongly prefer job A; (2) slightly prefer job A; (3) Neutral; (4) Slightly prefer job B; (5) Strongly prefer job B. For example, if you prefer to working with other people to working with equipment most of the day, you would choose "4".

- |   |   |  |   |
|---|---|--|---|
| 1 | <p><b>Job A</b><br/>A job where the pay is very good.</p>   |  | <p><b>Job B</b><br/>A job where there is considerable opportunity to be creative and innovative.</p>  |
| 2 | <p><b>Job A</b><br/>A job where you are often required to make important decisions.</p>                                       |  | <p><b>Job B</b><br/>A job with many pleasant people to work with.</p>   |
| 3 | <p><b>Job A</b><br/>A job in which greater opportunity is given to those who do the best work.</p>                            |  | <p><b>Job B</b><br/>A job in which greater responsibility is given to loyal employees who have the most seniority.</p>  |
| 4 | <p><b>Job A</b><br/>A job in an organisation which is in financial trouble- and might have to close down within the year.</p> |  | <p><b>Job B</b><br/>A job in which you are not allowed to have any say whatever in how your work is scheduled, or in the procedure to be used in carrying it out.</p> |
| 5 | <p><b>Job A</b><br/>A very routine job.</p>   |  | <p><b>Job B</b><br/>A job where your co-workers are not very friendly.</p>  |
| 6 | <p><b>Job A</b><br/>A job with a supervisor who is often very critical of you and your work in front of other people.</p>     |  | <p><b>Job B</b><br/>A job which prevents you from using a number of skills that you worked hard to develop.</p>   |

- 7      **Job A**  
A job with a supervisor who respects you and treats you fairly.
- ←-----|-----|-----|-----|-----→  
1      2      3      4      5
- Job B**  
A job which provides constant opportunities for you to learn new and interesting things.
- 
- 8      **Job A**  
A job where there is a real chance you could be laid off.
- ←-----|-----|-----|-----|-----→  
1      2      3      4      5
- Job B**  
A job with very little chance to do challenging work.
- 
- 9      **Job A**  
A job in which there is a real chance for you to develop new skills and advance in the organisation.
- ←-----|-----|-----|-----|-----→  
1      2      3      4      5
- Job B**  
A job which provides lots of vacation time and an excellent fringe benefit package.
- 
- 10     **Job A**  
A job with little freedom and independence to do your work in the way you think best
- ←-----|-----|-----|-----|-----→  
1      2      3      4      5
- Job B**  
A job where the working conditions are poor.
- 
- 11     **Job A**  
A job with very satisfying team-work.
- ←-----|-----|-----|-----|-----→  
1      2      3      4      5
- Job B**  
A job which allows you to use your skills and abilities to the fullest extent.
- 
- 12     **Job A**  
A job which offers little or no challenge.
- ←-----|-----|-----|-----|-----→  
1      2      3      4      5
- Job B**  
A job which requires you to be completely isolated from co-workers.

## SECTION FOUR

### Biographical Background

1. Gender: (1) Male (2) Female
2. Marital status: (1) Married (2) Single
3. Age: (1) under 20 (2) 20-under30 (3) 30- under 40 (4) 40- under 50 (5) 50-under 60 (6) 60 or over
4. Employment status: (1) Full time (2) Part time (3) Hospitality student trainee (from Jul. to Dec.1998) (4) Hospitality student trainee (from Jan. to Jun.1998)
5. Tenure: (1) under 3 Months (2) 3 Months to under 1 years (3) 1 year to under 2years (4) 2 years to under 3 years (5) 3years to under 5 years (6) 5 years to under 10 years (7) 10 years or over
6. Have you had job rotation (including training) in your service to your company: (1) Yes (2) No
7. Educational degree: (1) Primary school (2) Junior high school (3) Senior high school (4) Two-year college (5) University (6) Graduate school
8. Monthly income (New Taiwanese Dollar): (1) under16,000 (2) 16000 - under 20,000 (3) 20,000 - under 24,000 (4) 24,000 - under 28,000 (5) 28,000- under 32,000 (6) 32,000- under 36,000 (7) 36,000 or over
9. Name of your organisation: \_\_\_\_\_
10. Department: \_\_\_\_\_
11. Job title: \_\_\_\_\_

這是一個有關旅館餐飲人員的研究，您的回答資料僅供本研究使用，絕不對外公開。在此衷心的感謝您的支持

## 第一部份

在每個敘述之前的空格，依下列的等級填上一個數字

1 非常 不同意	2 不同意	3 有點 不同意	4 沒意見	5 有點 同意	6 同意	7 非常 同意
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- \_\_\_ 1. 爲了公司的利益，我願意付出職責以外的努力。
- \_\_\_ 2. 我願意對朋友說，我的公司是一個很不錯的公司。
- \_\_\_ 3. 我覺得我對公司的忠誠度很低。
- \_\_\_ 4. 爲了要保住我的工作，我願意接受公司交給我的任何差事。
- \_\_\_ 5. 我認爲我的價值觀和公司管理階層的價值觀很類似。
- \_\_\_ 6. 我會很驕傲的告訴親友我是這個公司的一份子。
- \_\_\_ 7. 如果有一份類似的工作，我會考慮跳槽到另一家公司。
- \_\_\_ 8. 這個公司讓我發揮最大的潛力。
- \_\_\_ 9. 我會因爲工作環境的一點點變化，而離開這家公司。
- \_\_\_ 10. 我很高興當初選擇這家公司。
- \_\_\_ 11. 我認爲長久留在這家公司會沒有發展的空間。
- \_\_\_ 12. 我時常不能認同公司的員工政策。
- \_\_\_ 13. 我真得很在乎公司未來的發展。
- \_\_\_ 14. 對我來說，這是我能找到最好的公司。
- \_\_\_ 15. 在這家公司上班是錯誤的選擇。

## 第二部份

請以你個人對工作的感覺，回答下列問題

1 非常 不同意	2 不同意	3 有點 不同意	4 沒意見	5 有點 同意	6 同意	7 非常 同意
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- \_\_\_ 1. 我自信有能力做好我的工作。
- \_\_\_ 2. 我對我所屬的工作團隊（小組）的工作成果，有很大的影響力。
- \_\_\_ 3. 我覺得做這份工作很有意義。
- \_\_\_ 4. 我有很大的自主權去決定如何執行我的任務。
- \_\_\_ 5. 我十分自信已擁有把這份工作做好的能力。
- \_\_\_ 6. 我可控制我的工作團隊（小組）的工作成果之好壞。
- \_\_\_ 7. 這份工作對我很重要。
- \_\_\_ 8. 我自己可決定如何處理我的工作。
- \_\_\_ 9. 我已精通做好這份工作的技能
- \_\_\_ 10. 很明顯地，我的工作團隊（小組）的工作成效受到我的影響。
- \_\_\_ 11. 我有很多的機會，自由決定，怎樣把工作做好。

### 第三部份

A：這裡有七個問題，請以客觀的角度去形容你的工作。

<例子>

你的工作要求你使用各種工具或機器設備到何種程度？

1 2 3 4 5 6 7  
非常少；幾乎沒有接觸到任何機器設備 中等地；適度地 非常多；幾乎隨時都要操作機器設備

如果你的工作大多時間須操作機器設備，但有時也要作些文書工作，你則可以在“6”的地方劃上一個圈，如上所示。

1. 你的工作須與同事或客人密切接觸的程度？

1 2 3 4 5 6 7  
極少；我的工作完全不須與他人接觸 適度地；有時與他人接觸是必須的 非常高；工作時與他人接觸是必須且重要的

2. 你的工作讓你自己決定如何去執行的程度如何？

1 2 3 4 5 6 7  
極少；我完全無權決定如何或何時去執行我的工作 適度地；很多事須依標準作業流程，但我還是有部份的自主權 極高地；我的職責賦予我完全的責任，讓我自己決定如何或何時去完成任務

3. 你的工作之完整程度如何？

1 2 3 4 5 6 7  
整件工作中，我只作些零星瑣碎的雜事，我的工作成果在最終產品或服務中是看不出有何份量的 在整項工作中我執行適度的份量，所以在最終產品或服務中可看得出我的工作成果 我的工作包括執行一份有頭有尾的任務，我的工作成果，在最終產品或服務中顯而易見

4. 你上班時須做不同的工作且使用不同的技能或知識的程度？

1 2 3 4 5 6 7  
很少；我只一再重複做同樣的工作 適度的多樣性 很高；我要執行很多不同的工作任務，且用到一些不同的技能與知識

5. 你工作的成果影響到別人的生活好壞的程度為何？

1 2 3 4 5 6 7  
不重要；我工作的成果對他人沒有什麼影響 有適度的重要性 非常重要；我工作的成果對他人有很深的影響

6. 你的上司或同事告訴你，你表現的好或不好的頻率為何？

1 2 3 4 5 6 7  
很少；他們很少告訴我我做的不好 適度地；有時他們會給我些意見，但有時他們不說 很高；上司或同事幾乎時時都能給我意見，讓我知道我做的不好

7. 不須上司或同事告訴你，你是否可在工作的執行之中或工作成果知道自己做的好壞？

1 2 3 4 5 6 7  
很少；工作的設計讓我無法知道自己做的好不好 中等程度；有時我可從工作的本身得到了解，有時不可 很高；工作的設計讓我幾乎隨時都可從工作中得到了解，讓我知道自己做的好不好

B：在每個敘述之前的空格中依下列的等級填上一個數字：

1 非常 不正確	2 大部份 不正確	3 有點 不正確	4 不確定	5 有點 正確	6 大部份 正確	7 非常 正確
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- 我的工作，
- \_\_\_ 1. 要求我運用一些複雜和高水準的技能。
  - \_\_\_ 2. 需要與他人密切的合作。
  - \_\_\_ 3. 被設計成沒有機會讓我從頭到尾做一項完整的事，所以我只是忙著做些瑣事。
  - \_\_\_ 4. 不經上司和同事的讚美或批評，可從工作中知道自己做的好不好。
  - \_\_\_ 5. 很簡單，重覆性高且枯燥無味。
  - \_\_\_ 6. 可靠我一個人獨自完成，不須與其它人交談或得到他人之監督。
  - \_\_\_ 7. 到底做的好不好，我的上司或同事從來不告訴我。
  - \_\_\_ 8. 做的好不好會影響我週遭的親友或同事。
  - \_\_\_ 9. 在執行我的工作時，我不能用我的判斷力或自主性去決定該如何去做。
  - \_\_\_ 10. 做的好不好，我的上司時常讓我知道。
  - \_\_\_ 11. 讓我有機會完成一項有頭有尾的任務。
  - \_\_\_ 12. 很難從執行工作中得到一些關於我做的好不好的線索。
  - \_\_\_ 13. 給予我充分的機會去獨立思考並且自己決定如何去執行。
  - \_\_\_ 14. 在公司整個營運上並不是很重要。

C：在每段敘述之前的空格，依下列的等級填上一個數字

1 非常不同意	2 不同意	3 有一點不同意	4 沒意見	5 有一點同意	6 同意	7 非常同意
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- \_\_\_ 1. 要我重視自己的工作做的好不好是一件很難的事。
- \_\_\_ 2. 當我圓滿達成任務時我對自己的評價也提高了。
- \_\_\_ 3. 整體而言，我很滿意我的工作。
- \_\_\_ 4. 我的工作大部份都是一些瑣碎且沒有用的事。
- \_\_\_ 5. 我通常知道部門的同事或上司是否滿意我的工作。
- \_\_\_ 6. 當我圓滿達成任務時，我有強烈的自我滿足感。
- \_\_\_ 7. 我所做的工作對我而言是很有意義的。
- \_\_\_ 8. 我對我所執行的工作有強烈的責任感。
- \_\_\_ 9. 我常想要辭掉我的工作。
- \_\_\_ 10. 當我發現我辦事不力時，我的心情會很差。
- \_\_\_ 11. 我常常不知道自己是是否把工作執行的好不好。
- \_\_\_ 12. 別人對於我在工作上的毀譽，我自己願意負起責任。
- \_\_\_ 13. 整體而言，我對我的工作性質尚稱滿意。
- \_\_\_ 14. 整體而言，我不會因為工作做的好壞而影響我的情緒。
- \_\_\_ 15. 事情做的好或壞，顯然是我的責任。

D：在每個敘述之前的空格，依下列的等級填上一個數字

1 非常不滿意	2 不滿意	3 有一點不滿意	4 沒意見	5 有一點滿意	6 滿意	7 非常滿意
------------	----------	-------------	----------	------------	---------	-----------

- 您滿意，
- \_\_\_ 1. 您工作保障的程度嗎？
  - \_\_\_ 2. 您的薪水，獎金或其它福利嗎？
  - \_\_\_ 3. 工作帶給您的自我成長機會嗎？
  - \_\_\_ 4. 與您一起工作的同事嗎？
  - \_\_\_ 5. 部門主管給予您公平待遇及對您的尊重嗎？
  - \_\_\_ 6. 從工作中常給您的價值及成就感嗎？
  - \_\_\_ 7. 在執行工作時認識其它同仁的機會？
  - \_\_\_ 8. 上司在工作中所給予的支持與指導？
  - \_\_\_ 9. 公司對您在部門中的付出與貢獻所得到合理的回報與酬償嗎？
  - \_\_\_ 10. 從工作執行中所獲得獨立思考及活動的機會嗎？
  - \_\_\_ 11. 這份工作的未來工作保障嗎？
  - \_\_\_ 12. 在工作時可以有幫助別人的機會嗎？
  - \_\_\_ 13. 您的工作具有挑戰性嗎？
  - \_\_\_ 14. 您上司的領導方式嗎？

E：請以你同事的觀點，而不是以您個人的主觀意見回答下列問題，在每個敘述之前，依下列的等級填上一個數字

- 1 非常不同意      2 不同意      3 有一點不同意      4 沒意見      5 有一點同意      6 同意      7 非常同意

- 大部份的同事，
- \_\_\_ 1. 當他們圓滿達成任務時都會覺得很滿意。
  - \_\_\_ 2. 非常滿意他們的工作。
  - \_\_\_ 3. 覺得工作是沒有用且瑣碎的。
  - \_\_\_ 4. 對於他們的工作都有責任感。
  - \_\_\_ 5. 能知道他們是否把工作做的好不好。
  - \_\_\_ 6. 覺得他們的工作很有意義。
  - \_\_\_ 7. 能很清楚界定工作責任範圍。
  - \_\_\_ 8. 常想要離職。
  - \_\_\_ 9. 在發現無法圓滿達成任務時，會覺得沮喪。
  - \_\_\_ 10. 很難知道他們工作的成果好不好。

F：在工作上你有何需求，請回答下列問題，在每個敘述之前，依下列等級填上一個數字

- 1 有一點想要得到      2      3      4 很想得到      5      6      7 極度渴望得到

- \_\_\_ 1. 上司所給予高度公平待遇及尊重。
- \_\_\_ 2. 刺激及高度挑戰性的工作。
- \_\_\_ 3. 獨立思考及行事的機會。
- \_\_\_ 4. 很好的工作保障。
- \_\_\_ 5. 很友善的同事。
- \_\_\_ 6. 從工作中得到學習的機會。
- \_\_\_ 7. 高薪水高福利。
- \_\_\_ 8. 有機會運用您的想像力及創造力。
- \_\_\_ 9. 快速升遷的機會。
- \_\_\_ 10. 個人的成長及發展的機會。
- \_\_\_ 11. 可從工作中得到很有價值的成果或成就。

G：請以您個人對工作的偏好回答下列問題，每個問題有A、B兩種不同性質的工作，如果您必須在兩者間做一抉擇，您會偏向那一種，請依下列尺度填上一個數字。

- 1 確實偏向選擇工作A      2 有一點比較偏向選擇工作A      3 兩者程度相同      4 有一點比較偏向選擇工作B      5 確實偏向選擇工作B

《例子》

	1	2	3	4	5	
工作A： 4 1. 您的工作須要整天操作機械設備					工作B： 您的工作須要整天與他人一起工作	
如果您喜歡與他人一起工作，但只有一點點喜歡操作機器設備，如上所示請選 4。						

- |                           |   |   |   |   |                         |  |
|---------------------------|---|---|---|---|-------------------------|--|
|                           | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5                       |  |
| 工作A：<br>___ 1. 是一個待遇很好的工作 |   |   |   |   | 工作B：<br>是一個可提供您創造與創新的工作 |  |

- |                              |   |   |   |   |                     |  |
|------------------------------|---|---|---|---|---------------------|--|
|                              | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5                   |  |
| 工作A：<br>___ 2. 我的工作經常要我做一些決策 |   |   |   |   | 工作B：<br>跟一群快樂的人一起工作 |  |

- |                              |   |   |   |   |                           |  |
|------------------------------|---|---|---|---|---------------------------|--|
|                              | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5                         |  |
| 工作A：<br>___ 3. 公司倚重工作能力較強之員工 |   |   |   |   | 工作B：<br>公司倚重年資較長且忠誠度較高之員工 |  |



- 工作A：  
4. 公司目前有財務危機而且甚至在一年內有關閉之可能
- 1 2 3 4 5
- 工作B：  
完全依上級指示及標準作業流程的工作
- 
- 工作A：  
5. 重覆性高的工作
- 1 2 3 4 5
- 工作B：  
同事不非常友善的工作
- 
- 工作A：  
6. 您的上司常在他人面前批評您或您的工作成果
- 1 2 3 4 5
- 工作B：  
您的工作無法讓您發揮您的知識及技能
- 
- 工作A：  
7. 您的上司能夠尊重及公平的對待您
- 1 2 3 4 5
- 工作B：  
您的工作能經常讓您學習新的而且有趣的事情
- 
- 工作A：  
8. 有一天您有可能會被解雇的工作
- 1 2 3 4 5
- 工作B：  
沒有挑戰性的工作
- 
- 工作A：  
9. 您的工作真的可以給您發展技能的機會，並得到升遷的機會
- 1 2 3 4 5
- 工作B：  
您的工作可以給您很多的假期及福利
- 
- 工作A：  
10. 您的工作很少讓您決定如何去執行
- 1 2 3 4 5
- 工作B：  
工作條件不很理想的工作
- 
- 工作A：  
11. 您有一個很好的工作團隊
- 1 2 3 4 5
- 工作B：  
您的工作讓您完全發揮您的能力
- 
- 工作A：  
12. 您的工作是一種少有挑戰性的工作
- 1 2 3 4 5
- 工作B：  
您的工作要您完全獨立作業

## 第四部份

### 個人資料

- \_\_\_ 1. 性別：(1)男 \_\_\_\_\_ (2)女 \_\_\_\_\_
- \_\_\_ 2. 婚姻狀況：(1)已婚 \_\_\_\_\_ (2)未婚 \_\_\_\_\_
- \_\_\_ 3. 年齡：(1)20歲以下、(2)20歲~30歲以下、(3)30~40歲以下、(4)40~50歲以下、(5)50~60歲以下、(6)60歲及以上。
- \_\_\_ 4. 員工身份：(1)全職員工、(2)兼差或打工人員、(3)觀光相關科系實習生。
- \_\_\_ 5. 在這家公司的年資：(1)3個月以下 (2)3個月至1年以下 (3)1年~2年以下 (4)2年~3年以下 (5)3年~5年以下 (6)5年~10年以下 (7)10年及以上。
- \_\_\_ 6. 是否曾被輪派到其他單位工作或實習訓練：(1)是 (2)否
- \_\_\_ 7. 教育程度：(1)小學及以下 (2)國中 (3)高中 (4)大專(5)大學 (6)研究所及以上。
- \_\_\_ 8. 每月收入：(1)16,000元以下 (2)16,000~20,000元以下(3)20,000~24,000元以下 (4)24,000~28,000元以下(5)28,000~32,000元以下 (6)32,000~36,000元以下(7)36,000元及以上。
9. 服務公司： \_\_\_\_\_
10. 服務部門： \_\_\_\_\_
11. 職稱： \_\_\_\_\_

**APPENDIX 3**  
**SCORING KEY FOR THE CONSTRUCTS IN**  
**THIS STUDY**

**Commitment score**

Section one: (3re, 7re, 9re, 11re, 12re, 15re), then average the 15 items.

\* re: reversed scoring

---

**Perceived empowerment**

Section two: 1 to 11; and Section three, C:7

---

The following constructs are in section three

**Skill variety:** Average the following items

A: 4  
B: 1, 5re

**Task identity:** Average the following items

A: 3  
B: 11, 3re

**Task significance:** Average the following items

A: 5  
B: 8, 14re

**The support of autonomy:** Average the following items

A: 2  
B: 13, 9re

**Feedback from job itself:** Average the following items

A: 7  
B: 4, 12re

**Feedback from agents:** Average the following items

A: 6  
B: 10, 7re

**Dealing with others:** Average the following items

A: 1  
B: 2, 6re

**General satisfaction:** Average the

following items

C: 3, 13, 9re  
E: 2, 8re

**Internal work motivation:** Average the following items

C: 2, 6, 10, 14re  
E: 1, 9

**Growth satisfaction:** Average the following items

D: 3, 6, 10, 13

**Satisfaction with job security:** Average the following items

D: 1, 11

**Satisfaction with compensation (pay):** Average the following items

D: 2, 9

**Constructive peer relationships (Satisfaction with co-workers):** Average the following items

D: 4, 7, 12

**Constructive Supervision (Satisfaction with supervision):** Average the following items

D: 5, 8, 8, 14

**Would like:** Average the following items

F: 2, 3, 6, 8, 10, 11

**Job choice:**

Averaging the twelve items as follows 1, 5, 7, 10, 11, 12, 2re, 3re, 4re, 6re, 8re, 9re in Part G in Section Three; then transforming the summary score from a 5-point scale to a 7-point scale, use this formula:  $Y = 1.5X - 0.5$ .

**Individual growth needs strength**

(would like + job choice) / 2

**Intention to leave:**

C: 9

**APPENDIX 4**  
**CORRELATION MATRIX OF VARIABLES**

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9

Motivating job characteristics

1 Variety	1.00								
2 Identity	.31***	1.00							
3 Significance	.40***	.30***	1.00						
4 Autonomy	.33***	.46***	.19***	1.00					
5 Feedback from the job	.30***	.41***	.27***	.29***	1.00				
6 Dealing with others	.26***	.23***	.30***	.19***	.18***	1.00			
7 Feedback from others	.15**	.43***	.21***	.25***	.18***	.18***	1.00		
8 Overall job characteristics	.65***	.71***	.64***	.61***	.61***	.56***	.56***	1.00	
Constructive contextual conditions									
9 Job security	.200***	.23***	.14**	.21***	.20***	.15**	.29***	.29***	1.00
10 Pay	.17***	.18***	.13**	.19***	.09*	.16***	.24***	.24***	.60***
11 Peer relationships	.21***	.32***	.17***	.28***	.27***	.25***	.38***	.38***	.34***
12 Supervision	.24***	.33***	.14**	.30***	.20***	.31***	.38***	.38***	.48***
13 Overall contextual factors	.26***	.33***	.19***	.31***	.24***	.28***	.41***	.41***	.82***
Feelings of empowerment									
14 Control <sup>b</sup>	.24***	.28***	.13**	.30***	.21***	.07	.29***	.29***	.14**
15 Efficacy <sup>a</sup>	.07	.12**	.10*	.01	.25***	.14**	.14**	.14**	.07
16 Meaningfulness <sup>a</sup>	.34***	.28***	.32***	.32***	.17***	.21***	.27***	.45***	.26***
17 Overall perceived empowerment	.38***	.40***	.31***	.39***	.36***	.20***	.15**	.51***	.27***
Organisational commitment									
18 Value congruence <sup>b</sup>	.18***	.26***	.10*	.30**	.16***	.001	.23***	.28***	.48***
19 Affective commitment <sup>b</sup>	.17***	.17***	.14**	.13**	.13**	.204***	.11*	.24***	.16**
20 Loyalty <sup>b</sup>	.11*	.17***	.15**	.16***	.18***	.14**	.12**	.24***	.08
21 Overall organisational commitment	.27***	.36***	.21***	.35***	.25***	.15**	.29***	.43***	.49***
Other empowerment outcomes									
22 Internal work motivation	.06	.25***	.17***	.12**	.22***	.382***	.30***	.34***	.17***
23 General satisfaction	.22***	.37***	.19***	.35***	.22***	.13**	.27***	.40***	.45***
24 Growth satisfaction	.43***	.43***	.25***	.45***	.32***	.22***	.35***	.56***	.53***
25 Growth needs strength	.20***	.14**	.15**	.09*	.19***	.22***	.09*	.25***	.06
26 Intention to leave	-.17***	-.29***	-.19***	-.26***	-.16***	-.13**	-.23***	-.33***	-.32

	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18
<b>Motivating job characteristics</b>									
1 Variety									
2 Identity									
3 Significance									
4 Autonomy									
5 Feedback from the job									
6 Dealing with others									
7 Feedback from others									
8 Overall job characteristics									
<b>Constructive contextual conditions</b>									
9 Job security									
10 Pay	1.00								
11 Peer relationships	.25***	1.00							
12 Supervision	.48***	.49***	1.00						
13 Overall contextual factors	.80***	.60***	.80***	1.00					
<b>Feelings of empowerment</b>									
14 Control	.16***	.16**	.17***	.20***	1.00				
15 Efficacy	-.07	.10*	-.07	-.004	.000	1.00			
16 Meaningfulness	.30***	.38***	.44***	.44**	.000	.000	1.00		
17 Overall perceived empowerment	.22***	.35***	.30***	.36***	.69***	.50***	.50***	1.00	
<b>Organisational commitment</b>									
18 Value congruence	.51***	.27***	.45***	.57***	.14**	-.02	.43***	.30***	1.00
19 Affective commitment	.20***	.23***	.21***	.25***	.24***	.22**	.33***	.45***	.000
20 Loyalty	-.02	.14**	.12**	.09*	.06	.17***	.24***	.25***	.000
21 Overall organisational commitment	.49***	.38***	.50***	.61***	.27***	.14**	.59***	.56***	.75***
<b>Other empowerment outcomes</b>									
22 Internal work motivation	.11*	.41***	.23***	.27***	-.02	.17***	.33***	.24***	-.002
23 General satisfaction	.46***	.41***	.53***	.60***	.17***	.08	.51***	.42***	.55***
24 Growth satisfaction	.48***	.57***	.61***	.70***	.25***	.05	.53***	.47***	.45***
25 Growth needs strength	.06	.19***	-.001	.09	.12**	.30***	.10*	.29***	-.05
26 Intention to leave	-.36***	-.23***	-.47***	-.46***	-.07	-.05	-.45***	-.31***	-.44***

19 20 21 22 23 24 25 26

Motivating job characteristics

1 Variety								
2 Identity								
3 Significance								
4 Autonomy								
5 Feedback from the job								
6 Dealing with others								
7 Feedback from others								
8 Overall job characteristics								
Constructive contextual conditions								
9 Job security								
10 Pay								
11 Peer relationships								
12 Supervision								
13 Overall contextual factors								
Feelings of empowerment								
14 Control								
15 Efficacy								
16 Meaningfulness								
17 Overall perceived empowerment								
Organisational commitment								
18 Value congruence	1.00							
19 Affective commitment	.000	1.00						
20 Loyalty	.54***	.34***	1.00					
21 Overall organisational commitment								
Other empowerment outcomes								
22 Internal work motivation	.27***	.20***	.20***	1.00				
23 General satisfaction	.33***	.18***	.67***	.21***	1.00			
24 Growth satisfaction	.25***	.18***	.54***	.29***	.57***	1.00		
25 Growth needs strength	.17***	.21***	.12**	.31***	.02	.18***	1.00	
26 Intention to leave	-.27***	-.25***	-.58***	-.08	-.74***	-.38***	-.007	1.00

\*Factor scores (principal component method and varimax rotation). <sup>b</sup>Factor scores (principal component method and varimax rotation). Significance level (2-tailed): \* $p < .05$ ; \*\* $p < .01$ ; \*\*\* $p < .001$ .