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Division of Management and Human Resource Management,
School of Economic and Business Sciences (SEBS),
Faculty of Commerce, Law and Management (CLM),

**Work Engagement, High-Performance Work Practices, and Job
Outcomes: An Empirical Study of Millennial Frontline
Employees in the Kenyan Hospitality Industry**

A Thesis Submitted in Fulfilment of the Requirements for the Degree of
Doctor of Philosophy (Ph.D.) in Human Resource Management (HRM)

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Declaration

I hereby declare that this thesis is my own, original and unaided, with the exception of acknowledged works in the text.

This thesis is being submitted for the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy (Ph.D.) in Human Resource Management (HRM) to the University of the Witwatersrand (WITS), Johannesburg, South Africa.

I have not submitted it, either wholly or partially, for any other degree or examination at this or any other institution.

Signed -----

Juliana N. Kibatta

October 2019

Dedication

To God Almighty, for bestowing me with the courage and strength to pursue my dream and providing this great opportunity in service to humanity. I am humbled and in awe of your favour and faithfulness.

To my late parents, Mum, Mrs. Mary Wandia Gatigi and Dad, Rt. Colonel Joseph Ngonyo Kibatta, this work is in remembrance of you. To Mum, this work is a true testament of all the lessons in discipline, hard work, perseverance, and not to mention patience and humility, that you instilled in me from childhood. To Dad, this work is a product of your encouragement and testament to your belief in the value of educating a woman. This achievement was made possible by the sacrifices you both made in laying a foundation for my education, and for this I will always say thank you and God bless you! May your souls continue to be at peace with the Lord.

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Abstract

Frontline Employees (FLEs) are considered as the most important link in the service delivery process. They are the initial point of contact between the customer and organization, thus representing a unique set of employees that organizations must actively endeavour to engage and retain. Despite their uniqueness, they are predisposed to numerous work demands and challenges due to the nature of their jobs. Nevertheless, they have the potential to influence the retention of satisfied and loyal customers. As such, organizations must ensure the retention of highly engaged frontline employees, which is vital for organizational success. Further, the ongoing shift in the global workforce characterized by a rapid predominance of younger, millennial, employees in the workplace, has compelled organizations to identify avenues that enhance work engagement levels among this generational cohort. This is largely attributed to millennials' characterization as being less engaged in their work, relative to preceding generational cohorts. Due to its potential impact on behavioural outcomes in the organization, management practitioners and academics have, increasingly, had to focus on effectively addressing the concept of work engagement among employees.

Despite this attention, there is a gap in empirical evidence on the concept of work engagement among millennials, not only in developed, but also developing countries, particularly in Sub-Saharan Africa. This represents a significant problem because a lack of such evidence would constitute a major obstacle for organizations mandated with effectively implementing measures that would otherwise foster work engagement among millennial employees, thereby resulting in less desirable behavioural outcomes and overall organizational performance.

This thesis was motivated to address this problem in the context of millennial frontline employees, in the Kenyan hospitality industry. Based on the extant literature, the relationship between a set of determinants (antecedents) and outcomes (consequences) of work engagement, was investigated in this study.

An explanatory, predictive research approach was adopted for the study. Specifically, a survey design with a quantitative research strategy was used to empirically examine the relationships between study variables. Using the cross-sectional survey data collected from a sample of full-time frontline employees ($n = 405$), Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA) and Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) were conducted to test the validity and reliability

of the study's conceptual model variables. Partial Least Squares - Structural Equation Modeling (PLS-SEM) was used to test the hypothesized relationships between the study's conceptual model variables. Further, to establish the potential mediating role of work engagement, mediation analysis with bootstrapping procedures were implemented. Subsequently, post-hoc Importance Performance Map Analysis (IPMA) tests, at both the construct and indicator levels, were conducted to further examine the relationships between each of the HPWPs indicators and work engagement, to extend and enrich the results obtained from hypotheses testing. In addition, a test for non-linear quadratic effects was conducted to further investigate the relationship between work engagement and the job outcome variables creative performance, extra-role customer service, and turnover intention, further enriching study findings.

Results from the study revealed that training, empowerment, rewards, career opportunities, and job security, are human resource practices (HPWPs) among millennial frontline employees, with rewards being the most important. The results also showed that HPWPs in form of training, empowerment, rewards, career opportunities, and job security, positively influenced work engagement among millennial frontline employees. In addition, the results showed that work engagement is positively associated with extra-role customer service and negatively associated with turnover intention. The findings of this study further showed that work engagement partially mediates the relationship between HPWPs as manifested by training, empowerment, rewards, career opportunities, and job security, and the three job outcome variables. While results of the study have mostly empirically supported prior findings from the extant literature, findings concerning the hypothesized relationship between work engagement and creative performance were contrary to existing empirical evidence. Results from this study showed that work engagement did not have a significant effect on creative performance among millennial frontline employees.

Further, results from post-hoc analyses showed that empowerment was a key priority construct for performance improvement by management in enhancing work engagement among millennial frontline employees. Additionally, results showed that work engagement had a curvilinear relationship with turnover intention, while the linear relationships among work engagement and creative performance, and extra-role customer service, were upheld.

The findings from the study comprise a significant and meaningful contribution to existing literature on the concept of work engagement by providing substantive empirical insights

into its determinants and outcomes in a non-conventional context such as Sub-Saharan Africa. Further, the findings of this study constitute empirical evidence on the important role of work engagement as a significant mediating influence intervening between antecedent HPWPs and consequent job outcomes among frontline employees of the millennial generational cohort in the empirical context of Kenya.

Overall, the relevance of effective human resources practices (HPWPs) in enhancing work engagement among frontline employees in the millennial generational cohort, as well as the impact of work engagement on organizationally-valued outcomes, was demonstrated. Additionally, the present study evidences important insights for managers in the hospitality industry who seek to foster engagement among millennial frontline employees.

Implications of the study's findings, limitations, and recommendations of the study are discussed, and provide useful guidance for future research.

Keywords: Millennials, Frontline Employees (FLEs), High-Performance Work Practices (HPWPs), Work Engagement (WE), Creative Performance (CRP), Extra-Role Customer Service (ERCS), Turnover Intention (TI), Partial Least Squares - Structural Equation Modeling (PLS-SEM), Importance-Performance Map Analysis (IPMA), Non-Linear (Quadratic) Effects, Human Resource Management (HRM), Hospitality Industry, Hotels, Kenya, Sub-Saharan Africa.

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Chapter 1

Introduction, Statement of the Research Problem and Study Objectives

1.1 Introduction and Background of the Study

In today's hospitality industry, the business environment is characterized by scarce resources, intense competition, and rapid technological advancements (Karatepe and Aleshinloye, 2009; Karatepe and Karadas, 2012). In addition, practitioners in the industry contend with contemporary consumers who continuously demand high quality and reliable service. As such, hospitality firms focus on quality service delivery as a means to sustain their competitive advantage for success and survival (Karatepe and Aleshinloye, 2009). Delivery of quality services to customers in this industry is largely dependent on the capability of its employees (Karatepe and Kilic, 2009), who are reported to significantly contribute towards influencing the success of the organization due to their close interactions with customers (Karatepe and Kilic, 2009; Karatepe and Aga, 2012). Despite this recognition, hospitality firms still withstand inadequate contemporary human resources policies, coupled with challenges that are still yet to be resolved (Karatepe and Kilic, 2009). Such challenges include long working hours, excessive employee turnover, limited opportunities for training and development, and job insecurity (Karatepe and Karadas, 2012). These represent formidable challenges that are also experienced in developing countries within the hospitality industries in the Sub-Saharan Africa region.

The hospitality industry in Sub-Saharan Africa is recognized for its role as a contributor to the social growth and economic progress of the countries in this region (Rogerson, 2012). As a labour-intensive industry, it provides individuals with numerous employment opportunities in skilled and unskilled jobs (Rogerson, 2012). However, despite these opportunities, the aforementioned challenges in the industry continue to pose a significant challenge in the retention of skilled and high performing employees (Karatepe and Karadas, 2012). This, therefore, necessitates that hospitality managers acquire and manage employees through the use of strategic human resource practices that enhance and motivate employee performance to gain and sustain a competitive advantage (Karatepe and Kilic, 2009).

Hospitality managers in the industry recognize that the retention of loyal, satisfied customers translates to the survival and success of the business (Karatepe, 2011c). As such, hospitality

managers continuously strive to retain a cadre of engaged employees who are capable of delivering quality service while effectively managing customer needs and grievances (Karatepe and Karadas, 2015). Specifically, the hospitality industry acknowledges the unique function that frontline employees assume in the process of service delivery (Karatepe and Aga, 2012; Karatepe and Ngeche, 2012).

Frontline employees (FLEs) are those in close contact with the customer, that is, they engage in voice-to-voice or face-to-face interactions (Karatepe and Kilic, 2009; Karatepe and Olugbade, 2009; Karatepe, 2013a). According to Yavas, Karatepe and Babakus (2013), these employees are crucial to the performance of an organization as they are responsible for influencing customers' service perceptions. Moreover, frontline employees are considered an important asset because (1) they are largely responsible for the delivery of quality customer service, (2) they turn around service failures by restoring discontented customers to a position of contentment, and (3) they are fundamental to the successful execution of service assurance programs (Karatepe, 2014). As a result of their significant role in the delivery of services, the engagement of employees in frontline jobs has sparked considerable attention from practitioners and researchers.

As a key motivational construct, work engagement has become a significant concept particularly in today's work environment where organizations are striving to optimize the talents of their workforce (Burke, Koyuncu, Fiksenbaum and Tekin, 2013; Rana, 2015). Based on evidence from prior research, work engagement among employees has been reported to result in important positive outcomes (Bakker, 2011; Karatepe, 2013b; Karatepe and Olugbade, 2016). This is because engaged employees in the workplace tend to be enthusiastic, dedicated, and fully involved in their roles, and are thus more likely to display positive job outcomes (Karatepe and Aga, 2012; Schaufeli, 2012). In the hospitality industry, empirical research concerning the engagement of frontline employees has shown that the retention of engaged frontline employees results in a display of desirable organizationally-valued behavioural and performance outcomes e.g. job and career satisfaction (Karatepe and Karadas, 2015), extra-role customer service, service recovery performance (Karatepe, 2014), and reduced turnover intention (Karatepe and Aga, 2012). As a result, researchers and practitioners continuously strive to identify avenues of enhancing work engagement among frontline employees, specifically younger employees such as millennial employees, with an aim of influencing desirable performance and behavioural outcomes, and retention of loyal and satisfied customers.

The millennial generational cohort constitutes the four generations that currently exist in the work environment today. It is described as the group of individuals born between the years 1980 and 2000 (Lu and Gursoy, 2013). Millennial employees are recognized as the youngest entrants into the workforce (Schullery, 2013), and are considered to be in the early to mid-stages of their careers (Walden, Jung and Westerman, 2017). This generational cohort is observed to have a rising influence in the workforce (Walden et al., 2017), due to its growing numbers. In spite of their growing influence, millennial employees have been reported to be the least engaged cohort in the workplace when compared to employees from preceding generational cohorts, that is, Traditionalists, Baby Boomers, and Generation Xers (Schullery, 2013; Gallup, 2016). As such, organizations are grappling with addressing the issue of millennial engagement mainly due to the ongoing shift of the global workforce, whereby older employees are expected to be replaced by their younger counterparts, as a result of their retirement. Specific to the hospitality industry, the entry of millennial employees into the job market has disrupted hospitality operations as a result of their different work attitudes and values from other employees (Solnet and Krajl, 2011; Maxwell, Ogden and Broadbridge, 2010). According to Inelmen, Zeytinoglu and Uygur (2012), frontline service jobs involve significant amounts of physical effort and mental input, and are, therefore, largely assumed by younger employees (millennials). Thus, as cogently argued by Solnet and Krajl (2011), the impact of this generational cohort (millennials) in the hospitality industry is more profound when compared to other industries.

Notably, a careful literature review of the existing knowledge-base indicates that Africa's hospitality industry is underrepresented in management literature, with the majority of the research being primarily from developed western countries (Karatepe, 2011c; Karatepe and Ngeche, 2012). Although a few studies in the industry have been conducted in this region, a large number have been focused on the hospitality industry in South Africa, considered the largest in Africa (Rogerson, 2014). Moreover, studies concerning the engagement of frontline employees particularly in Sub-Saharan Africa, are also limited despite the growing numbers of a youthful population on the continent. This has been a surprising trend because engagement of younger (millennial) employees is vital for organizations that wish to retain high performing employees of this cohort (Schullery, 2013).

Against this backdrop, the present study will therefore be focused on the engagement of frontline employees in a developing country in Sub-Saharan Africa. Specifically, the study will be focused on frontline employees in the Kenyan hospitality (hotel) service industry. The

focus will be on the hospitality industry, or more specifically, the hotel industry. The motivation for this focus is the characterization of the hotel industry as one in which, both tangible and intangible services are provided (Kueng, 2000). These services necessitate the need to retain highly qualified and engaged employees and implement robust HRM practices, all the while contending with the challenge of fostering a favourable working environment. Moreover, this study will be focused on the millennial generational cohort in the industry, which, in hospitality management literature, has been under-researched in the context of Western countries and Sub-Saharan Africa.

1.2 An Overview of the Hospitality Industry in Kenya

The hospitality industry in Kenya is a labour-intensive industry driven by demand for service. This industry is considered as an integral component of the country's tourism and hospitality sector (Ndubi, 2009), and is regarded as one of the major contributors to its socio-economic development (Mokaya, Musau, Wagoki and Karanja, 2013). As reported by the World Travel & Tourism Council (2018), Kenya's tourism and hospitality industry encompassing hotels, travel agencies, and airlines among various modes of passenger transportation service, directly generated 429,500 jobs in 2017, accounting for 3.4% of the direct total employment in the country, adding to a total contribution of 9.7% to the Gross Domestic Product (GDP). In addition, by the end of 2017, hotel accommodation provided approximately 19,300 rooms (PricewaterhouseCoppers (PWC), 2017). Furthermore, according to the Kenya National Bureau of Statistics (KNBS) (2018), the hotel industry in Kenya directly and indirectly provided employment to approximately 79,800 persons in the year 2017.

With the aim of becoming one of the top ten long-haul tourist destinations globally, the Kenyan government has instituted a strategy to not only attract top tier global hotel chains, but also promote investment with a focus on expanding conference facilities (Ministry of Planning and Development, 2007). As part of Kenya's "Vision 2030" economic blueprint, the government has set out to increase hotel capacity to 65,000 beds, expand conference tourism, as well as encourage local and regional tourism (Ministry of Planning and Development, 2007). With the country's economy anticipated to grow at a 6.3% compounded rate per annum for the next five years (PWC, 2017), Kenya has benefitted from an influx of prospective hotel investors. A report by PWC (2017) highlighted that an estimated total of 13 new hotels were expected to be built in Kenya, thereby expanding overall capacity by 13%.

Despite attracting international investors from all over the world, the hospitality (hotel) industry in Kenya has had to contend with a number of challenges including high absenteeism and low employee morale (Mokaya et al., 2013), a shortage of skilled personnel, inadequate infrastructure, lack of security, substandard organizational processes (Mutindi, Namusonge, and Obwogi, 2013), the looming threat of terrorism (PWC, 2016), and high levels of employee turnover (Kuria, Peter and Alice, 2011; Mokaya et al., 2013). Notably, a persistent problem has been the high rate of labour turnover among service employees (Ondieki and Kungú, 2013), who are most critical to ensuring quality service to customers (Kuria et al., 2011). This persistent level of turnover among service employees has been mainly attributed to unfavourable working conditions, long working hours with minimal pay, stressful work environments, hindrances to career development prospects, and inadequate training policies (Kuria et al., 2011). With the performance of hotels being dependent on the delivery of quality service through its service employees, particularly Frontline Employees (FLEs), it is of the utmost importance for managers in the industry to recognize the vital role these employees play in driving the growth of the industry. An examination of the literature evidences that there are numerous benefits that are accrued as a consequence of investing in frontline employees (Babakus, Yavas, Karatepe and Avci, 2003c). These benefits include improved customer satisfaction, improved service quality, and enhanced customer relationships (Cadwallader, Jarvis, Bitner and Ostrom, 2010).

Further, the steady increase of millennial employees in the Kenyan workforce (Mokaya et al., 2013; KNBS, 2015) poses a significant challenge in the workplace mainly because not enough effort has been expended to investigate the concept of work engagement, particularly among millennial employees. Engaged employees in an organization provide an organization with a competitive advantage (Breevaart, Bakker, Demerouti and Heuvel, 2015). Thus, understanding how to engage millennial employees in the workplace is vital for any organization as it can inevitably lead to increased levels of effectiveness, retention, motivation, and productivity in service delivery (Schullery, 2013; Dale Carnegie Training, 2014).

Therefore, with the growing number of hotel investments in Kenya coupled with the numerous apparent human resource challenges and the burgeoning number of millennial employees in the workplace, there is a need to enhance work engagement among millennial frontline employees working in the country's various hotel establishments with the aim of improving

quality performance, customer satisfaction, and customer loyalty (Kusluvan, Kusluvan, Iihan and Buyruk, 2010; Yavas et al., 2013).

1.3 Identified Gap in Literature

Businesses in today's environment are continuously striving to increase their performance and remain competitive. Consequently, organizations are focusing more on employee engagement in order to foster a more efficient and productive workforce (Markos and Sridevi, 2010; Lee and Ok, 2016). As such, work engagement as a motivational construct has received considerable interest among practitioners and has become an essential driver for the successful operation of a business entity (Shuck and Wollard, 2010; Lee and Ok, 2016). Despite the emergence of work engagement as a vital element for business success, existing literature exposes a knowledge gap concerning the concept. Specifically, the bulk of research on work engagement has been conducted by consulting and survey firms where observations made have largely been founded on practice rather than empirical research (Slatten and Mehmetoglu, 2011). Robinson, Perryman and Hayday (2004), and Saks (2006), also echoed this gap noting that there is a shortfall in rigorous empirical and academic research on the phenomenon of work engagement. Moreover, in the extant literature, research concerning work engagement has for the most part, been focused on profitability, productivity, sales revenues, and financial performance (Tower Perrin, 2003; Gallup, 2007; Lee and Ok, 2016) as opposed to studies that focus on work engagement at the employee level, and associated with positive job outcomes (Lee and Ok, 2016). As such, this denotes a need for rigorous empirical academic study of the work engagement concept focused on hospitality management. Empirical research on the concept of work engagement constitute a theoretical contribution to the current body of knowledge, but will also signify contributions to practice by fostering an appreciation of the impact of work engagement and the use of practical methods through which it can be enhanced among employees. Further, an understanding of ways to enhance engagement among employees is of importance, especially with the reported decline of engagement among employees in today's organizations (Attridge, 2009; Slatten and Mehmetoglu, 2011; Rana, 2015). Thus, it is critically important to identify the factors that stimulate work engagement among employees to better understand how it can be beneficial to organizations (Rana, 2015). This is particularly the case for hospitality firms whereby empirical evidence of the determinants and consequences of work engagement, with strong theoretical underpinnings in the hospitality literature, is quite limited (Karatepe and Olugbade, 2016).

This study, therefore, fills in the aforementioned existing research gap as it is focused on work engagement in relation to frontline jobs in the hospitality industry. The hospitality industry provides an important and unique research opportunity due to the vital role frontline employees assume in the delivery of services (Slatten and Mehmetoglu, 2011; Karatepe and Aga, 2012; Karatepe and Ngeche, 2012).

The knowledge gap identified in the literature is expanded upon to describe the research problem and formulate the research questions of the study in Section 1.4.

1.4 Statement of the Problem and Research Questions

1.4.1 Statement of the Problem

Work engagement, is essential in the hospitality industry as it contributes to an organization's bottom line (Karatepe, 2013a), mainly because employees who are dedicated, enthusiastic, and fully absorbed, will likely be more devoted to the organization, display greater satisfaction in their job roles, and higher levels of performance (Karatepe, 2013a). Thus, researchers and human resource management practitioners recognize that the sustenance of engaged frontline service employees in the hospitality industry as high performers at their places of work, is perhaps as crucial to the growth of the enterprise as profitability and the loyalty of the customer (Karatepe, 2011c; Karatepe, 2013b; Karatepe and Olugbade, 2016).

Researchers and practitioners have also recognized that disengaged employees can have a substantial impact on organizational costs due to their dismal performance (Karatepe and Olugbade, 2016). For instance, the evidence from existing literature shows that an absence of engagement among employees has resulted in direct organizational costs that have been estimated at US\$550 billion in lost annual productivity (Karatepe and Olugbade, 2016), as well as indirect organizational costs such as high turnover intention, absenteeism, fraud, workplace injury, and illness (Shuck and Wollard, 2008).

Work engagement among employees, has, however, been shown to yield quantifiable benefits such as reduced team member turnover (19%) and lower worker compensation claims (27%) (Schullery, 2013). Moreover, engagement among employees has been shown to enhance job performance, task performance, discretionary effort, commitment, and customer service (Anitha, 2014). Additionally, engagement has been linked to employee retention, improved customer service, and increased customer loyalty and satisfaction (Schullery, 2013). This

therefore suggests that the work engagement construct is a vital motivation factor that can have a favourable impact on hospitality firms.

Despite the positive benefits that arise from an engaged workforce, hospitality managers are faced with the challenge of formulating and implementing effective strategies that foster engagement among frontline employees, thereby influencing positive job outcomes (Karatepe, 2013b; Karatepe, 2016). This is especially among millennial employees, of whom an estimated 70% are evidenced to be disengaged in their workplaces, with only 30% reported as being engaged (Gallup, 2016). Although researchers and practitioners have invested considerable amounts of resources in recruiting, retaining, and engaging millennial employees, work engagement levels among them remain low (Schullery, 2013). Moreover, with the proliferation of younger employees (millennials) in the workplace, who it is estimated will represent 75% of the global workforce by 2025 (The Marshall Group, 2017), managers in the hospitality industry will potentially face a significant challenge in keeping this generational cohort engaged (Park and Gursoy, 2012). It is noteworthy that engaging these employees in the hospitality industry is of the utmost importance compared to other non-service-oriented industries. This is attributed to the industry's unique dependence on labour intensiveness (Lee and Ok, 2016).

A literature review of the existing body of knowledge indicates that work engagement as a concept needs to be expansively examined in the context of the hospitality (hotel) industry (Karatepe, 2013a). This is unexpected because in their work roles, engaged frontline employees will be more inclined to deliver quality services to customers, thereby influencing customer satisfaction (Karatepe, 2013a), and overall organizational performance through positive job outcomes. Further, there is still little to no substantive empirical evidence in the existing literature, of the drivers and outcomes of work engagement among millennial frontline service employees. This is particularly the case in developing economies in the region of Sub-Saharan Africa.

Therefore, the present study fills a gap in research in the existing literature on hospitality management through the development of a conceptual research model to empirically examine a set of determinants and outcomes of the work engagement of a cohort of millennial frontline service employees in a developing country (Kenya), in the Sub-Saharan African context, which has largely been neglected in academic research (Karatepe, 2012b; Rogerson, 2014). To address this knowledge gap by conducting the present study, the empirical relationships

between performance enhancing practices (human resource practices) that is, High-Performance Work Practices (HPWPs) posited as potential determinants (antecedents) of work engagement, and the consequences creative performance, extra-role customer service, and turnover intention, as possible job outcomes, will be investigated. This study will be one of the very first studies in the hospitality management domain that empirically examines the concept of work engagement from the perspective of frontline employees, among the millennial generational cohort.

1.4.2 Research Questions

To address the knowledge and evidence gaps identified, the following four research questions were formulated for this study:

1. What are the high-performance work practices that determine work engagement among millennial frontline employees in the Kenyan hospitality (hotel) industry?
2. To what extent do these high-performance work practices affect work engagement levels among millennial frontline employees in the Kenyan hospitality (hotel) industry?
3. What are the consequent job outcomes of work engagement among millennial frontline employees in the Kenyan hospitality (hotel) industry?
4. To what extent do work engagement levels among millennial frontline employees affect these job outcomes?

To address these four research questions, a set of study objectives were identified in conjunction with the study's purpose (aim).

1.5 Purpose (Aim) of the Study and Objectives

1.5.1 Aim of the Study

The purpose (aim) of the present study was to develop and examine a research model to empirically test the determinants (antecedents) and outcomes (consequences) of work engagement. More specifically, the existence of statistically significant relationships between determinant High-Performance Work Practices (HPWPs), work engagement, and a set of job outcomes, that is creative performance, extra-role customer service, and turnover intention, were examined in the study. With the use of PLS-SEM methods, these relationships were empirically examined using data elicited from millennial frontline employees working full-

time in four-star and five-star rated hotels in the country of Kenya, in the Sub-Saharan Africa region.

1.5.2 Objectives of the Study

To answer the formulated research questions (Section 1.4.2), the following study objectives were specified:

1. Review literature to identify high-performance work practices variables that determine work engagement.
2. Empirically assess identified variables of high-performance work practices as determinants of work engagement among millennial frontline employees.
3. Test the effects of the selected high-performance work practices on work engagement.
4. Identify and select a set of relevant variables with which to empirically assess employee job outcomes of work engagement among millennial frontline employees.
5. Test the effects of work engagement on the selected employee job outcomes.
6. Develop and empirically test a conceptual model depicting the relationships between the constructs of the study.

To fulfil these six study objectives and address the formulated research questions, a literature review was undertaken, after which a conceptual model linking a set of determinants and outcomes of work engagement was developed, to guide this study (see Figure 2.4 in Chapter 2).

1.6 Concepts (Variables) of the Study

1.6.1 Work Engagement

Work engagement, has assumed various definitions over time, as evidenced in the existing literature. To fulfil the purpose of this study, the definition of engagement as espoused by Schaufeli, Salanova, Roma and Bakker (2002), that is, a fulfilling, positive, work-related state of mind characterized by the three components of employee vigour, dedication, and absorption, was adopted.

First, vigour represents “high levels of energy and mental resilience while working, the willingness to invest effort in one’s work, and persistence even in the face of difficulties” (p. 74). Second, dedication represents “a sense of significance, enthusiasm, inspiration, pride, and challenge” (p. 74). Lastly, absorption denotes “the state of being fully concentrated and deeply

engrossed in one's work, whereby time passes quickly and one has difficulties with detaching oneself from work" (p. 75). This definition was adopted for the study, as it is considered a universally acceptable description of the concept in the existing literature (Karatepe, Keshavarz and Nejati, 2010; Schaufeli, 2012; Karatepe and Olugbade, 2016). Moreover, the dimensions vigour, dedication and absorption, were confirmed from prior studies as valid, reliable, and stable measures of the concept of work engagement (Koyuncu, Burke and Fikesenbaum, 2006; Karatepe, 2011c; Karatepe and Olugbade, 2016).

Work engagement as a motivational construct, has become a key concept for practitioners and academics due to its vital contribution towards an organization's survival and success (Maxwell et al., 2010; Slatten and Mehmetoglu, 2011; Rana, 2015). Given its potentially positive impact, numerous organizations and researchers have sought to investigate ways in which to better understand the concept and formulate strategies and initiatives that foster work engagement in the work environment (Rana, 2015). As such, an in-depth understating of the concept will be instrumental to identifying avenues through which to address the low work engagement levels cited in the existing literature (Maxwell et al., 2010; Rana, 2015; Gallup, 2016).

In the present study, work engagement was considered as mechanism that intervenes between a set of antecedent high-performance work practices as determinants, and job outcomes as consequences.

1.6.2 High-Performance Work Practices (HPWPs)

High-Performance Work Practices (HPWPs), otherwise known as Human Resource Management (HRM) practices, are described as performance-enhancing practices that influence an increment in the knowledge, skills, and abilities, of employees (Huselid, 1995; Delery and Shaw, 2001; Boxall and Macky, 2007; Karatepe and Vatankhah, 2014b). These practices are considered as a set of distinct, interrelated work practices, that are devised to enhance both individual and organizational performance through employee competence, attitudes, and motivation (Huselid, 1995; Takuechi, Chen and Lepark, 2009).

HPWPs were identified for examination in the present study as existing literature denotes a dearth of research on its impact on work engagement, both theoretically and empirically (Rana, 2015). Furthermore, the examination of HPWPs was also informed by the need to identify and recommend effective human resource practices that would result in higher engagement levels among employees of the millennial generational cohort. Although there

are various manifest indicators of HPWPs evidenced in the extant literature, the present study was focused on five indicators considered particularly relevant for frontline jobs in the hospitality service industry (Karatepe, Baradarani, Ilkhanizadeh, and Raoofi, 2014a; Karatepe and Olugbade 2016). These indicators include, training, empowerment, rewards, career opportunities, and job security.

In the present study, the dimensions of HPWPs as manifested by these five indicators, were considered as determinants of work engagement among millennial frontline employees.

1.6.3 Job Outcomes

For the present study, three job outcomes were selected as consequences of work engagement, that is, creative performance, extra-role customer service, and turnover intention.

First, creative performance was defined as the quantity of novel ideas that are generated by individual employees and innovative behaviours exhibited in performing those activities that are work-related (Wang and Netemeyer, 2004). This job outcome was identified for the present study because of the nature of frontline service jobs which require employees to be creative in service delivery to customers whose needs constantly evolve. Individuals who generate novel ideas for the enhancement of service delivery as well as provide creative solutions to customer problems ought to assume frontline jobs in the hospitality service industry (Karatepe, 2016). As such, service organizations that strive to enhance the frontline employees' creative performance are able to possess and sustain a competitive advantage (Karatepe, Kilic and Isiksel, 2008).

Second, extra-role customer service denoted frontline employees' voluntary behaviour displayed while servicing customers, and that surpasses their prescribed work duties (Bettencourt and Brown, 1997; Lee, Nam, Park and Lee, 2006). Extra-role customer service counts as one of three pro-social organizational behaviour typologies (Lee et al., 2006; Bellou and Andronikidis, 2008) displayed by employees. This job outcome was selected for the present study because service quality is highly dependent on frontline employees due to their close interactions with customers. Thus, among frontline service employees in the hospitality industry, this behavioural trait has become indispensable (Daskin, 2015) and therefore, warrants investigation.

Third, turnover intention was defined as "the last in a sequence of withdrawal steps taken, characterized by thoughts of quitting and the intent to search for alternative employment"

(Tett and Meyer, 1993, p. 262). This job outcome was identified for the present study because of its continuous characterization as a major challenge in the hospitality industry (Jang and George, 2012), in addition to its tremendous impact on the organization's costs, directly and indirectly (Altarawmneh and Al-Kilani 2010; Jang and George, 2012). Among frontline employees, the issue of turnover intention is observed to contribute to inadequate customer service and poor service recovery efforts (Alexandrov, Babakus, and Yavas, 2007; Ashil, Rod and Carruthers, 2008). Therefore, it is essential that service organizations identify triggers that strive to reduce turnover intention among frontline employees who are responsible for influencing a customer's service perception.

The aforementioned HPWPs, work engagement, and job outcomes variables were examined in a developing country Sub-Saharan African context. The study's empirical context is discussed in Section 1.7.

1.7 Context of the Study

This study was situated in the context of Sub-Saharan Africa. Specifically, the hospitality (hotel) industry of the developing country, Kenya, was the setting for the study. Kenya is located in the Eastern region of Africa and is considered a main economic hub in East Africa. The hospitality industry in Kenya is recognized as labour-intensive, and a key integral element of the country's tourism industry (Ndubi, 2009).

Kenya's hotel establishments are mainly concentrated in the coastal region of the country, and the capital city Nairobi. Nairobi, the capital city of Kenya and a business and economic hub in East and Central Africa (Industrial Development Corporation (IDC), 2012), comprises a number of star-rated international hotels. Mombasa, the second largest city after Nairobi, is the main tourist hub and destination in Kenya, consisting of a number of star-rated hotels and resorts (IDC, 2012).

This study was mainly focused on four-star and five-star-rated hotels in the two counties Nairobi and Mombasa. Additionally, based on the growing youthful population in the country (World Bank, 2019), the study was only focused on full-time frontline employees from the millennial generational cohort.

The significance and justification for the study is discussed in Section 1.8.

1.8 Significance and Justification of the Study

The justification for the present study was motivated by its contribution to theory and management practice.

From the perspective of theory, the current study will enrich the knowledge and evidence base in the hospitality and service management literature by illuminating the interaction between influencing variables that affect work engagement in frontline service jobs and its relevant job outcomes. By exploring select determinants (antecedents) and outcomes (consequences) of work engagement with strong theoretical underpinnings and empirically testing their relationships, the present study will constitute theory-based evidence of determinants that influence work engagement among frontline employees, and how work engagement results in positive job outcomes. Moreover, the examination of behavioural constructs in a work context provides empirical evidence of a more accurate way of explaining work engagement and its individual-level job outcomes.

Further, these relationships will be examined through a survey of frontline employees from the millennial generational cohort. A careful assessment of the existing literature evidences that generational-cohort-focused research in the hospitality management literature has largely been neglected (Costanza, Badger, Fraser, Severt and Gade, 2012; Lub, Bijvank, Blomme and Schalk, 2012). Thus, these relationships will be examined through the lens of millennial frontline employees for an in-depth understanding of potential determinants and job outcomes of work engagement among this generational cohort. This study will, therefore, significantly advance the knowledge base of the existing hospitality management literature both theoretically and practically, as well as effectively provide a perspective from which subsequent future research can be assessed.

From a practical perspective, this research is expected to provide useful and practical guidelines for hotel managers, particularly in Sub-Saharan Africa, on how to influence and continuously enhance work engagement among millennial frontline employees, to experience positive job outcomes that can have an overall impact on organizational performance. This will enable managers to identify and implement effective human resource practices that will drive and have a positive impact on work engagement among millennial frontline employees, and ensure their retention and motivation to generate novel ideas for the improvement of service delivery, while going above and beyond their duties to meet customer expectations. Given that the hospitality industry is labour-intensive, an understanding of how to preserve a

cadre of work-engaged frontline employees, especially millennials, will ensure a sustainable competitive advantage for the organization (Joo and Park, 2010).

Additionally, this current research will afford hotel managers a more nuanced understanding of how each variable of the study either directly influences positive job outcomes or is mediated through work engagement as an intervening mechanism. This will assist hotel managers tailor appropriate work engagement interventions to ensure that millennial frontline employees are continuously motivated to display favourable job outcomes.

1.9 Structure (Outline) of the Study

This study is structured as a thesis comprising five chapters. This thesis consists of an introductory chapter, a literature review chapter consisting of two primary sections, that is, the contextual background and theoretical framework of the study, a research methodology chapter, a data analyses and presentation of results chapter, and a discussion and concluding chapter.

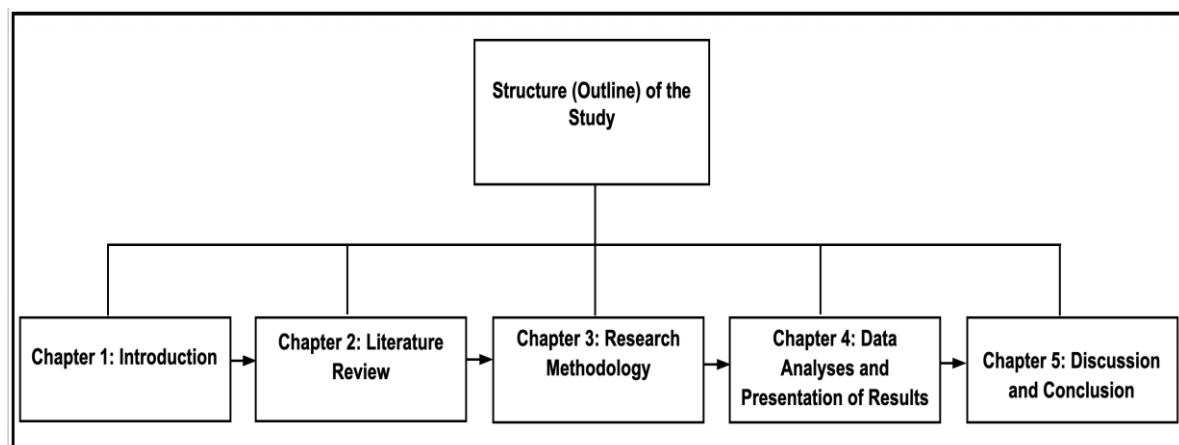


Figure 1.1. Structure (Outline) of the Study

In Chapter 1, the study's introduction, gap in literature, statement of the research problem, aims, research questions, and study objectives, are presented. In addition, selected variables of the study are defined, and the context of the study is described. Further, the significance and justification of the research is also articulated.

In Chapter 2, the contextual background of the study is discussed. First, an overview of the global tourism and hospitality industry is discussed. Second, the hospitality industry in Sub-Saharan Africa is reviewed. Third, frontline employees within the empirical context of the hospitality industry are described. Fourth, the millennial generational cohort is defined, and a

characterization of the cohort described vis-a-vis preceding generational cohorts. Lastly, the millennial generational cohort in the context of the hospitality industry is reviewed. Following this contextual background, the study's theoretical framework is discussed. First, the framework provides an understanding of the select theories that underpin the conceptual model of the study. Second, select variables of the study are conceptualised followed by a substantive review of the related literature to establish the significance of relationships that exist between the constructs. Lastly, the study's conceptual model is presented.

In Chapter 3, the methodology used in the present research study is discussed. This encompasses the research philosophy, strategy, research design, sampling strategy, data collection procedure, description of the measurement instrument, and analytical methods used to analyse the data collected from target respondents. PLS-SEM tests were applied to conduct analyses of the data obtained.

In Chapter 4, empirical results of data analyses are provided and interpreted. In this chapter, the study's hypotheses were empirically tested using PLS-SEM analyses. Nitzl, Roland and Cepeda's (2016) two-step mediation analysis procedure was described and used to empirically test the effects of work engagement as mediating between determinant HPWPs and the job outcomes, creative performance, extra-role customer service, and turnover intention. Further, results of post-hoc analyses, that is, an Importance Performance Map Analysis (IPMA) conducted at the levels of both the construct and indicator, and non-linear (quadratic) effects tests are presented and interpreted to provide supplementary information on the association among the indicators of HPWPs and work engagement.

In Chapter 5, empirical findings of the study are recounted. A summary of the research findings of the study is briefly outlined. Interpretation of the findings of the study are discussed. Implications of these empirical findings for research and management practice, are also discussed. The contribution to theory, methodology, practice, and context, are discussed. Further, limitations in the present study and opportunities for future research are addressed. Lastly, the thesis is concluded.

1.10 Summary of Chapter

The principle aim of this chapter is to present a general outline of the present research study and provide a foundation for an understanding of the research topic. A background of the

global hospitality industry and the hospitality industry in Kenya, frontline employees, and the millennial generation cohort, was provided to describe the study's context.

In this chapter, the identified gap in literature, the research problem statement and questions, and study purpose (aim) and objectives, are stipulated to provide a clear focus of, and guide for the study. A brief outline of the study concepts (variables) and justification for their selection was also provided.

The significance and justification of the study were described, and the structure (outline) of the study thesis presented to conclude this chapter.

The literature review of this study will be discussed in the next chapter. Specifically, the contextual backdrop of the study will first be reviewed. Second the study's theoretical framework will be reviewed to provide insights into the selected determinants (antecedents) and outcomes (consequences) of the work engagement concept. Further, the relationships between the study's selected variables will be evaluated. Based on this evaluation, the formulated hypotheses and conceptual model developed for the study are presented.

Chapter 2

Literature Review

2.1 Introduction

The purpose of this chapter is manifold. First, the extant literature on the hospitality industry in Sub-Saharan Africa is reviewed. Second, the existing literature is reviewed to understand and explain the role of frontline hotel employees in the hospitality (hotel) industry. Third, the extant literature is reviewed to understand employees from the millennial generational cohort, in the work environment. Fourth, the theoretical underpinnings of the study are reviewed. Fifth, the literature is reviewed to understand both the concepts and existing inter-relationships among all the variables under investigation in this study. Lastly, the study's hypotheses are formulated and the conceptual model developed for the study is presented.

The study's contextual background is introduced and discussed in the following section.

2.2 Contextual Background of the Study

2.2.1 The Global Tourism and Hospitality Industry: An Overview

Global tourism and hospitality has been considered among the fastest growing industries worldwide (Ekechukwu, 2015). This industry has been characterized as a highly-varied economic sector comprising tour operators and transport services, accommodation services, catering services, and leisure and entertainment activities (Grosso, Leshner and Pinali, 2007; Oxford Economics, 2015). Although typically viewed together as part and parcel of a single industry, tourism and hospitality are distinguishable albeit overlapping components. While the tourism industry includes the activities of personal travel from one place to another for a period of not exceeding one year for either leisure or business, the hospitality industry is more focused on the provision of accommodation, food, and beverage services, expressly outside a person's home setting (Oxford Economics, 2015).

Globally, the tourism and hospitality industry is considered a key sector in an economy due to its contribution as a proportion of the Gross Domestic Product (GDP). For instance, a World Travel and Tourism Council (WTTC) (2018) report indicated that travel, tourism and hospitality (that is, hotels, travel agencies, and airlines) outperformed other major industries

with a 4.6% GDP growth rate in 2017. This trend in industry sector growth is represented in Figure 2.1.



Figure 2.1. Global Growth GDP Per Industry Sector (Adapted from Uniting Travel, 2018, p.10)

In addition, the tourism and hospitality industry accounted for 10.4% of the global GDP (Uniting Travel, 2018). In terms of employment, the report further showed that in the year 2017, the industry directly accounted for the employment of approximately 119 million people (Uniting Travel, 2018).

The tourism and hospitality industry plays a significant role in providing employment opportunities globally. According to a report by Uniting Travel (2018), such employment opportunities provide necessary skills and professional development opportunities to millions of people, thus promoting their economic empowerment. Specific to the hospitality industry, hotels and resorts generated revenue amounting to \$878 billion, while providing employment opportunities to an estimated 4.3 million people globally (Uniting Travel, 2018). Given the significant revenue contribution of the global hospitality industry and its capacity to provide employment opportunities to millions of people, the industry's economic impact cannot, therefore, be overlooked. More so, the aspect of human capital as a critical facet of quality service delivery is of paramount importance (Kusluvan et al., 2010).

As a labour-intensive industry (Maroudus, Kyriakidou and Vachari, 2008; Wang, Tsai and Tsai, 2014), the hospitality industry has been characterized by seasonal employment (Fortanier and Wijk, 2010) and high levels of employee turnover (Karatepe and Uludag, 2007;

Kusluvan, et al., 2010). High levels of employee turnover continue to be a persistent challenge in the industry (Yavas et al., 2013) despite concerted efforts by researchers and practitioners to resolve the turnover issue. Moreover, hotel operators globally concur that the industry is fraught with numerous challenges including among others, labour shortages (Jin-zhao and Jing, 2009), poor pay, long working hours, irregular schedules, and heavy workloads (Karatepe and Uludag, 2007; Yavas et al., 2013). This is coupled with low job security and limited personnel training and development (Shaw and Deery, 1999; Karatepe and Uludag, 2007; Maroudas, Kyriakidou and Vacharis, 2008; Kusluvan et al., 2010). As a result, many employees in the industry constantly endeavour to seek alternative employment opportunities.

Despite such characterizations, various studies have evidenced the significance of human capital as being critical to achieving a competitive edge (Kusluvan et al., 2010; Nzonzo and Chipfuva, 2013). This is especially due to an increasing high dependency on quality employees (Prayag and Hosany, 2015), notwithstanding their pivotal role as service providers burdened with the responsibility of projecting the organization's image, whilst providing satisfactory customer service (Browning, 2006). In this vein, strong Human Resource (HR) practices are considered as essential for management of human capital and delivery of quality customer service. This notion reinforces the argument that HRM practices are those elements that foster and influence customer-oriented behaviours amongst employees (Tsaur and Lin, 2004).

Due to its labour-intensive nature, the global hospitality industry mainly relies on the abilities and intentions of employees to drive organizational initiatives (King, 2010), thereby positioning employees as an important facet of service delivery. In addition, increasing competition within the industry, compounded with the importance of customer-employee interaction in the delivery of quality service, has resulted in increased awareness amongst global hospitality practitioners and scholars to better understand how to attract, retain, and motivate employees (King, 2010). Employees in this industry are recognized for the vital role they play in quality service delivery, organizational performance, and the cultivation of customer satisfaction and loyalty (Kusluvan et al., 2010). Hotel managers should thus consider investing in, and managing, human capital with strategic HRM practices and policies that not only enhance performance in an organization (Takeuchi, Chen and Lepark, 2009), but also provide the organization with a competitive advantage (Kusluvan et al., 2010; Nzonzo and Chipfuva, 2013).

In this study, the focus will be on the hospitality industry, or more specifically, the hotel industry. The motivation for this focus is the characterization of the hotel industry as one in which, both tangible and intangible services are provided (Kueng, 2000). These services necessitate the need to retain highly qualified and engaged employees and implement robust HRM practices, all the while contending with the challenge of fostering a favourable working environment. The hotel industry in the Sub-Saharan region of Africa is of particular concern and has over the years been neglected in academic research, both from a hospitality and social science perspective, with the regions of North America, Western Europe, and Pacific Asia often receiving considerable attention (Karatepe, 2012b; Rogerson, 2014).

2.2.2 The Hospitality Industry in Sub-Sahara Africa

In Africa, the hospitality industry has been described as unpredictable and characterized by significant fluctuations in both supply and demand (PricewaterhouseCoopers (PWC), 2012). This is against the backdrop of Africa's rich endowment of natural and cultural resources, which provides the continent with a broad spectrum of trading and investment opportunities and unique travel experiences anchored in authentic cultural attributes (Industrial Development Cooperative (IDC), 2012). The development of the hospitality industry in Africa has steadily grown (Union for the Development of Italian-African Relations (UNIAFRICA), 2016), despite the on-going global economic downturn (World Bank, 2016). A report by Jones Lang LaSalle (JLL) (2016) affirmed a positive outlook on the growth of the hotel industry, with a forecasted demand growth rate of 3% to 5% despite the economic challenges faced in the Sub-Saharan region. As Sub-Saharan Africa is said to count amongst the fastest growing regions in the world, it is likely that an influx in hotel investments in countries that are well endowed with resources will ensue (EY, 2013; World Bank, 2013). An example of such investments in hotel establishments is seen in countries like Nigeria, Kenya, Mauritius, Tanzania, and South Africa, where room revenue was reported to have increased by an estimated 2.7% in 2017 (PWC, 2018).

In Africa, many Sub-Saharan countries have identified the development of their hospitality industries as an important source of economic diversification (Sharma and Upneja, 2005). Despite this recognition and the apparent growth in investment, the industry has faced numerous challenges. These encompass high investment and operating costs, a shortage of skilled personnel, inadequate service levels, poor physical support infrastructure, corruption, increasing competition, and negative foreign perception (IDC, 2012). In addition, a number

of human resource challenges continue to impede on the optimal delivery of quality customer service. For instance, Agbola, Dehlor and Agbola (2011) observed that within the hotel industry in Ghana, the main human resource challenges are characterized by a lack of developed human resources personnel, a shortage of trained personnel, poor human resource practices, and insufficient employee experience. Similarly, in Nigeria, major challenges in the industry highlighted include a shortage in skills, nepotism, poor work attitudes, a lack of employee recognition (Anakwe, 2002), unskilled labour, low wages, labour turnover, and inadequate to non-existent career structures (Ekechukwu, 2015). Elsewhere, Mozambique, Ethiopia, and Tanzania are characterized by a lack of an inherent hospitality service experience and an unseasoned workforce (Fortanier and Wijk, 2010). Further, the hotel industry in South Africa has been characterized by high levels of employee turnover, low employee morale, poor motivation, and insufficiently qualified employees (Nicolaidis, 2013).

In light of these challenges facing the hospitality industry in Sub-Sahara Africa, it is imperative that employees be equipped with the requisite skills to ensure that they are enabled in effectively performing their tasks (Al Hrouit and Mohamed, 2014). As contended by Karatepe (2012a), employees in the industry, especially those in frontline jobs, require managements support to mitigate the injurious effects arising from the challenges they face, and motivate them to display increased levels of quality performance. Given that employees are central to inducing customer perceptions of service quality, and thereby indirectly influencing a customer's travel destination and overall satisfaction levels (Yavas et al., 2013), it is important that hotel management initiate and implement strategies that motivate these employees to exhibit desirable attitudinal and behavioural outcomes beneficial to overall organizational performance. More, through the implementation of high-quality human resource practices aimed at upskilling the capabilities and competencies of frontline employees, a foundation of excellent customer service can be established (Browning, 2006).

Notably, although a few researchers have attempted to interrogate the function of human resource practices in influencing behavioural outcomes and performance among frontline employees in Sub-Saharan African countries such as South Africa (Browning, 2006), Cameroon (Karatepe, 2012b) and Nigeria (Karatepe and Olugbade, 2009, 2016), countries along the Eastern coastal region of the continent such as Kenya have been neglected and are underrepresented in the extant literature.

2.2.3 The Frontline Employee (FLE)

Researchers in marketing and organizational behaviour have over time given attention to the individual interactions between the customer and the employee who holds a frontline service role (Bettencourt and Gwinner, 1996). Frontline Employees (FLEs) otherwise known as contact employees, are employees who hold boundary spanning roles, that is, they connect the organization with its environment through interactions between an employee of the organization and a customer (Shamir, 1980; Karatepe and Sokmen, 2006; Karatepe and Uludag, 2007). According to Cordes and Doucherty (1993), a frontline employee holding a boundary spanning role is “the boundary spanner who functions as an information processor or as a filter between the organization and the client, represents the organization and acts as its agent in influencing the decision of the client (p. 644)”.

Owing to the disposition of these boundary spanning roles, frontline employees are often observed to be in frequent and close contact with customers (Karatepe and Baddar, 2006; Karatepe, 2011b). As such, they significantly contribute towards shaping a customer’s perception of quality of service (Yavas et al., 2013). Moreover, boundary spanning roles create an environment for numerous social interactions which require frontline employees to not only interact with external, but also internal, customers (e.g. supervisors and co-workers). According to Karatepe (2012a), it must be noted that frontline employees are distinct from other employees in that these employees (1) represent and promote the image of the organization to the customers, (2) are viewed as an essential source of information pertaining customer needs and complaints, and (3) are well positioned to provide the organization with first-hand suggestions that are focused on improving service delivery. Accordingly, the retention of such qualified and dedicated employees is crucial to the service delivery process and business success (Ashill, Rod and Carruthers, 2008).

The attitudes and behaviours of frontline employees as a source of differentiation and competitive advantage, have been found to influence customer satisfaction, perception of quality of service, and the loyalty of the customer (Bettencourt and Brown, 1997; Cadwallader, Jarvis, Bitner and Ostrom, 2010). In the hotel industry in particular, frontline service employees are regarded as the most significant link in the service delivery process (Karatepe and Uludag, 2008). This is because they offer intangible services as a tangible product through their direct interaction with customers (Yeh, 2013). Moreover, these employees are considered a critical element of service quality as they are predominantly

responsible for turning around services failures and restoring customer satisfaction (Karatepe, 2012a). Therefore, to provide enhanced customer service, hotel managers must understand the attitudes and values that should be espoused by frontline employees in their jobs (Yeh, 2013).

A distinctive characteristic of frontline service jobs is heterogeneity, which denotes that each customer is different, and therefore will have different unique needs and service demands (Slatten, Svensson, Svaeri, 2011). This heterogeneous nature of service infers that frontline employees must continuously adapt their attitudes and behaviours while interacting with the customers in order to personalize service delivery according to each customer's service script (Slatten et al., 2011). Moreover, as argued by Slatten et al. (2011), frontline service jobs influence customer evaluations of services rendered. Such evaluations have come to be known as "the moment of truth" (Slatten et al., 2011, p.270). These so-called "moments of truth" as experienced by customers, can either be evaluated as positive or negative, depending on their perceptions of services offered by frontline employees. Therefore, frontline employees must strive to adapt to meet customers' needs and expectations in order to sustain quality service delivery. Furthermore, for service organization to be successful, the well-being of frontline employees must be prioritized. This would ensure the success of service organizations, which largely depends on their performance (Slatten and Mehmetoglu, 2011).

According to Browning (2006) customer service experience is sorely dependent on frontline employees. In this regard, organizations must strive to manage the behaviours of these employees (Karatepe and Agbaim, 2012) as well as drive their performance. In terms of performance, the ability of frontline employees to customize service delivery in a novel manner as well as go above and beyond their prescribed duties has been increasingly sought after in the hospitality industry. This is because quality of service and customer satisfaction are heavily dependent on their innovativeness (Luoh, Tsaur and Tang, 2014). In previous studies, it has been shown that diverse customer needs necessitate that frontline employees be innovative in their delivery of services (Coelho, Augusto and Lages, 2011). Yavas, Karatepe, Avci and Tekinkus (2003) argued that more so than any other employee within the organization, frontline employees have the capability of customizing both the services of an organization and the manner of their service delivery in real-time. In their seminal work, Bettencourt and Brown (1997) contended that frontline employees contributed to service excellence in four distinct ways (1) by going above and beyond their prescribe roles, (2) by delivering on the contractual service promises of the organization, (3) by endorsing the organization's product and service offerings, and (4) by fostering a favourable corporate

image for the organization. However, Zablah, Franke, Brown and Barthlomew (2012) also noted that employees working in frontline service jobs are often disengaged and experience job stress that is associated with the challenging customer interactions. Such interactions as highlighted by the researchers result in poor work performance and high turnover rates, which further translate to an increase in costs for the organizations.

Despite their crucial role in the service delivery process, frontline employees in the hospitality (hotel) industry face numerous job demands and challenges. These include low job security, limited training and development opportunities, customer aggression, excessive workloads, work-family conflict, high levels of role stress, and emotional exhaustion (Karatepe and Sokmen, 2006; Karatepe and Uludag, 2007, 2008; Karatepe and Kilic, 2009; Karatepe, 2011a; Karatepe and Karadas, 2012). These challenges and job demands make it difficult for hotel management to retain skilled and highly qualified performing employees (Karatepe and Karadas, 2012). In addition, hotel managers continuously struggle with identifying more avenues through which to ensure frontline employees' attitudes and behaviours are compatible with the expectations of management and customers (Karatepe and Uludag, 2008). Notably, it is imperative for hotel managers to ensure that they take better care of their frontline employees before expecting them to deliver superior customer services (Karatepe, Uludag, Menevis, Hadzimehmedagic and Baddar, 2006).

Against this backdrop, this study is focused on frontline employees for a number of reasons. First, frontline employees are central to quality service delivery, efficient service recovery processes, and the retention of loyal and satisfied customers. Second, frontline employees represent the hotel as an organization to the customer, playing a vital role in promoting its image and legitimacy through advocacy (Karatepe and Ngeche, 2012). Third, frontline employees are often prone to facing numerous problems and job demands emanating from excessive workload, limited career and development opportunities, role stress, long working hours, and lack of job security, which may lead to their decreased levels of commitment, withdrawal, and inadequate service delivery (Karatepe and Kilic, 2009). Lastly, frontline employees have been reported as among the least engaged category of employees (Karatepe, Yavas, Babakus, and Deitz, 2018; Karatepe, Ozturk and Kim, 2019)

Consistent with previous empirical works in the existing body of knowledge (Karatepe and Sokmen, 2006; Karatepe and Kilic, 2009; Yang, 2010; Karatepe and Agbaim, 2012; Karatepe, 2013b; Karatepe and Olugbade, 2016), frontline employees in this study included front desk

staff, food and beverage service staff (waiters, waitresses, hostesses and bar attendants), bell attendants (porters), door attendants, guest relations representatives, spa attendants, housekeeping staff, concierge staff, and hotel and conference sales executives.

2.2.4 The Millennial (Generation Y) Workforce

Today's workforce comprises distinct generational cohorts. The millennial generation is the cohort that has most recently joined the global workforce. The millennial generation is among the four-recognized existing generational cohorts in the global workforce. The millennial cohort, otherwise known as Generation Y, has been described as the group of individuals born after the year 1980 (Pew Research Center, 2014) or between the years 1981 and 2000 (Gursoy, Maier and Chi, 2008). In this study, this generational cohort will be referred to as millennials.

The term "generations", is widely used in existing literature to classify society in age groupings as well as locate individuals within historical timelines (Pilcher, 1994). The term generation can be traced back to Karl Mannheim, a German sociologist who in 1952, emphasized the significance of generations in understanding the underpinnings of social and intellectual generations (Parry and Urwin, 2011). Based on generational theory conceptualized by Mannheim (1952), generations refer to a particular grouping of people who have been born and natured in similar historical and social dispensations, who share similar formative experiences and as a result, have developed unifying communalities over time. Mannheim (1952) proffered that five societal characteristics which make the existence of generations possible are (1) the continuous disappearance of previous participants, (2) the emergence of new participants in the cultural process, (3) transmission of a cultural heritage, (4) participation of members of a generation in a limited segment of the historical process, and (5) continuous transformations from generation to generation (Parry and Urwin, 2011).

A review of the existing literature indicates that besides Mannheim's (1952) definition, there have been various definitions of the term "generation". For instance, the term 'generation' was defined by Eyerman and Turner (1998) as "a cohort of persons passing through time who come to share a common habitus, hexis, and culture, a function of which is to provide them with a collective memory that serves to integrate the cohort over a finite period of time" (p. 93). Similarly, Park and Gursoy (2012) defined a "generation" as "a group of people of similar age who share historical experiences within the same time period" (p. 1196)". Howe and Strauss (2007) defined a "generation" as a grouping of individuals who share a similar location in history, thus compelling them to exhibit distinct beliefs and behaviour patterns. Parry and

Urwin (2011) also suggested that a generation encompasses persons from the same epoch that shared a similar or identical birth year and a mutual location in the historical facet of social progression. Thus, based on the various definitions of the term, a generation's identity is influenced by shared historical and social life experiences, and as such, possess similarities in the way members of a particular cohort think, act, and feel. These similarities also manifest in the way they participate in the workforce (Gursoy, Chi and Karadag, 2013).

To attain a more in-depth understanding and appreciation of the millennial workforce, a recognition of the existence of preceding "generations" or generational cohorts is necessitated. In the current workforce, there exist four generational cohorts namely, the Traditionalist (Silent) Generation, of individuals born between the years 1925 and 1945, the Baby Boomers, comprising those born between the years 1946 and 1964, Generation X, or those born between the years 1965 and 1981, and the Millennials or Generation Y, encompassing those individuals born between the years 1981 and 2000 (Schullery, 2013). In extant literature, these four generational cohorts have been described in order of their temporal precedence.

2.2.5 Contextual Definition of Generational Cohorts

First, the **Silent Generation** is also recognized as the Traditional cohort, born between the years 1925 and 1945 (Howe and Strauss, 2007). It is the oldest generation that may still exist in the workforce, despite its minimized numbers over time. This generation experienced the Great Depression of the 1930s and the Second World War. Members of the Silent generation have been described as hardworking, dependable, dedicated, stable, detail-oriented, conservative, loyal, and characterized by a high concern for security (Egri and Ralston, 2004; Tolbize, 2008). This generation has also been described as preferring formality, a top-down chain of command, hierarchical organizational structures, decisive with reliance on past experiences, and resistant to change (Tolbize, 2008). Their inclination towards a high sense of security is attributed to their having experienced the great depression which had an impact on their economic stability. Moreover, members of the silent generation are reported to have more respect for authority as well as a high value for financial rewards (Sprague, 2008). In comparison to younger employees, traditionists are considered the most loyal cohort by employers (Tolbize, 2008). Tolbize (2008) asserted that traditionists, similar to other cohorts, chose to remain with the same organizations for various reasons including career advancement opportunities, respect and recognition, better pay, learning and development opportunities, as well as increased quality of life.

Second, the **Baby Boomers** are a generation of individuals born between the years 1946 and 1964 (Howe and Strauss, 2007; Sprague, 2008; Park and Gursoy, 2012). Baby Boomers are characterized as having grown up in the period of economic affluence that followed the Second World War (Park and Gursoy, 2012). Additionally, this generation is described as having experienced the civil rights and women's movements, and notable historical occurrences such as the assassination of President John F. Kennedy (Elkins, McRitchie and Scoones, 2007; Park and Gursoy, 2011, 2012; Schullery, 2013).

In prior studies, members of this generation have been reported as highly individualistic and competitive, as well as espousing a strong work ethic characterized by high levels of job involvement (Egri and Ralston, 2004; Becton, Walker and Jones-Farmer, 2014). According to Park and Gursoy (2012), Baby boomers are reported to have a higher value for work in addition to being more loyal and devoted to their organizations, as compared to subsequent younger generations. Baby boomers are also reported to be goal oriented, placing high value on the attainment of rewards for their accomplishments (Park and Gursoy, 2012). Moreover, Baby boomers are viewed as employees who live to work (Gursoy et al., 2013), that is, they place more value on their work than their personal lives. They are also regarded as achievement oriented, respectful, results driven, receptive of hierarchical relationships and independent (Gursoy et al., 2013; Becton et al., 2014). Baby boomers also place high value on personal growth, chain of command (Tolbize, 2008), the security of their jobs and stability in their work environment (Wong, Gardiner, Lang and Coulon, 2008). Although Baby Boomers are characterized as being goal-oriented, this is considered a source of conflict as they expect other employees, specifically the younger employees, to have a similar work ethic and work similar hours (Gursoy et al., 2013).

Third, **Generation X** comprises individuals born between 1965 and 1980 (Twenge, Campbell, Hoffman and Lance, 2010; Gursoy et al., 2013), and have been currently seen to dominate the workplace along with Baby Boomers. Generation X individuals are considered to have grown up during the end of the Cold War while also experiencing economic downturns, high unemployment levels, family disruptions due to phenomena such as divorces, and family relocations occasioned by economic instability (Egri and Ralston, 2004; Park and Gursoy, 2012). As a consequence of their high unemployment levels and economic instability, Generation X individuals have been reported to exhibit elevated degrees of self-autonomy and higher levels of value towards their work over loyalty to their employers (Yu and Miller, 2005; Park and Gursoy, 2012). Generation X employees have also been found to be more

independent, individualistic, and entrepreneurial, preferring informality as well as exhibiting a persistent urge to seek emotional security (Beutell and Berman, 2008; Gibson, Greenwood, Murphy and Riddle, 2009). They are also seen to place high value on work-life balance, (that is, they work to live), growth opportunities, freedom from supervision, and positive work relationships in contrast to Baby Boomers (Beutell and Berman, 2008; Park and Gursoy, 2012).

Beutell and Berman (2008) noted that Baby Boomers who worked with Generation Xers perceived Generation Xers as freeloaders who leave as soon as work becomes laborious. Similarly, Park and Gursoy (2012) reported a steady decline in the work ethic of Generation Xers compared to previous generations. In comparison to older generations, Generation Xers have been observed to be more comfortable with change and diversity (Wong et al., 2008). This generation is also considered high risk due to their lack of loyalty, as Generation Xers are more likely to seek other jobs that they consider challenging, and that have higher salaries and better benefits (Wong et al., 2008). Furthermore, this generation, compared to Baby Boomers is viewed as being sceptical and indifferent towards authority (Wong et al., 2008).

Fourth, **Millennials** also known as Generation Y (or “GenerationMe”, Gen Net, Net Gen), are the newest and youngest entrants in the global workforce (Twenge et al., 2010; Schullery, 2013). Some scholars have reported different cut-off points for this generation’s date of birth ranging from the years 1980 to 2000 at the turn of the millennium. For example, Gursoy et al. (2008) and Twenge et al. (2010) have observed that millennials comprise persons to have been born between the years 1981 and 2000, whereas Yu and Miller (2005) and Gibson et al. (2009) reported that millennials were born after the year 1980. Park and Gursoy (2012) however, reported these intervals as falling between the years 1981 and 1999. Other researchers such as Schullery (2013) suggested that millennials were likely born between the years 1982 and 1999, while Lu and Gursoy (2013) reported that typically millennials were born between the years 1980 and 2000.

This study will adopt Lu and Gursoy’s (2013) classification of the millennials age group which provides a broad age spectrum encompassing lower and upper limits as defined in existing literature. Millennials represent the target generational cohort of the study for four reasons, that is, (1) a paucity of empirical literature on millennial frontline employees in comparison to other generation cohorts, particularly in the existing hospitality management knowledge-base (Twenge et al., 2010; Gursoy et al., 2013), (2) millennials are considered as a majority

in the hospitality industry workforce (Kong, Wang and Fu, 2015), (3) millennials are predicted to dominate the workplace with an estimated representation of 75% of the global workforce by the year 2025 (The Marshall Group, 2017), and (4) understanding of how to engage millennial employees remains paramount mainly because of their low engagement levels (Maxwell, Ogden and Broadbridge, 2010; Gallup, 2016).

2.2.6 Characterization of the Millennial Generational Cohort.

Interest in the millennial generational cohort in the academic world has become prevalent, causing scholars to empirically examine what characteristics set millennials apart from other generational cohorts, in addition to how this generation impacts the workplace today (Hauw and Vos, 2010). Specifically, this focus is mainly geared towards identifying ways in which organizations can effectively manage millennials by focusing on motivational drivers, their work values, and career aspirations (Wong et al., 2008; Hauw and Vos, 2010). As proffered by Twenge et al. (2010), due to the increasing number of millennials in the workplace, an understanding of the work values of this new generation and how they differ from previous cohorts is essential. Similarly, Gursoy et al. (2013) emphasized that an acute understanding of the value structure of the various generational cohorts in the work environment is essential for fostering leadership, motivation, communication, and inter-generational synergy. Although work values have been identified as a basis of conflict in the workplace, Gursoy et al. (2013) contend that when managed efficiently, these differences can be a foundation for strength and opportunities.

To gain an understanding of the millennial generational cohort, scholars have embarked on identifying qualities and work values that best describe this cohort. Work values can be described as general beliefs that are associated with desirable facets of work (such as work conditions, autonomy, and pay), and work-related outcomes (that is, accomplishment and prestige) (Lyons, Higgins and Duxbury, 2010; Kuron, Lyons, Schweitzer and Ng, 2015). These values indicate what is essential to individuals in their work-related lives (Kuron et al., 2015). Compared to the older generations, millennials have been shown to have different work values, personalities and expectations concerning their work preferences (Kuron et al., 2015).

The millennial generational cohort has been epitomized by factors such as technologies that promote the advancement of instantaneous communication via the Internet, social network platforms, and globalization (Park and Gursoy, 2012; Gursoy et al., 2013). This generational cohort has largely been influenced by technology (Wong et al., 2008) in both their personal

and professional lives. Further, this generation is characterized by persons who grew up in an era of empowerment, whereby everyone was recognized for doing almost anything, and received an award for it (Gursoy et al., 2013). Millennials have also been nurtured in a way that encourages them to question authority and make their own decisions. This upbringing has resulted in their sense of entitlement in the workplace, as they expect employers to give them more for their efforts than they expend (Gursoy et al., 2013). Moreover, millennials have also been described as open to change and accepting of diversity in the workplace as compared to previous generations (Myers and Sadaghiani, 2010; Becton et al., 2014).

Studies have shown that compared to their Baby Boomer counterparts, millennials place more value on their freedom and work-life balance (Myers and Sadaghiani, 2010; Twenge et al., 2010; Gursoy et al., 2013). Smola and Sutton (2002) observed that millennials are more inclined towards seeking employment contracts that place emphasis on a balance between work goals and personal goals (Smola and Sutton, 2002). This assertion is supported by Cennamo and Gardener (2008) who affirmed that millennials placed more meaning on freedom-related values such as work-life balance and autonomy, when compared to older employees from previous generations. Moreover, Gursoy et al. (2013) reported that millennials valued flexible work environments that provided them with the latitude to focus on other personal aspects of their lives that mattered more to them when they needed to.

Millennials have been observed to prioritize family and friends over their work. This prioritization of family ties and friendships does not necessarily indicate that they do not value their professional work. On the contrary, millennials have been found to be ambitious. However, unlike Baby Boomers, they are not typical “workaholics” (Gursoy et al., 2008). According to Cennamo and Gardner (2008), millennials prefer to be engaged in a psychological contract that emphasizes social involvement at work, due to their preference of having social connections at work. This notion is supported by findings from Wong et al.’s (2008) study on personality and motivation across generational cohorts, which confirmed that millennials had a higher score on affiliative traits, than other generational cohorts. Also, of significance in existing research, millennials are seen to value strong leadership and expect mentorship opportunities from their managers (Gursoy et al., 2008; Gursoy et al., 2013). Moreover, millennials have been reported as highly valuing training and development opportunities that enhance their skills and ensures their relevance and attractiveness in the job market (Wong et al., 2008; Hauw and Vos, 2010). Prior research has also indicated that the Baby Boomer and Generation X cohorts are characterized by an individualistic approach to

life and work, and a desire for structure and job security, while millennials yearn for increased participation at work, team-based assignments, and an undefined flow of information and flexibility in their employment (Brack and Kelly, 2012). Compared to Baby Boomers and Generation Xers, millennials have been evidenced to display elevated levels of overall company satisfaction, job satisfaction, appreciation, and a high desire for career advancement (PWC, 2008; Chou, 2012; O'Connor and Raile, 2015). According to Hauw and Vos (2010), career progression has been reported to be a significant motivational driver for millennials.

Millennials have also been characterized as independent, self-expressive, self-confident, teamwork-oriented, and productive when in the presence of individual contact, strong leadership, and direction (Gursoy et al., 2008). Surprisingly, some researchers have shown job security to be an important aspect of work for millennials, in contrast to the conventional assumption and long-held belief that millennials tend to have a low regard for their job security (Wong et al., 2008; Chou, 2012; O'Connor and Raile, 2015). This notion can be explained by the Great Recession of the late 2000s that placed millennials in the unenviable position of incurring higher debt levels amid limited employment opportunities, as compared to their Generation X predecessors (Pew Research Center, 2014; O'Connor and Raile, 2015). Although millennials value job security (Hauw and Vos, 2010; Kuron et al., 2015), Hauw and Vos (2010) contended that this generational cohort is more proactive in ensuring their own security by improving their employability. This proactive behaviour is a result of the present work environment which has been observed to no longer offer millennials a sense of lifelong employment and organizational security (Hauw and Vos, 2010).

Of particular importance to the millennial generation cohort, is working in an environment that provides meaning and flexibility (Dries, Pepermans and Kerpel, 2008). Individuals in this cohort prefer to be engaged in meaningful work and seek to make a difference in society (Burkus, 2010; Twenge et al., 2010; Brack and Kelly, 2012; Chou, 2012). According to Rawlins, Indvik and Johnson (2010), millennials prioritize seeking employment in socially responsible organizations that provide personal fulfilment on the job. In addition, compared to preceding generational cohorts, millennials have also been observed to value jobs that afford them vacation time. They also highly value job promotions and higher salaries (Park and Gursoy, 2012). Furthermore, in contrast to Baby Boomers, they have been observed to highly prioritize extrinsic rewards in the form of monetary compensation and material possessions (Twenge et al., 2013). Their value for increased extrinsic rewards has been shown to be attributed to their need for economic stability as they have grown up in an economic era

that places greater financial demands on them such as the increased cost of higher education for instance (Twenge et al., 2013).

Despite being lauded for being ambitious, valuing organizational training and development, and seeking individual fulfilment from their endeavours (Chou, 2012), millennials have, however, also been criticized for their inflated sense of self-importance (Chou, 2012), false sense of entitlement, eagerness for approval, poor communication skills (Alsop, 2009; Rosa and Hastings, 2016), disloyalty, impatience (Myers and Sadaghiani, 2010) and naivety (Burkus, 2010).

In light of the aforementioned characteristics of millennials in today's workplace, organizations face a major challenge of engaging millennial employees and thus, actively continue to seek various avenues through which to attract and retain millennials (Schullery, 2013; Thompson and Gregory, 2012). According to Park and Gursoy (2012) work engagement levels are likely to differ due to the generational differences of employees. Therefore, organizations must constantly strive to identify and implement motivational factors that drive work engagement among millennial employees. Moreover, addressing the issue of millennial engagement has been a persistent challenge practitioners have become increasingly under pressure to meet, due to the ongoing shift of the global workforce, whereby preceding generational cohorts including the Traditionalists, Baby Boomers, and Generation Xers, are expected to soon retire (PWC, 2008; Schullery, 2013). Thus, engagement of millennials is essential for organizations that seek to continuously improve on customer service, as well as attract and retain a workforce of talented employees, who are very well known to hop from one job to another if not adequately engaged (Schullery, 2013).

As identified from the extant literature, typical characteristics of the four generational cohorts are summarized in Table 2.1.

Table 2.1. Summary Characteristics of the Generational Cohorts (1925 to 2000)				
Generational Cohort	Traditionalists	Baby Boomers	Generation Xers	Millennials
Date (Year) of Birth	Born between the years 1925 and 1945	Born between the years 1946 and 1964	Born between the years 1965 and 1980	Born between the years 1980 and 2000
Other Names	- The Silent Generation - The Great Generation	Boomers	The Baby Bust Generation (few children per family)	Generation Y, GenMe, Nexers
Defining Events (Trends)	- The Great Depression of the 1930s - World War 2 - The attack on Pearl Harbor	- The Civil Rights and Women's Movements - The political assassinations of President John F. Kennedy and Martin Luther King	- The end of the Cold War - The Watergate Scandal	- The Internet Boom - The Great Economic Recession (2000s) - The September 9/11 attacks

General Characteristics (Shared Views, Values, and Attitudes)	• Self-disciplined • Belief is self- sacrifice • Value hard work • Loyal employees • Believe in traditional values of gender roles • High concern for security • Supportive of conservative values • Prefer leadership by hierarchy • Value safe working conditions • Value job security • Derive satisfaction from doing their jobs well	• Live to work: Work is the most important part of their life • Respect authority and hierarchy • Loyal to organization • Job promotion on the basis of seniority • Value job security • Expect loyalty from organization • Prefer being in charge • Tough to teach new tricks • Resilient to change • Strong advocate for rules • Prefer status quo • Not good at multitasking • Not technologically savvy • Enjoy personal gratification • High interest in self-fulfillment • Strong work ethic • High job involvement • Workaholics • Value Job security • Highly competitive	• Work to live: They integrate work and personal life • Very Impatient • Prefer to work alone • Prefer informalities • Seniority is not important • Expect rewards and recognition for job well done • Prefer immediate recognition through title, pay, praise or promotion • Very conscious about work-life balance • Low tolerance for bureaucracy and rules • Prefer flexible schedules • Independent • Self-reliant • Self-sufficient • Value opportunities for professional growth • Question Authority • Expect and demand change • Distrust institutions • Good at multitasking • Task oriented • Prefer challenging work • Value entrepreneurship	• Trust centralized authority • Favor teamwork • Independent • Self-confident • Value meaningful work • Question rules and authority- challenge workplace norms • Technological • Savvy • Prefer flexible schedules • Not loyal to organizations • Priorities family and friends over work • Very ambitious • Value professional development • Seek out mentors • High-self esteem • Value autonomy and work-life balance • Seek challenging work • Expect rapid career progression • Required constant recognition • Prefer structure and direction • Strong sense of entitlement • Better multi-taskers

Note: Generational Cohort Characteristics summarized from prior studies (i.e. Kupperschmidt, 2000; Chen and Choi, 2008; Egri and Ralston, 2004; Yu and Miller, 2005; Cennamo and Gardner, 2008; Gursoy et al., 2008; Sullivan, Forret and Carraher, 2009; Krahn and Galambos, 2014).

2.2.7 The Millennial (Generation Y) Workforce in the Hospitality Industry

Researchers and practitioners within the hospitality industry have, over the last 30 years primarily focused on the work expectations of employees who belong to the Baby Boomer and Generation X cohorts. The reason for this is that the generational cohort of Baby Boomers were the prevailing employees at the time, whereas Generation X employees were joining the workforce, subsequently progressing through the corporate ladder (Brown, Thomas and Bosselman, 2015). However, in today's work environment, hotel organizations like many

others, have been experiencing a shift in the generational workforce such that Baby Boomers have been gradually leaving the workforce, and Generation X employees have been moving into middle and senior leadership roles at a time when their potential successors millennials, transition into entry-level management and leadership positions, and entry line-level positions (Brown et al., 2015). This shift in the formation of the workforce necessitates that researchers and practitioners continue to enhance their knowledge and awareness of how to motivate and drive performance among new entrants to the employment workforce. Moreover, the identification and implementation of effective retention strategies among millennial employees in particular, is paramount to mitigating against the high turnover rates that have been observed amongst them, compared to older generational workforces (Yusoff, Queiri, Zakaria and Hisham, 2013).

An extant literature review evidences that generational-cohort-focused research in the hospitality management domain is limited (Costanza et al., 2012; Lub et al., 2012). However, of the few existing research studies conducted, empirical research demonstrates that generational differences have an impact on work motivation across the existing generations in the workplace (Park and Gursoy, 2012). As a case in point, in their United States study on the work engagement construct's generational effects on hotel employees, Park and Gursoy (2012) deduced that engaging millennial employees was critical to their retention as compared to Baby Boomers and Generation Xers.

Elsewhere, in a study of surveyed employees working in a mid-upscale chain hotel, Lu and Gursoy (2013) reported that due to the weaker commitments among millennials towards their jobs, their emotional exhaustion exerted a strong influence on their job dissatisfaction and turnover intention as compared to Baby Boomers. Moreover, in a qualitative study focused on the analysis of turnover issues among 146 millennial hospitality employees with a hospitality education, it was demonstrated that long working hours, low pay or a lack of pay increase, as well as conflict between work and family, were significant factors that led to the turnover of millennial graduate employees (Brown et al., 2015). However, findings from the study also indicate that nevertheless, these millennial hospitality graduates reported that they enjoyed working with and serving people, and exhibited a perceived excitement that came along with working in hotels.

In other research, a survey conducted in the United States among 120,000 millennial employees in the hospitality industry evidenced on-job training and fast track career

development opportunities as the most effective ways of attracting and retaining millennials in the hotel industry (American Hotel and Lodging Association, 2016). These empirical findings were consonant with a study carried out by Abuelhassan, Elsayed, Soliman, Farivar and Abdelgawwad (2017) who investigated managers' perceptions towards employees' generational differences in hotels in Luxor, Egypt, where they found that millennial employees valued quicker career progression opportunities more than Baby Boomers and Generation X employees, who valued career opportunities solely based on loyalty and merit, respectively. In addition, findings from the study reported millennials as exhibiting a higher rate of turnover as compared to older generations. This trend was mainly attributed to the pursuit of financial stability and the availability of career opportunities outside of their hotels.

Of note, Inelmen, Zeytinoglu and Uygur (2012) observed that a majority of the positions in the hospitality industry require a wealth of physical effort and mental input, and as such a larger proportion of frontline positions have been increasingly and in recent years, often occupied, by younger employees. In light of this, and coupled with the differences in attitudes, expectations, and behaviours of millennial employees in the work environment, Park and Gursoy (2012) proffered that hospitality managers must strive to incorporate the work preferences (e.g. meaningful and fulfilling work roles) and work values of millennials into existing human resource policies to ensure their motivation and retention. Park and Gursoy (2011, 2012) however, also advised caution regarding the generational characteristics of millennials, which they described as being a double-edged sword for organizations with substandard human resource policies, such that without harnessing the distinct psychological characteristics of millennial employees and enhancing the work environment and resources in the organization, organizations will be less successful in engaging millennials in their work.

Against this contextual backdrop, this study is focused on frontline employees of the millennial generational cohort in the Kenyan hospitality (hotel) industry.

The theoretical foundation of the study is introduced and discussed in Section 2.3.

2.3 Theoretical Framework of the Study

In this section, an understanding of the concepts of work engagement, High-Performance Work Practices (HPWPs) as manifested by training, empowerment, rewards, job security, and career opportunities, as well as three job outcomes, namely creative performance, extra-role customer service, and turnover intention, is discussed.

First, the extant literature on (1) employee attitudes and behaviour from the perspectives of Social Exchange Theory (SET) and (2) the Motivational Process of the Job Demands-Resources (JD-R) Model, is reviewed as a basis for the theoretical framework underpinning the concept of work engagement.

Second, the constructs representing the concepts of (1) work engagement, (2) HPWPs, and (3) the three aforementioned job outcomes, are conceptualized.

Third, the relationships between (1) work engagement, (2) HPWPs, and (3) the three job outcomes, are discussed and hypotheses developed. Lastly, the conceptual model developed for the study is presented.

2.3.1 The Social Exchange Theory (SET)

The Social Exchange Theory (SET) is considered as an important paradigm for explaining workplace behaviour (Cropanzano and Mitchell, 2005). It is recognized as among the most significant theories in the field of sociology and social psychology (Cook and Rice, 2003). The genesis and foundational work of the SET can be attributed to the scholarly efforts of George Homans, John Thibaut, Harold Kelly, and Peter Blau in the period from 1958 to 1964 (Emerson, 1976; Cropanzano and Mitchell, 2005). Based on their foundational works, these researchers considered social behaviour to be an exchange of resources.

Although divergent views of social exchange have emerged over time, there has been general consensus among theorists that the phenomenon of social exchange entails a sequence of interactions that are observed to foster obligations between parties (Emerson, 1976; Cropanzano and Mitchell, 2005). These interactions, as explained by the SET, are often viewed as associations between two parties that are in a position of reciprocal interdependence (Blau, 1964; Cropanzano and Mitchell, 2005; Saks, 2006).

The SET is founded on the basic principle that overtime, relationships mature into trusting and loyal commitments that are mutual (Cropanzano and Mitchell, 2005; Karatepe, 2013b). This principle is upheld when two parties adhere to specific ‘rules of exchange’ which incorporate the dual components of reciprocity and repayment. According to Saks (2006) reciprocity and repayment are observed to occur when the actions initiated by a party result in an anticipated response or action by the other. In concert with the basic principle of the SET, Cropanzano and Mitchell (2005) emphasized that for the social exchange experience to manifest, “a bi-directional transaction, where something has to be given and something

returned”, is required (p. 876). Therefore, interdependence, which involves reciprocity (Saks, 2006) influenced by mutual agreements (Cropanzano and Mitchell, 2005), is regarded as the fundamental characteristic of social exchange (Molm, 1994). For instance, when employees in an organization receive worthwhile benefits from their employers, they feel an obligation to reciprocate and respond to the organization through favourable job-based outcomes (Cropanzano and Mitchell, 2005; Saks, 2006; Karatepe, 2013b).

The SET contends that employees form relationships at work (Cropanzano, Rupp and Byrne, 2003). Such relationship of social exchange between the parties concerned develop via a series of mutual, but not necessarily simultaneous, exchanges that foster a manifestation of reciprocal responsibilities by each party (Blau, 1964). SET identifies with two types of interpersonal relationships, that is economic exchange relationships and social exchange relationships (Cropanzano et al., 2003). Whereas the latter are short-term and refer to the exchange of more tangible economic benefits, the former involve the interchange of socio-emotional benefits correlated to “close personal attachments and open-ended obligations” (Cropanzano et al., 2003, p.161; Karatepe, 2013b).

Given that the SET involves repayment and reciprocity, organizations that foster environments for social exchange relationships by providing economic and socio-emotional benefits to employees, tend to experience benefits such as increased job performance, increased organizational citizenship behaviour, lower turnover intention (Cropanzano et al., 2003), higher organizational commitment (Cropanzano and Mitchell, 2005), and higher work engagement (Karatepe, 2013b) from their employees. This is essentially attributed to the employee’s need to respond to or repay the organization in kind (Saks, 2006; Karatepe, 2013b). Evidence put forth by social exchange researchers, however, proffers that the lack of social exchange relationships fosters higher turnover intention, lower job performance, and lower organizational citizenship behaviours to the organization and supervisor (Cropanzano and Mitchell, 2005), among employees. SET motivates the theoretical underpinnings of the present study and underlines the essential role work engagement plays in the relationship of the study variables among millennial frontline employees as a form of repayment. Under the SET, a strong theoretical premise can, thus, be put forth to explain the phenomenon of work engagement among employees (Saks, 2006).

Work engagement qualifies as one way employees can repay their organizations in social exchange relationships (Saks, 2006; Karatepe and Olugbade, 2016). When organizations

provide employees with economic and socio-emotional benefits, they will feel obligated to engage themselves to varying degrees, and respond by committing much more of their physical, emotional, and cognitive resources (Saks, 2006). As such, these employees display high energy levels, show greater enthusiasm, and are fully absorbed (Karatepe, 2013b). Due to the available resources at their disposal, such employees feel indebted such that they are themselves more deeply immersed in their role performance as a means through which they strive to repay the organization (Saks, 2006). Conversely, employees working in an environment devoid of socio-emotional as well as economic resources are often inclined towards withdrawing and disengaging themselves from work roles (Saks, 2006). This builds support for the SET, in that employees will only dispense their cognitive, emotional, and physical resources in their work roles in accordance with the economic and socio-emotional benefits they receive from the organization (Saks, 2006). This reciprocal interdependence is consistent with Robison, Perryman, and Hayday's (2004) definition of the engagement concept as a duality of relationships between the employer and employee.

Consonant with existing literature, studies have indicated that work engagement functions as a form of repayment by employees. For instance, in a study conducted on determinants and consequences of work engagement, Saks (2006) demonstrated that job resources including job characteristics, and procedural justice, and organizational support, resulted in employees' exhibiting reciprocation behaviours through elevated job and organization engagement levels. Similarly, in a study conducted by Karatepe (2013b) in the hospitality (hotel) industry, it was concluded that the existence of High-Performance Work Practices (HPWPs) resulted in employees responding through elevated levels of work engagement. Furthermore, Karatepe (2013b) also observed that the existence of resources such as HPWPs enhanced the quality of social exchanges between employees and organizations, while fostering a trusting work environment that is primed for superior performance outcomes.

Thus, based on the 'rules of exchange' as prescribed by the SET, a theoretical foundation that explains the varying degrees of engagement among employees in their work roles and organization, is constituted. SET provides guidance to explain the relative associations between High-Performance Work Practices (HPWPs) as manifested by training, empowerment, rewards, career opportunities, and job security, work engagement, and three job outcomes, namely creative performance and extra-role customer service, and turnover intention, as depicted in the study's conceptual model.

As previously mentioned, the SET contends that employees and organizations must abide by specific rules of exchange. When such rules of repayment or reciprocity are adhered to, trusting and loyal commitments that are mutual develop (Cropanzano and Mitchell, 2005; Karatepe and Olugbade, 2016). Consequently, frontline employees feel that they have an obligation to repay their organizations for availing various HPWPs. Specifically, when frontline employees recognize that the organization is taking care of them by availing HPWPs in the form of training, empowerment, rewards, career opportunities, and job security, they feel obligated to respond by displaying higher work engagement levels, in exchange for the available HPWPs, thereby displaying positive job outcomes (Karatepe, 2013b; Karatepe and Olugbade, 2016) such as creative performance and extra-role customer service behaviour, and lower turnover intention. Therefore, the SET supports the notion that there is a higher likelihood of employees displaying higher levels of engagement and performance in exchange for job benefits and resources afforded by the organization.

2.3.2 The Motivational Process of the Job Demands-Resources (JD-R) Model

The Job Demands-Resources (JD-R) model is a theoretical perspective broadly used in the literature to explain the process of burnout among employees (Demerouti, Bakker, Nachreiner and Schaufeli, 2001). However, with the subsequent emergence of the concept of engagement, numerous scholars have since adopted the JD-R model to investigate and explain the engagement process (Kim, Shin and Swanger, 2009a). This is a heuristic model that explains two facets of specific working conditions in an organization that result in employee well-being and motivation. The first set is concerned with job demands, while the second set with job resources (Hakanen, Schaufeli and Ahola, 2008). Bakker and Demerouti's (2007) JD-R model is reproduced in Figure 2.2.

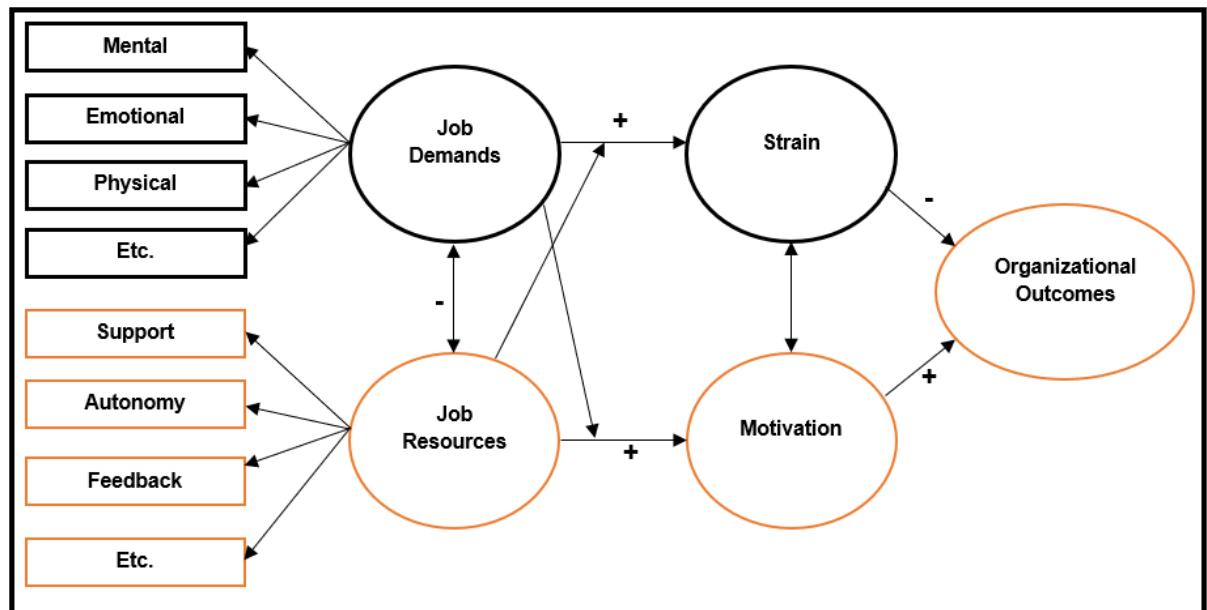


Figure 2.2. The Job Demands-Resources Model (JD-R model) adopted from Bakker and Demerouti (2007)

Job demands signify the physical, organizational, or social facets of the job that necessitate the sustenance of psychological or physical effort, and are connected to psychological or physiological costs (Schaufeli and Bakker, 2004; Hakanen et al., 2008). Such demands include time pressure, workload, and unfavourable physical environments (Crawford, LePine, and Rich, 2010), all of which could result in adverse consequences such as burnout, absenteeism, and health-related problems (Schaufeli, Bakker and Rhenen, 2009). Although job demands may not necessarily be negative, but rather used to measure the challenges of the job, job demands can become stressors in situations where employees are required to dispense more effort to sustain expected performance levels (Schaufeli et al., 2009).

Job resources on the other hand, refer to those physical, organizational, or social dimensions that are critical to the attainment of work-related goals that minimize job demands and related physiological and psychological costs, thereby fostering individual growth, and development (Bakker, Demerouti, Taris, Schaufeli and Schreurs, 2003a; Schaufeli and Bakker, 2004; Hakanen et al., 2008). These resources are multi-layered and can be located at the organizational level. They include career advancement opportunities, salary, and job security. At the interpersonal level, they encompass co-worker as well as supervisor support. At the organization of work level, job resources include empowerment and role clarity. Lastly, at the task-specific level, job resources include autonomy, task significance, as well as performance feedback (Bakker and Demerouti, 2007).

The JD-R model's fundamental principle is that the aforementioned job demands and resources induce two independent psychological processes, namely health impairment and motivation, respectively (Bakker and Demerouti, 2007; Bakker, Demerouti and Vergel, 2014). Health impairment is a process that is characterized by the depletion of energy, whereby employees increasingly expend their mental and physical resources in a sustained effort to meet perceived job demands (Bakker and Demerouti, 2007), thus leading to burnout and health-related concerns (Bakker, Demerouti, Boer and Schaufeli, 2003b; Crawford et al., 2010). The motivation process of the JD-R model also known as the motivational pathway in the JD-R model (Karadas and Karatepe, 2019) is premised upon the assumption that job resources are potential motivators, and that the absence of such resources will have injurious effects on the employees' motivation and performance, subsequently leading to disengagement from their work roles (Bakker et al., 2003a).

The present study draws from the motivational pathway in the JD-R model to explain and predict millennial frontline employees' work engagement and job outcomes. As per the tenets of the JD-R model, job resources are useful in managing job demands, and contributing to the well-being of employees (Xanthopoulou, Bakker, Heuven, Demerouti and Schaufeli 2008). Specifically, job resources are assumed to initiate a motivation process through which perceived resources that are essential to the attainment of work goals diminish job demands, enable individual growth and learning and development, and increase employees' willingness to exert more effort in their work-related duties (Bakker and Demerouti, 2007; Xanthopoulou et al., 2008; Karatepe and Olugbade, 2009). These perceptions of, and beliefs in, resources magnify the extent to which employees willingly dedicate their efforts and abilities in performing their work roles. Conversely, the absence of these resources has been shown to induce a cynical attitude among employees toward their work (Bakker and Demerouti, 2007). Consequently, job resources are presumed to directly and positively correlate with work engagement (Xanthopoulou et al., 2008).

The motivational process of the JD-R model is based on the notion that job resources represent motivational functions that are either intrinsic or extrinsic in nature (Xanthopoulou, et al., 2008). While intrinsic job resources e.g. social support and rewards are responsible for the fulfilment of fundamental personal needs and fostering individual growth and development, extrinsic job resources are responsible for fostering employees' willingness to exert efforts towards the completion of their work duties (Schaufeli and Bakker 2004; Xanthopoulou et al., 2008). In both instances, the increased possibility of successfully completing assigned tasks

instigates a feeling of fulfilment among employees that enhances their work engagement levels (Xanthopoulou et al., 2008). Although job resources are acknowledged as motivators, a lack of resources will hinder employee learning, growth, and development, as well as their ability to accomplish their work goals, thereby resulting in their withdrawal, and reduced motivation and overall commitment (Bakker et al., 2003b).

Consistent with the motivational pathway in the JD-R model, empirical evidence from literature supports job resources' positive relation with work engagement and job outcomes. For example, in a burnout and work engagement study, Hakanen, Bakker and Schaufeli (2006) used the JD-R model to study a sample of Finnish teachers of the Education Department of Helsinki, to investigate the presence of two parallel processes that concern the well-being of the employee, that is, the energetical process linked to job demands, and the motivational process that is linked to job resources. Results from the study affirmed the existence of these dual processes, with the energetical process being more dominant. In particular, results indicated that burnout mediated the impact of high job demands (work overload, pupil misbehaviour, physical work environment), on ill health, while the work engagement construct was observed to effectively mediate job resources (i.e. social climate, job control, and supervisor support), and organizational commitment. Moreover, burnout was also found to mediate the effects of a lack of resources on poor engagement.

Crawford et al. (2010) in their meta-analytic research study, showed a consistent positive linkage between job resources (e.g. feedback, rewards and recognition, support, autonomy, and opportunities for development), and work engagement. In a longitudinal study, Hakanen, et al. (2008) applied the JD-R model to predict organizational commitment among Finnish dentists. Results of their study evidenced the robustness of the motivational process by showing job resources e.g. craftsmanship and professional interactions, influenced work engagement, itself a predictor of organizational commitment. Similarly, Schaufeli and Bakker (2004) used the JD-R model to examine the relationships among job demands, job resources, work engagement, and burnout. They hypothesized and adduced empirical evidence that resources encompassing social support, feedback, and supervisory coaching, influenced work engagement levels. Additionally, work engagement was itself a mediating mechanism between job resources and turnover intention. In contrast, results of the study indicated that burnout was for the most part, precipitated by job demands, that is, emotional demands and work overload, in addition to an absence of resources that is social support, feedback, and

supervisory coaching. Further, findings from the study confirmed that burnout was a mediator of the association between job demands and health problems.

Taken together, empirical evidence from existing literature supports the notion that job demands and resources are accountable for binary processes (Schaufeli and Bakker 2004; Bakker and Demerouti, 2007), each of which are distinct. Accordingly, job demands are associated with an energy depletion process linked to health-related concerns. In contrast, job resources are associated with a motivational sequence linked to engagement and commitment (Bakker and Demerouti, 2007). Moreover, it must be noted that both job resources and demands are negatively associated such that job demands characterized as high work demands may inhibit the acquisition and maintenance of resources. On the other hand, high job resources such as feedback and support may diminish job demands (Bakker, Hakanen, Demerouti and Xanthopoulou, 2007). Overall, from the JD-R model perspective, elevated job demands and the absence of resources constitute a basis for burnout (strain), and decreased work engagement levels (motivation), respectively (Hakanen et al., 2006) as shown in Figure 2.1.

Therefore, based on the motivational process of the JD-R model and its precepts, it is postulated in the present study that the work engagement construct functions to mediate the impact of determinant HPWPs as manifested by training, empowerment, rewards, career opportunities, and job security, on the consequent job outcomes creative performance, extra-role customer service, and turnover intention. That is, the job resources HPWPs in form of training, empowerment, rewards, career opportunities, and job security, enhances work engagement, which is a motivational construct. As such, within the organization, millennial frontline employees who are engaged have less of an inclination to leave, are more willing to generate creative ideas for service improvement and resolve customer requests and problems in a resourceful manner, while going above and beyond their prescribed duties.

2.4 The Concept of Work Engagement

2.4.1 The Evolution of the Concept of Work Engagement

The concept of engagement was initially theorized by Kahn (1990). Kahn's conceptual work provided the foundation for the theoretical advancement of this concept. To understand and expound the linkage between the employee's behaviour and work roles, engagement was characterized as comprising personal engagement and disengagement (Kahn, 1990).

As defined by Kahn (1990), personal engagement refers to “the harnessing of organization members’ selves to their work roles. In the case of engagement, people employ and express themselves physically, cognitively, and emotionally during role performance” (p. 694). He further postulated that personal engagement is the application and embodiment of one’s “preferred self” in his or her work roles (p. 700). Conversely, Kahn (1990) characterized personal disengagement as “the uncoupling of selves from work roles. In the case of disengagement, people withdraw and defend themselves physically, cognitively, or emotionally, during role performance” (p. 694). Further, he asserted that personal disengagement involves the withdrawal of one’s self-embodiment and self-employment in their work roles. This definition of personal disengagement was premised upon the lack of an individual’s expressive and energetic self during role performance.

In defining engagement, Kahn (1990) characterized a triad of psychological conditions that influence engagement and disengagement at the personal level, that is, meaningfulness, safety, and availability. These three conditions were characterized as being instrumental to shaping how individuals inhabit their work roles (Kahn, 1990). While psychological meaningfulness refers to the fulfilment of an individual’s experience when he or she invests his or her cognitive, emotional, and physical energy in his or her job roles, the notion of psychological availability concerns the emotional, physical, and physiological resources that the individual can employ at a particular moment. Psychological safety on the other hand, denotes to an individual’s feeling concerning his or her involvement in any work situation devoid of the apprehension about adverse implications to career, self-image, or repute. Based on Kahn’s (1990) definition, the degree of engagement in the work is contingent upon the physical, cognitive, and emotional attachment of employees in their roles in the workplace and their connections to their work environment. Thus, employees who display engagement in their work tend to be more physically absorbed in their roles, and are cognitively aware and emotionally attached to their work and working environment.

Despite providing a conceptual foundation for the engagement construct, Kahn did not necessarily develop an operational definition of the concept per se (Kim et al., 2009). Subsequent to Kahn’s (1990) conceptualization of engagement, Maslach and Leiter (1997) and in later work, Maslach, Schaufeli, and Leiter (2001), expanded Kahn’s (1990) definition and conceptualized it as the positive inverse of ‘burnout’. The concept of engagement in this definition is described through the dimensions of energy, involvement, and efficacy, the three

antipodes of the dimensions of burnout namely, exhaustion, cynicism, and ineffectiveness. As per this definition, engaged employees in an organization tend to be energetic and connected to their work roles, with the ability to meet their job demands effectively. Conversely, disengaged employees are less energetic and perceive their work as unpleasant, unfulfilling, and meaningless (Maslach et al., 2001). By implication, their definition seemed to indicate that the assessment of engagement be measured through the opposite sequence of scores on the Maslach Burnout Inventory (MBI) scale, used to gauge the three dimensions of burnout. However, Schaufeli et al. (2002) disputed the adoption of the MBI scale as a measure of engagement, as they preferred that both engagement and burnout are positioned on opposing poles of a spectrum not measurable by a single instrument. As such, in their research, they posited that engagement and burnout were in fact opposite concepts that could only be gauged autonomously using contrasting instruments (Maslach et al., 2001).

Subsequent to these postulations, Schaufeli et al. (2002) described engagement as a positive and fulfilling, work-related state of mind characterized by dimensions of employee vigour, dedication, and absorption. First, vigour signifies “high levels of energy and mental resilience while working, the willingness to invest effort in one’s work, and persistence even in the face of difficulties” (p. 74). Second, dedication signifies “a sense of significance, enthusiasm, inspiration, pride, and challenge” (p. 74). Lastly, the absorption dimension refers to “the state of being fully concentrated and deeply engrossed in one’s work, whereby time passes quickly and one has difficulties with detaching oneself from work” (p. 75). According to Schaufeli, Bakker and Salanova (2006), vigour and dedication are considered as direct antipodes of the main dimensions of burnout, that is, exhaustion and cynicism, respectively. However, absorption is noted as a contrasting concept of efficacy (the third dimension of burnout), but is not considered antithetical. Following this definition, Schaufeli et al. (2002) devised the 17-item Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (UWES) to gauge work engagement as an independent construct based on its three dimensions, which are vigour, dedication and absorption.

This study adopts Schaufeli et al.’s (2002) conceptualization of the engagement construct as their definition operationalizes engagement as an independent concept in contrast to Maslach et al.’s (2001) definition whereby the concept is considered as purely an opposite phenomenon to burnout. Further, this definition is adopted for the study for the reason that an assessment of the engagement literature evidences that it is universally acknowledged and used to describe this fundamental concept (Karatepe, Keshavarz and Nejati, 2010; Schaufeli, 2012; Karatepe and Olugbade, 2016). Moreover, in the extant literature, the dimensions vigour, dedication,

and absorption as the three measures of engagement, have been established as reliable, stable, and valid measures of the concept (Koyuncu et al., 2006). Accordingly, in the present study, the concept of work engagement is represented as a positive and fulfilling, work-related mental state that is characterized by employee vigour, dedication, and absorption.

Although there are divergent definitions of engagement in the workplace, researchers have contended that this concept is distinguishable from other related constructs emanating from organizational psychology, e.g. job involvement, organizational commitment, and job satisfaction (Maslach et al., 2001). For example, organization commitment denotes the affective attachment an individual has to an organization that goes beyond passive loyalty (Yucel and Bektas, 2012). Job satisfaction on the other hand, refers to the degree to which an individual derives fulfilment and meaning from his or her job (Maslach et al., 2001). Whereas organizational commitment is focused on the organization, engagement concerns the work itself. In contrast, when job satisfaction concerns the job as a means of fulfilment for an employee, engagement is focused on the employee's relationship with the work itself. Of note, a similar construct job involvement, somewhat differs from engagement in that it concerns the degree to which a job is pivotal to the individual and their singularity, whereas engagement itself is more oriented towards how the person himself or herself behaves when performing his or her job roles (May, Gilson and Harter, 2004). Although job involvement may be similar to work engagement based on the involvement aspect of the concept, the exclusion of energy and effectiveness exposes a glaring difference between the two constructs (Maslach et al., 2001).

Against this backdrop, the various evolving definitions of work engagement from the existing literature are summarized as presented in Table 2.2.

Table 2.2. Definitions of the Concepts of Work Engagement	
Definition	Scholar (Literature Source)
<i>Personal Engagement</i> involves the application of organization members selves to their job roles. When engaged, people employ and express themselves cognitively, emotionally, and physically, when performing in their roles.	Kahn (1990, p.694)
<i>Engagement</i> is an individual's psychological presence in, or orientation towards, job activities essential for effective role performance.	Rothbard (2001, p.656)
<i>Job Engagement</i> is simply the positive antipode of burnout.	Maslach et al. (2001, p.416)
<i>Engagement</i> is a positive and fulfilling, work-related mental state that is characterized by the behavioural traits of employee vigour, dedication, and absorption.	Schaufeli et al. (2002, p.74)
<i>Engagement</i> is the extent to which an individual is alert and engrossed in their work-role performance.	Saks (2006, p.602)
<i>Work Engagement</i> is characterized as a broad affective and continuous cognitive state.	Koyuncu et al. (2006, p.300)
<i>Engagement</i> encompasses a desired condition, has an organizational aim, and signifies the characteristics of involvement, commitment, passion,	Macey and Schneider (2008, p. 4)

enthusiasm, focused effort, and energy. As such, it simultaneously captures behaviour and attitudinal dimensions.	
<i>Employee Work Engagement</i> is the extent to which the employees are focused and present at work.	Rothbard and Patil (2011, p.2)
<i>Work Engagement</i> is a relatively enduring mental state, which refers to the concurrent investment of human energies in the execution of job roles in the workplace.	Christian, Garza and Slaughter (2011, p.95)

2.4.2 The Determinants (Antecedents) of Work Engagement

Researchers and industrial practitioners have, over time, endeavoured to understand the drivers of work engagement with the aim of implementing strategies that would impact the engagement levels of employees. McBain (2007) defined drivers of engagement as those factors that foster employees to be committed and fully engrossed in their work roles, and as components of the employee proposition that an organization affords its workforce. Practitioners are interested in the drivers of work engagement due to their significant influence on work-oriented behavioural and organizational consequences such as job satisfaction, turnover intention and job performance, organizational success (Salanova, Agut and Peiro, 2005; Saks, 2006), as well as financial returns (Xanthopoulou, Bakker, Demerouti and Schaufeli, 2009).

A review of the extant engagement literature evidences that over time, scholars have identified various determinants (antecedents) of work engagement. As a tradition, they have categorized these antecedents into two groups, that is, contextual factors (job resources), and individual factors (personal resources) (Maslach et al., 2001). While contextual factors are described as those that occur in the work setting and do not emanate from within the individual employee, individual factors are those factors that are identified as emanating from within a specific individual employee.

(i). Contextual Factors: Job Resources

According to Bakker et al. (2014), job resources are the most significant factors that influence work engagement behaviours among employees. These resources notably become more salient and attain their motivational potential in the event that these employees face heightened job demands such as mental pressure as well as excess workloads (Bakker, 2009). As previously elucidated, job resources are highly functional in enabling an employee accomplish work-related goals, subdue work demands, and foster their individual growth, learning, and development (Bakker, 2009, 2011). Such job resources typically include craftsmanship, skill

variety, performance feedback, supervisor support, colleague support, autonomy, and opportunities for learning (Schaufeli and Bakker, 2004; Bakker, 2009, 2011).

The job resources component plays an intrinsic role as a motivational factor (Bakker and Demerouti, 2007). Intrinsically, job resources stimulate the employee's processes of personal growth, learning, and development by fulfilling their fundamental human needs for autonomy, sense of belonging, and competence (Bakker, Albercht and Leiter, 2011). For example, Bakker and Demerouti (2007) asserted that the presence of performance feedback, social support, and the latitude to make decisions, fosters an environment that promotes learning and development, which in turn increases the employee's job competence, while satisfying one's sense of belonging and need for autonomy. Further, job resources play an extrinsic motivational role (Bakker and Demerouti, 2007). Extrinsically, these resources are essential in enabling an employee accomplish his or her work goals. Specifically, work environments with resources e.g. performance feedback and supportive colleagues, stimulate an employee's eagerness to dedicate his or her efforts and abilities towards the completion of work-related tasks (Bakker and Demerouti, 2007; Bakker et al., 2011). Collectively, the motivational functions of job resources, both intrinsic and extrinsic, result in positive outcomes, through either the fulfilment of basic human needs or accomplishment of job-related goals, which further promote the occurrence of engagement (Bakker and Demerouti, 2007).

Consonant with existing literature, prior empirical research has evidenced that job resources and work engagement are positively correlated. For instance, Bakker et al. (2007) examined the combined effects of high job demands and resources on work engagement, applied to a sample of 805 Finnish teachers employed in elementary, secondary, and vocational schools. In their study, the researchers investigated whether job resources enhanced worked engagement in the event that job demands were high. Study findings demonstrated that job resources functioned as a buffer and diminished the adverse linkage observed between pupil mis-behaviour (job demand) and work engagement. Findings from the study also confirmed that when teachers faced elevated levels of pupil misdemeanour, job resources stimulated work engagement. Specifically, innovativeness, organizational climate, appreciation, and supervisor support, were significant job resources that aided the teachers in coping with high job demands such as high levels of pupil mis-behaviour.

These findings echo those of Schaufeli and Bakker (2004) who conducted a multi-sample study investigating job demands and resources, and their association with burnout and

engagement outcomes. Results of their study involving Dutch employees in insurance, occupational health, safety service firms, a homecare establishment, and a pension fund company, confirmed the existence of a positive link between job resources and work engagement. Results indicated that job resources (supervisory coaching, performance feedback, and social support from colleagues) exclusively predicted work engagement among employees, and an absence of resources compounded by job demands (workload and emotional demands), mainly predicted burnout. Moreover, the study confirmed that engagement was an effective mediator of the link between job resources and turnover intention.

Conceptually, Koyuncu et al. (2006) reported similar results in their investigation of the potential determinants and outcomes of work engagement among 286 female professionals and managers working in a bank in Turkey. Findings from the study adduced that their work-life experiences, specifically value fit, control, recognition, and rewards, predicted the three measures of engagement, that is, vigour, dedication, and absorption. Further, findings from the study showed that engagement, mainly dedication, influenced various job outcomes e.g. intention to leave the organization and job satisfaction.

Notably, from the extant literature, the aforementioned studies demonstrating the association of job resources with work engagement, albeit conducted in the contexts of varying populations, are, for the most part, cross-sectional. However, longitudinal studies affirming the correlation of job resources with work engagement, have also been conducted. For instance, in a longitudinal study involving 201 Telcom managers, Schaufeli, Bakker and van Rhenen (2009) hypothesized that an increase in job resources influenced their work engagement levels. Findings from the study showed that job resources such as learning opportunities, autonomy, performance feedback, and social support, were affirmative predictors of work engagement, and that these job resources further led to a decrease in sickness absenteeism. Similarly, in their two-year longitudinal study involving 409 Finnish healthcare personnel, Mauno, Kinnunen and Ruokolainen (2007) reported that in contrast to job demands, job resources were a more effective determinant of work engagement. Further organization-based self-esteem and job control, which were posited as job resources in the study, proved to be the best determinants (antecedents) of vigour, dedication, and absorption. Specifically, vigour and dedication were observed to be experienced frequently among the participants throughout the two-years of the study, with the availability of organization-based self-esteem and job control as resources. On the contrary, it was reported that job demands

(perceived job insecurity, work-to-family conflict, and time demands at work), were observed to be weak work engagement predictors.

(ii). Individual Factors: Personal Resources

Prior research also shows individual factors e.g. personal resources to be essential drivers of work engagement. Personal resources have been termed as positive self-evaluations related to resilience, and denotes one's awareness of one's capability to control and affect one's surroundings (Bakker, 2011). Accordingly, personal resources are useful in stimulating personal goals and achievement, and protecting an individual from associated physiological and psychological costs (Xanthopoulou et al., 2009). Such resources encompass optimism, self-esteem and self-efficacy, (Xanthopoulou et al., 2009; Bakker, 2011).

Of note, in prior studies, individual factors (personal resources) such as positive self-evaluations exert an influence on job satisfaction, performance, motivation and goal setting among other positive consequences (Bakker, 2011). This can be attributed to the wealth of personal resources that an individual possesses. The more of these resources at the individual's disposal, the higher the individuals' self-regard, thus motivating the individual to accomplish his or her intended goals. Consequently, this prompts heightened satisfaction and performance levels (Xanthopoulou et al., 2009; Bakker, 2011). Consistent with this premise, findings from empirical research indicate that there is a higher likelihood that employees will exhibit higher work engagement levels if they are optimistic and self-efficacious.

For instance, Xanthopoulou et al. (2009) confirmed that personal resources including self-esteem, optimism, self-efficacy, which are conceptually similar to job resources, influenced levels of work engagement among employees. Their study findings showed that employees with personal resources are optimistic about their futures and express confidence in their capabilities, thereby leading to goal attainment and subsequently, work engagement. In a similar vein, Karatepe and Olugbade (2009) reported conceptually similar findings in their study through which they investigated the impact of job and personal resources on frontline hotel employees' work engagement in four-star and five-star rated hotels in Nigeria. Results from their study confirmed that personal resources (namely self-efficacy and trait competitiveness) predicted employee work engagement. More specifically, their findings showed that trait competitiveness was a more effective predictor of the three work engagement dimensions, that is, vigour, dedication, and absorption, than self-efficacy, which was found to exert a significant and positive effect on absorption. Surprisingly, their study findings showed

that supervisor support (job resources), exerted no significant influence on work engagement. This was possibly due to the incorporation of personal resources that may have diminished its effects on work engagement.

In other research, Xanthopoulou, Bakker, Demerouti, and Schaufeli (2007) also investigated the function of personal resources in the Job Demands-Resources (JD-R) Model by conducting an empirical study on a sample of 714 Dutch engineering and electronics company employees. The results of their study confirmed that optimism, organizational-based self-esteem and self-efficacy, were drivers of work engagement. Specifically, findings from the study indicated that job resources stimulate employees', optimism, self-efficacy and esteem, thereby instilling in them the feeling that they are in control of their environment. Thus, they are presumed to perceive that their work output has more meaning, and have greater confidence while performing in their job roles. In turn, they remain enthusiastic, dedicated, and immersed in their work. Findings from the study affirmed that employees who are engaged have a high degree of efficacy, believing that they are capable of meeting job demands in dynamic work environments.

As evidenced following a review of the extant literature, job resources are of critical importance for the accomplishment of job-related goals and satisfying the physiological needs of employees (Bakker et al., 2011). As such, work environments with adequate resources promote work engagement, especially when job demands are considered high. In addition, personal resources such as optimism and self-efficacy can enable an employee to manage their daily work demands (Bakker et al., 2011). Bakker and Demerouti's (2008) model of work engagement, based on personal and job resources as work engagement determinants (antecedents), graphically depicts this associations as illustrated in Figure 2.3.

Based on this model, Bakker (2011) contends that personal and job resources can either independently, or jointly, influence work engagement. Specifically, job resources initiate a motivational sequence that results in more engagement and increased performance. Moreover, job resources assume greater relevance and acquire their motivational potential when employees face increased job demands such as mental and emotional demands. Further, the model postulates that personal resources can be mutually associated with job resources but are also independent predictors of work engagement. Bakker (2011) contends that those employees with adequate personal resources such as self-esteem, proactive personality and resilience for instance, have the capacity to organize job resources and as a consequence,

become more work-engaged. For instance, employees who are proactive are more likely to request for feedback on their performance and seek support thereby adding to their job resources. In turn, their work engagement levels are enhanced (Bakker et al., 2014).

Overall, this model of work engagement postulates that personal and job resources positively influence work engagement, thereby resulting in positive work performance (Bakker, 2011). In addition, a feedback loop in the work engagement model indicates that employees who are engaged tend to perform better and devise their own resources, thus, fostering work engagement over a period of time, as well as creating a spiral gain (Bakker and Demerouti, 2008).

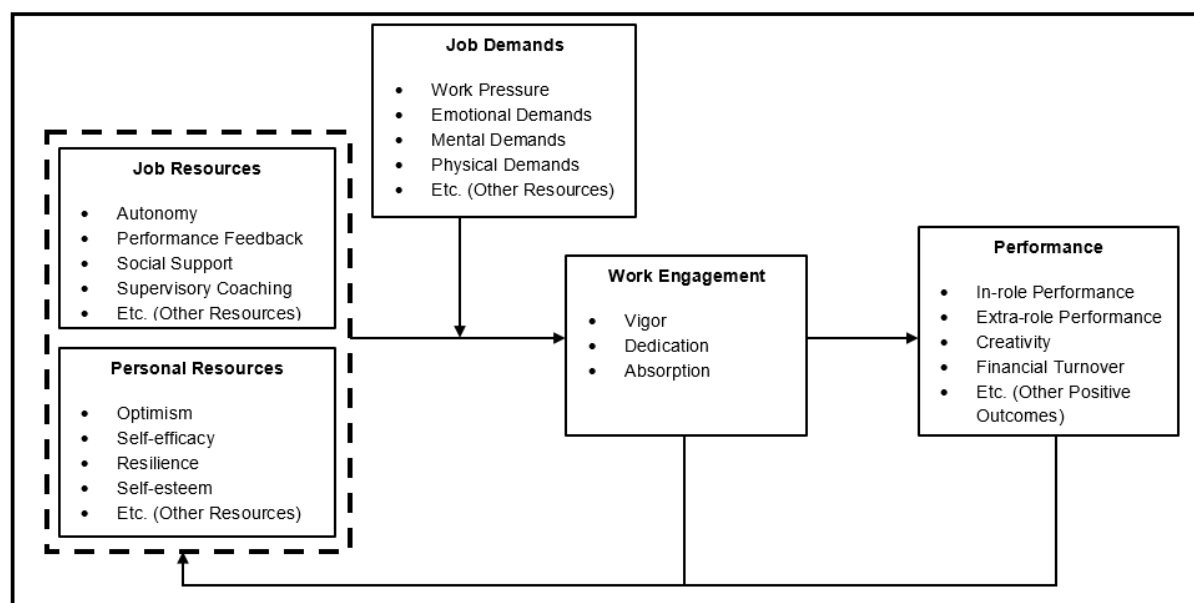


Figure 2.3. The Work Engagement Model adapted from Bakker and Demerouti (2008)

2.4.3 The Consequences of Work Engagement

Work engagement among employees has received increasing attention from researchers and practitioners mainly due to the attitudinal and behavioural outcomes associated with this concept. As previously mentioned, work engagement has been reported to be a significant driver of work outcomes e.g. in-role performance, financial returns, job satisfaction, reduced turnover intention, extra-role customer service behaviour, client satisfaction, organizational performance (Xanthopoulou et al., 2009; Demerouti and Cropanzano, 2010; Park and Gursay, 2012; Karadas and Karatepe, 2019), commitment, job performance, lower absenteeism (Strom, Sears and Kelly, 2014), and organizational citizenship behaviour (Sohrabizadeh and Sayfour, 2014). However, as contended by Saks (2006), for work engagement to lead to overall organizational outcomes, work engagement itself as an individual-level construct must

impact individual-level work outcomes first, before translating to business outcomes. It is therefore anticipated that work engagement would be linked to the employees' perceptions, intentions, and actions (Saks, 2006; Plooy and Roodt, 2010).

Work engagement is viewed as an essential measure of the well-being of the employee and organization (Bakker, 2011). Specifically, when employees are work-engaged, they are emotionally, physically, and cognitively bound to their job roles, thus leading to positive consequences for both the individual and organization. According to Saks (2006) and corroborated by Breevaart et al. (2015), engagement itself is bound to result in positive work outcomes mainly because it denotes an employee's positive work-related experience and mental state, which in turn fosters positive emotions and behaviour that are instrumental in driving positive work outcomes. This argument is consistent with the basic principle of the SET that concerns the rules of exchange between two parties. In other words, for continued positive work outcomes to be experienced, employees need to be engaged through a protraction of favourable mutual exchanges, thereby resulting in more high-quality and trusting relationships, and subsequently more positive intentions, attitudes and behaviours (Saks, 2006). Conversely, employees are less likely to feel obligated to respond in kind with elevated levels of engagement in the workplace devoid of resources and benefits, thus resulting in negative work outcomes that are detrimental to both the individual and the organization.

A review of the existing literature evidences a relationship between work engagement and motivational outcomes among employees. According to Bakker et al. (2014), engaged employees are more active and tend to exhibit positive emotions as compared to employees who are not engaged. For instance, in a daily diary study, Rodriguez-Munoz, Sanz-Vergel, Demerouti and Bakker (2014) found that positive effects of work engagement extended beyond individual employees and their work settings. Specifically, results from the study showed that those employees exhibiting high work engagement levels on a daily basis were happier at work and at home, thus resulting in their partners' experiencing higher levels of daily happiness. Similarly, Sonnentag (2003) reported work engagement to be a significant determinant of proactive behaviour on a daily basis, and in particular, the personal initiative and pursuit of learning among individual employees. Schaufeli and van Rhenen (2006) also reported that in comparison to their counterparts who are non-engaged, managers who are engaged displayed high levels of energy, were more cheerful, enthusiastic and inspired.

Bakker et al. (2014) also argued that engaged employees will more likely be receptive to new experiences. In doing so, these employees tend to explore their environments and become more innovative. This premise was evident in Bakker and Xanthopoulou's (2013) recent study of female school principals, in which they demonstrated that there is a positive link between work engagement and creativity. Further, in a previous study, Parker and Griffin (2011) suggested that engagement (specifically vigour) broadened an individual's cognitive processes, thereby triggering various proactive behaviours such as job crafting. Such proactive behaviours as contended by Parker, Bindl and Staruss (2010), are mainly a by-product of three motivational paths, identified as "can do", which is associated with feelings of self-efficacy, "reason to", which relates to intrinsic motivation, and finally, "energized to", which relates to positive emotions such as enthusiasm, very much similar to vigour, a dimension of work engagement.

As posited by Bakker (2009, 2011), engaged employees tend to perform better and exhibit desired job-related outcomes when they experience positive emotions, better health, feedback, and support, and are able to transmit this engagement to their co-workers. To date, prior empirical studies have evidenced that there exists a clear linkage between work engagement and desired job-related consequences. For instance, Koyuncu et al. (2006) reported that work engagement (and particularly, dedication and absorption), influenced various work-based outcomes such as intention to quit and job satisfaction among 286 women in the Turkish banking industry. Findings from the study showed that women who had increased levels of dedication reported diminishing levels of intention to quit and elevated job satisfaction levels, while women who have enhanced absorption levels were observed to have improved job satisfaction levels.

Similarly, in their study on nurses in two general teaching hospitals in Iran, Sohrabizadeh and Sayfour (2014) found that nurses who are more engaged are deeply involved in their work and are more inclined to perform duties beyond their prescribed role requirements i.e. extra-role service behaviours. Findings from the study also indicated that engaged nurses are motivated to stay in their job positions and hospitals while efficiently working in their roles, thus leading to quality patient care. Consistent with this study, Brunetto, Teo, Shacklock and Farr-Wharton (2012) also affirmed that among police officers in Australia, work engagement and turnover intention are negatively correlated. Results from their study showed that engagement among police officers was predicted by their well-being and job satisfaction, which in turn resulted in reduced turnover intention among the police officers. In another

study, involving 227 undergraduate students, Alarcon and Edwards (2011) reported that the facets of the work engagement construct, i.e. vigour, dedication and absorption, were found to be strong determinants of reduced turnover intention and enhanced job satisfaction.

The work engagement construct has also been observed to be an important predictor of career satisfaction, safety, organizational commitment, and organizational performance outcomes. For instance, in their study involving flight attendants, in which corporate social responsibility was established as a driver of work engagement, Ilkhanizadeh and Karatepe (2017) reported that work engagement, career satisfaction, and voice behaviour (recommendation of innovative ideas on change), were positively associated. Similarly, in a meta-analytic study, Nahrgang, Morgeson and Hofmann (2011) reported that job resources, particularly autonomy, knowledge, and the notion of a supportive work environment, had a positive relationship with engagement, which itself was found to be a correlate of safety outcomes i.e. reduced accidents and incidences.

Moreover, the extant literature further indicates that work engagement can serve as a significant driver of organizational commitment and organizational performance outcomes. For example, in their study of 336 hotel frontline employees, Albdour and Altarawneh (2014) found a positive linkage between engagement and organizational commitment. Results from their study indicate that employees with elevated levels of organizational and job engagement exhibit increased levels of normative, affective, and continuance commitment, in their work. Similarly, Harter, Schmidt, and Hayes (2002) demonstrated in their meta-analysis, that work engagement is associated with business-unit outcomes, that is, higher probability and customer satisfaction.

Despite the numerous positive outcomes cited in the extant literature as being associated with engaged employees, Andrew and Sofian (2012) observed and suggested that disengaged employees can also result in organizational costs associated with low employee productivity, high rates of employee absenteeism, and increased turnover costs related to recruitment and training of new personnel. Therefore, mitigating against factors that may lead to the disengagement of employees is essential for an organization that wishes to remain competitive in the global business environment.

Following the extensive evidence associating work engagement and positive attitudinal and behavioural consequences, Gruman and Saks (2011) proffered that performance increments are likely to occur when management continuously fosters an environment that promotes

employee work engagement. As such, it is imperative that in organizations, engagement is viewed as a process that is continuous, and that requires consistent interactions that foster commitments and a state of interdependent reciprocity between the employees and the organization (Saks, 2006).

Benefits associated with engagement are of significant importance to an organization, although as cautioned by Bakker (2011) however, employees cannot at all times be engaged in their jobs. The author argues that employees need time to recover from their work while devoting their resources to other aspects of their personal lives. Macey and Schneider (2008) further corroborated Bakker's argument by cautioning organizations to recognize that it may not always be possible to sustain high levels of engagement due to a limit of energy and resources that an employee or an organization can dispense.

Following discussion of the antecedents (Section 2.4.1) and consequences (Section 2.4.2) of work engagement, these various determinants and outcomes as evidenced from the pre-existing research, are summarized in Table 2.3.

Table 2.3. Summary of Antecedents and Consequences of Work Engagement from the Literature

Antecedents of Work Engagement	Consequences of Work Engagement
• Recognition and Rewards, Job characteristics, Perceived Supervisor Support, Perceived Organizational Support, Procedural and Distributive Justice (Saks, 2006; Karatepe, 2012b; Sohbrabizadeh and Sayfour, 2014). • Social Support, Autonomy, Skill Variety, Learning Opportunities, Supervisory Coaching, Craftsmanship, Colleague Support and Performance Feedback, (Schaufeli and Bakker, 2004; Bakker, 2011). • Perceived Role Benefit, Strategic Attention, Job Autonomy (Slatten and Mehmetoglu, 2011). • Self-Esteem, Hope, Organizational-Based-Self-Esteem, Self-Efficacy, Locus of Control, and Optimism (Bakker, 2011; Karatepe, 2014). • Workload, Control, Value Fit (Koyuncu et al., 2006), Job Resourcefulness, Customer Orientation (Karatepe and Aga, 2012), Workload and Job Responsibilities (Karatepe et al., 2014b). • High-Performance Work Practices (teamwork, Career Opportunities, Job Security, and Selective Staffing) (Karatepe, 2013b; Karatepe and Olugbade, 2016). • Psychological Capital, that is, Optimism, Hope, Self-Efficacy, Resilience (Karatepe and Karadas, 2015).	• Organizational Citizenship Behaviour Organizational Commitment, Job Satisfaction, and Intention to Quit (Saks, 2006; Koyuncu et al., 2006; Karatepe and Aga, 2012; Burke et al., 2013; Sohbrabizadeh and Sayfour, 2014). • Innovative Behaviours (Slatten and Mehmetoglu, 2011) • In-Role and Extra-Role Customer Service, Client Satisfaction, Proactivity, Creativity (Bakker and Demerouti, 2007; Rothbard and Patil, 2011; Karatepe, 2011c; Karatepe, 2012a; Karatepe, 2013b; Karatepe, 2014). • Job Performance, Service Recovery Performance (Karatepe, 2011c; Karatepe, 2013b; Karatepe, 2014; Karatepe and Olugbade, 2016). • Affective Commitment (Brunetto et al., 2012; Karatepe, 2011c; Karatepe and Aga, 2012; Karatepe, Beirami, Bouzari and Safavi, 2014b) • Career Satisfaction (Karatepe, 2012b; Karatepe and Karadas, 2015), Psychological Well-Being (Koyuncu et al., 2006), Sickness Absence (Schaufeli et al., 2009), Life Satisfaction (Karatepe and Karadas, 2015). • Absence Intentions (Karatepe and Olugbade, 2016).

2.4.4 Work Engagement and the Millennial Cohort (Generation Y)

The issue of engagement is a challenge that practitioners and researchers have been under pressure to resolve, more so due to a shift in the generational workforce (Schullery, 2013). More specifically, with the increasing number of millennials joining the workforce, Schullery (2013) contended that organizations which strive to attract, recruit, and retain employees who belong to the millennial cohort (Generation Y), must address the critical issue that concerns their engagement.

Over time, worldwide surveys on the engagement levels of different generational cohorts have been conducted, with millennials reporting lower levels of engagement as compared to other generations. For instance, a survey conducted by Gallup (2016) in America showed that only 29% of millennials were engaged in their work, with the remaining 71% reported as being disengaged. These percentages translate to a small proportion of millennials who are described as being emotionally, behaviourally, and physically invested to their work. Similarly, in a study conducted in North America, only 16% of millennials were found to be engaged with Baby Boomers emerging as the most engaged at 39%, followed by Generation Xers at 35% (BlessingWhite Inc, 2011; Schullery, 2013). These varying levels of engagement reported among millennials relative to other generational cohorts may be ascribed to the high levels of work expectation among employees in the millennial workforce, which are not fulfilled in the workplace (Schullery, 2013).

According to Park and Gursoy (2012), generational characteristics play an essential role in explaining engagement phenomena among different generational cohorts, through their work values. These researchers assert that generational characteristics significantly influence the employees' work value, which underlie their perceptions of meaningfulness of the work itself. Meaningfulness, as identified by Kahn (1990) in his seminal work, is a precursor of engagement, and therefore, work engagement can be considered a consequence of an individual's positive experience of work-related tasks (Christian et al., 2011).

Given that work values are an important determinant of behaviour (Twenge et al., 2010), engagement among the millennial generational cohort can be explained through their work values. For example, Park and Gursoy (2012) contend that millennial employees are disengaged due to their low work centrality as well as high leisure work values. Disengaged employees who belong to the millennial generational cohort are less likely to channel their

energy and resources to job-related roles as they place more value on their personal life and work-life balance. In addition, Park and Gursoy (2012) further assert that work demands have an adverse influence on work engagement among millennials due to their low work centrality and high leisure work values. Work environments with high job demands require that employees develop adaptive capabilities in order to cope with the constraints. However, due to these work values, millennial employees tend to expend less resources and energy to cope with the job demands thereby decreasing their levels of engagement (Park and Gursoy, 2012).

In addition to work values, individual-environment fit is also employed to explain engagement among millennial employees. Schullery (2013) contends that millennials' low engagement levels can be attributed to jobs that lack meaning and are less challenging. According to Macey and Schinder (2008), employees are more engaged when they perceive their work as being compatible with their personal preferences and values. Moreover, prior research indicated that work conditions or characteristics motivate an employee's willingness to devote more resources in job-related tasks (Kahn, 1990; Christian et al., 2011). In line with this premise and consonant with the basic principle of the SET, Saks (2006) argues that such work characteristics that provide meaning and challenging work opportunities influence an employee to respond in kind with increased work engagement levels. Therefore, millennial employees working in roles that meet their preferences and expectations are more inclined towards being engaged. For instance, in the hotel industry, work conditions such as low rewards and less challenging roles are prevalent. As such, these working conditions do not fit the work preference and expectations of millennial employees, who prefer challenging and meaningful roles as well as recognition for their efforts (Chen and Choi, 2008). As a result, millennial employees working in the hotel industry with such work conditions are increasingly likely to be less inclined to expend extra effort and be fully immersed in their work.

A careful review of existing literature indicates a dearth in empirical evidence on the drivers and outcomes of work engagement (Karatepe, 2013b; Karatepe and Olugbade, 2016; Lee and Ok, 2016) among millennial employees. However, of the few studies conducted, various factors have been found to drive work engagement among millennials. For instance, in a study by Amuzu (2017) on the engagement of a workforce comprising Baby Boomers, Generation Xers, and Millennials, it was found that employee empowerment, financial reward, work support, customer focus, team leadership, work demands, continuance, and senior leadership, were drivers of work engagement among the millennial cohort. Using the eight (8)-factor

Drivers-of-Engagement scale, findings from the study confirmed no significant difference in the drivers of engagement among Baby Boomers, Generation Xers, and Millennials. Furthermore, study results evidenced that there is no significant disparity in engagement levels observed between members of the Baby Boomer, Generation Xer, and Millennial generational cohorts while using the eight drivers of work engagement. In their study, Al-Shbiel, Ahmad, Al-Shbail, Mawaii, and Al-Shbail (2018) investigated the drivers and outcomes of work engagement among millennial junior accountants. Study findings confirmed that procedural and distributive justice were significant determinants of their work engagement. Additionally, the construct of work engagement was evidenced to negatively correlate with their turnover intention. This finding affirms that procedural justices and distributive justice can be considered as job resources that are important, and that can be utilized to enhance the engagement levels of millennial employees. Subsequently, these employees will be less inclined to leave their organizations.

In other research, Park and Gursay (2012) examined the generational impacts of work engagement among United States (US) hotel employees involving three generational cohorts and found that work engagement significantly varied depending on an employee's generational membership. ANOVA analyses and moderation regression findings showed that in terms of their engagement levels, and the relationship between work engagement and turnover intention, millennial employees were more distinguishable from Generation Xers and Baby Boomers. Findings from the study showed that millennial employees exhibited lower vigour, dedication, and absorption levels, as well as a high degree of turnover intention, than the members of the older generational cohorts. Park and Gursay (2012) argued that these lower levels of engagement could be attributed to their psychological, physical and emotional resources. According to Kahn (1990), employees sustain higher levels of work engagement when in possession of sufficient resources (physical, emotional, and psychological). On the contrary, individuals with limited resources are less likely to sustain high levels of engagement (Park and Gursay, 2012). Therefore, millennial employees are not likely to devote their resources and energy to work related roles due to their low work centrality and value for work-life balance and a personal life.

Additional findings from the study by Park and Gursay (2012) showed that vigour positively influenced the retention of employees across the three generational cohorts. However, millennials demonstrated a significantly greater intention to exit the organization when found

to experience insufficient energy levels, enthusiasm, and mental strength, in contrast with those belonging to other generational cohorts. In addition, the findings indicated that when millennial employees forfeit their sense of enthusiasm and significance, their intention to quit increases in comparison to their Baby Boomer counterparts. Furthermore, millennials who are not engrossed and absorbed in their job-roles are inclined to decamp from the organization. Contrary to these findings, results of the study also evidence that millennials are less inclined to quit if they are dedicated in their work, as they would find their work both significant and fulfilling.

Similarly, in a conceptual study in the hotel industry in America, Park and Gursoy (2011) investigated the generational cohort's moderating effects, on the relationship between work engagement and the employee's turnover intention and job satisfaction, using a sample of (n = 742) frontline employees. Their study findings evidenced that the generation's moderating effects were more visible in the association between work engagement and turnover intention. Specifically, findings of the study affirmed that compared to the older generations, millennials have lower levels of vigour, dedication, and absorption, in addition to increased turnover intention levels. The lower work engagement levels evidenced among millennials was credited to their preference of meaningful and fulfilling work experiences that are not synonymous with the job characteristics of the hospitality industry. Overall, study findings indicated that engagement is a significant factor that contributes to greater employee job satisfaction, and declining turnover intentions, particularly among millennials.

According to Park and Gursoy (2011, 2012), engaging millennial employees is critical for their retention relative to other, older, employees. Therefore, understanding this generation's characteristics and work values can aid employers in developing effective engagement strategies. As noted by Park and Gursoy (2012), work values that characterize the different generations are significant contributors towards influencing the engagement levels of the employees, and the influence of employee motivation on behavioural outcomes.

2.4.5 Work Engagement in the Hospitality Industry

Work engagement in the hospitality management literature has begun to receive empirical attention due to an increasing need in organizations to retain an employee cohort of persons who are engaged, and that are dedicated, enthusiastic, and heavily invested in their work (Karatepe and Karadas, 2015). Work engagement as a motivational construct, is critical to the performance of frontline employees, with respect to the hospitality industry's work demands

(such as long working hours, time pressure, workload, and emotional demands). As evidenced in the extant literature, successful operations in the industry have become largely dependent on the performance of those frontline employees who are engaged in their jobs, more so because they exhibit experience, knowledge abilities, and positive attitudes and behaviours within their respective work environments (Burke et al., 2013).

In prior empirical studies, researchers have contended that engagement among employees elicits high energy levels and enthusiasm, thereby resulting in their being fully immersed and connected with their work, and being well equipped to deal with related job demands (Schaufeli et al., 2002; Bakker and Demerouti, 2008; Xanthopoulou et al., 2008). Further, there is consensus in empirical research which affirms that engaged employees are inclined to work much harder via enhanced volumes of voluntary effort in comparison to disengaged employees (Bakker, 2011; Karatepe, 2013b; Karatepe, 2014). This has mainly been attributed to the employees' cognitive, emotional, and physical investment of resources in their workplace roles through higher energy levels and greater work enthusiasm (Karatepe, 2013b). In this regard, hotel firms that ensure the enhancement of work engagement, benefit from positive consequences e.g. organizational commitment, job satisfaction, and job performance among frontline employees (Karatepe, 2011c; Karatepe and Aga, 2012; Karatepe, 2014).

The hospitality management literature evidences that there are limited empirical works on the work engagement concept. For example, Karatepe and Karadas' (2015) empirical investigation on Romanian hotels evidenced that the work engagement variable partially mediated the impact of optimism, resilience and hope, and self-efficacy (psychological capital), on life satisfaction, job and career satisfaction among frontline employees. Consistent with the motivational pathway in the JD-R model, hope, self-efficacy, resilience and optimism as dimensions of psychological capital were shown to jointly foster work engagement, thus resulting in increased career, job, and life satisfaction.

In another study where a sample of hotel employees in Cameroon were studied, Karatepe (2012b) deduced that the construct of work engagement was a full (complete) mediator of the effects of supervisor support and co-worker support on service recovery performance, job performance, career satisfaction, and creative performance. Findings of the study confirmed that job resources e.g. supervisor and co-worker support influence an increase in frontline employees' engagement levels, which leads to their delivery of quality customer service, higher levels of creative performance and problem-solving skills, and overall career

satisfaction. Moreover, findings from the study also supported the motivational process of the JD-R model which posits that work engagement is enabled by job resources, thus leading to positive outcomes. In their research study on 229 frontline service employees working in four-star and five-star hotels in Cameroon, Karatepe and Ngeche (2012) also reported conceptually similar findings on the work engagement construct. The researchers found that work engagement was a determinant of turnover intention and job performance directly, and indirectly through job embeddedness. This result confirmed their hypothesis that the job embeddedness factor was a partial mediator of the impact of work engagement on the job performance and turnover intention of frontline employees.

In other research on the role of work engagement examined in the hospitality industry, Karatepe, Beirami, Bouzari and Safavi (2014b) drew on the Transactional Theory of Stress to investigate whether challenge stressors, that is, job responsibility and work overload, enhanced organizationally-valued job outcomes, namely job performance and affective organizational commitment, and work engagement. Using data obtained from a survey of frontline service employees in Northern Cyprus, results from their structural equation modeling analysis confirmed that as postulated, the work engagement construct fully mediated the effects of challenge stressors on affective organizational commitment and job performance outcomes. Findings from the study further indicated that job responsibility and work overload (challenge stressors) play an effective role as stimulants of employees' growth, learning, and development, which subsequently leads to higher job performance and increased levels of affective commitment to the organization. Furthermore, findings affirmed that this is mainly attributed to the employee's perception of challenge stressors (e.g. heavy workload and increased job responsibility) as being worthwhile and representing the capacity to promote personal growth.

More recently, Karatepe and Olugbade's (2016) research affirmed that work engagement was a complete (full) mediator of the impact of High-Performance Work Practices (HPWPs) as manifested by career opportunities, teamwork, job security, and selective staffing, on creative performance, absence intentions, and service recovery performance, among 287 frontline service employees in the Nigerian hospitality industry. Study findings were congruent with the tenets of the SET as frontline employees displayed higher work engagement levels as a form of repayment in exchange for available HPWPs by handling dissatisfied customers effectively (service recovery performance), displaying higher levels of creative performance, and reduced intentions to be absent from the workplace. Furthermore, evidence of the full

mediation of work engagement was also shown to be compatible with the motivational process of the JD R-Model, whereby frontline employees exhibited positive job outcomes due to increased levels of engagement fostered by the availability of job resources or HPWPs in their work environment (Karatepe and Olugbade, 2016).

Additional empirical evidence of the work engagement construct in the hospitality industry, is summarized and presented in Table 2.4.

Table 2.4. Prior Empirical Studies on Work Engagement in the Hospitality Industry				
Scholar (Literature Source)	Context	Sample Size (n)	Study (Concept)	Key Findings
Salanova, Agut and Peiro (2005)	Spain	(n=342) Contact employees from 58 hotels and 56 restaurants.	Linking organizational resources and work engagement to employee performance and customer loyalty: The mediation of service quality.	Service quality is a full mediator of the effects of work engagement and organizational resources (training, autonomy and technology) on customer loyalty and employee performance.
Kim, Shin and Swanger (2009a)	United States	(n=187) Managerial/supervisory and non-supervisory employees from 51 subway stores (restaurants).	Burnout and Engagement: A comparative analysis using the Big Five personality dimensions.	Neuroticism was the main personality trait that predicted burnout, while the most critical traits that predicted engagement were conscientiousness and neuroticism.
Slatten and Mehmetoglu (2011)	Norway	(n=279) Frontline employees from hotels and restaurant businesses.	Antecedents and effects of engaged frontline employees: A study from the hospitality industry.	Employee engagement correlates positively with employees' innovative behaviours. Job autonomy, strategic attention, and perceived role benefit, are positively associated with employee engagement.
Park and Gursay (2012)	United States	(n=677) Customer contact employees from 29 hotels.	Generational effects on work engagement among U.S hotel employees.	Work engagement effects on turnover intention levels differed based on the generational differences among employees. These differences are moderators of the effects of work engagement on turnover intention. Concerning their levels of work engagement, and its association with turnover intention, members of the millennial generational were found to be unique compared to the Generation X and Baby Boomer cohorts.
Burke, Koyuncu, Fiksenbaum and Tekin (2013)	Turkey	(n=549) Frontline service employees 15 hotels (four and five-star hotels).	Antecedents and Consequences of Work Engagement among frontline employees in Turkish Hotels.	Personal democratic characteristics and work characteristics were weakly correlated with work engagement. Work engagement positively correlates with lower work-family conflict, intention to stay, job satisfaction, and family-work conflict levels, in addition to employee use of voice behaviour.
Karatepe (2013a)	Iran	(n=231) Frontline Employees from 7 four-star and 4 five-star hotel.	Perceptions of organizational politics and hotel employees' outcomes: The mediating role of work engagement.	Work engagement completely (fully) mediated the impact of perceived organizational politics on turnover intention, extra-role customer service and affective organizational commitment.
Yeh (2013)	Taiwan	(n=336) Frontline service employees from 20 international hotels.	Tourism involvement, work engagement and job satisfaction among frontline employees.	Tourism involvement is positively associated with work engagement. Tourism involvement and work engagement are positive correlates of job satisfaction. The work engagement construct is a partial mediator of the association between job satisfaction and tourism involvement
Karatepe and Demir (2014)	Turkey	(n=220) Frontline employees from 8 Five-star hotels.	Linking core self-evaluation and work engagement to work-family facilitation: A study in the hotel industry.	Work engagement fully mediates the effects of core self-evaluation on work-family facilitation and family-work facilitation.

Paek, Schuckert, Kim and Lee (2015)	Korea	(n=312) Frontline employees from 15 five-star hotels.	Why is hospitality employees' psychological capital important? The effects of psychological capital on work engagement and employee morale.	Work engagement partially mediates the effects of psychological capital on job satisfaction and affective organizational commitment.
Jung and Yoon (2016)	Korea	(n=352) Frontline employees from 10 five-star hotels and 5 family-style restaurants.	What does work meaning to hospitality employees? The effects of meaningful work on employees' organizational commitment: The mediating role of job engagement.	Job engagement partially mediates the association between organizational commitment and the meaning of work.

Despite the evidence adduced from prior research concerning the work engagement construct, a review of the hospitality industry evidence-base indicates a need for more substantive, more robust, rigorous research and empirical study concerning the determinants (antecedents) and outcomes (consequences) of work engagement, in frontline service jobs (Lee and Ok, 2016; Karatepe and Olugbade, 2016).

In the present study, the relationships between a set of human resources practices, that is High-Performance Work Practices (HPWPs), work engagement and relevant consequent job outcomes in the hospitality industry, drawing on the SET and the motivational process of the JD-R model as its underpinning theories, is investigated.

Notably, although the High-Performance Work Practices (HPWPs) construct has been acknowledged as salient in the organizational behaviour and management research (Rana, 2015), existing literature shows a dearth of studies, that is, theoretical and empirical, on its effects on work engagement (Rana, 2015).

2.5 The Concept of High-Performance Work Practices (HPWPs)

2.5.1 High-Performance Work Practices (HPWPs)

The high demand and competition for employee talent has led to an emerging interest in understanding the benefits of High-Performance Work Practices (HPWPs), otherwise known as Human Resource Management (HRM) practices, in the organization. HPWPs, variously referred to as High-Involvement Practices, High-Commitment Systems, and High-Performance Work Systems (Whitener, 2001; Murphy and Southey, 2003; Kusluvan et al., 2010; Karadas and Karatepe, 2019) are recognized as a basis for competitive advantage for an organization (Huselid, 1995; Albrecht, Bakker and Gruman, 2015).

Over the years, in the management literature, HPWPs have been theorized by researchers in various ways. Some researchers consider HPWPs as a collection of diverse and distinct

practices that are not interrelated (Obeidat, Mitchell and Bary, 2016). This approach holds that HPWPs as individual practices can result in enhanced performance. Other researchers, (e.g. Delery and Shaw, 1999; Macky and Boxall, 2007) however, contend that HR practices yield greater performance only if they are deemed as interrelated and complementary to each other. In this regard, HPWPs are explained as a system or bundle of mutually reinforcing and synergetic HR practices (Wright and Kehoe, 2008).

Evidence from existing literature denotes an absence of consensus on the specific HR practices that should be collated together to form a specific functional and beneficial HPWP system (Obeidat et al., 2016). As a result, HPWPs have been formulated as a set of HR practices categorized into groups that are distinct but related to each other and that result in superior performance. An example of this categorization is demonstrated by Huselid (1995) who categorized various HR practices into two distinct, albeit related dimensions, namely, “employee skills and organizational structure”, and “employee motivation”. While the former relates to those practices that enhance an employees’ knowledge, skill, and abilities, the latter is primarily focused on recognizing and reinforcing desired employee behaviours.

Moreover, Jiang, Lepak, Hu and Baer (2012) further posited that HR practices are better categorized and understood as three dimensions, that is, those practices that could enhance skill, motivation, and opportunity. Jiang et al.’s (2012) approach is consistent with the framework of the Ability-Motivation-Opportunities (AMO) theoretical model, which is founded on the premise that HR practices, otherwise known as HPWPs, influence performance through the employees’ ability, motivation, and opportunity to contribute in the organization (Appelbaum, Bailey, Berg and Kalleberg, 2000; Arocas and Camps 2007; Boselie, 2010).

Within the AMO model, the ability-enhancing dimension focuses on HR practices that strengthen the knowledge, skills, and abilities of employees (e.g. recruitment, selection, and training), while the motivation-enhancing dimension focuses on HR practices that motivate employee behaviour (e.g. rewards, career development, and job security). The opportunity-enhancement dimension focuses on practices through which avenues are created to enable employees contribute to work and organizational outcomes (e.g. flexible work, information sharing, and employee involvement) (Jiang et al., 2012; Obeidat et al., 2016). Accordingly, researchers have come to rely upon the AMO model to explain the influence of specific HR practices, that is, HPWPs, on employee behaviour.

According to Boselie (2010) the AMO model has been shown to support the strategic relevance of HPWPs, as these practices impact on employee perceptions (e.g. motivation) and behaviour (e.g., job performance and commitment), which in turn result in the employees' discretionary behaviours (Boselie, 2010). As such, Strategic Human Resource Management (SHRM) theorists have defined HPWPs as a set of distinct, interrelated work practices, devised to enhance both individual and organizational performance through employee competence, attitudes, and motivation (Huselid, 1995; Takeuchi et al., 2009). In prior empirical studies, various HPWPs including incentive compensation (reward), training, employee participation, selective staffing, flexible working arrangements, empowerment, job security, teamwork, and career opportunities or promotion (Huselid, 1995; Pfeffer, 1998; Murphy and Murrmann, 2009; Karatepe, 2014; Karatepe and Vatankhah, 2014a), have been identified. Consensus among researchers has established that these work practices strengthen the knowledge, skills, and abilities, of employees, as well as increase their motivation levels and reinforce their retention (Huselid, 1995; Delery and Shaw, 2001; Boxall and Macky, 2007; Karatepe and Vatankhah, 2014b).

As inferred, performance enhancing practices affect individual and organizational performance by modeling employee behaviour and attitudes. Specifically, HPWPs have been observed to foster conditions that enhance employee commitment to the organization, and their job satisfaction (Arocas and Camps, 2007). Existing literature has also shown that HPWPs influence employee job-related outcomes e.g. increased satisfaction, productivity, service recovery, job embeddedness, creative performance, job performance, improved decision-making, and reduced turnover intention (Combs, Liu, Hall, and Ketchen, 2006; Karatepe and Karadas, 2012; Karatepe, 2013b; Karatepe et al., 2014a; Karatepe and Vatankhah, 2014a). Although the existing literature indicates that HPWPs influence employee performance outcomes, the underlying structure or mechanisms to explain precisely how HPWPs influence employee performance outcomes and behavioural outcomes remains a 'black-box', an aspect that has not quite been well established empirically (Takeuchi, Lepak, Wang and Takeuchi, 2007; Karatepe, 2013b; Karatepe and Olugbade, 2016; Karadas and Karatepe, 2019).

The presence of HPWPs in the work environment signals management's concern for employees in improving their productivity and service capacity (Tang and Tang, 2012). HPWPs, particularly in service-oriented industries, are designed to increase the employees'

abilities, motivation, and opportunities, in order to provide satisfactory services to customers (Liao, Toya, Lepak and Hong, 2009). In addition to promoting service-oriented behaviours among employees, (Tang and Tang, 2012), the availability of HPWPs is observed to increase an employee's energy levels, enthusiasm, and dedication towards their work (Karatepe, 2013b; Karatepe and Olugbade, 2016; Karadas and Karatepe, 2019). In this regard, the study focuses on five HPWP indicators, given their relevance and significance to frontline jobs and frontline employees who work in the hospitality industry in particular, as demonstrated in the existing literature (Karatepe et al., 2014a; Karatepe and Olugbade 2016). These indicators include training, empowerment, rewards, job security, and career opportunities.

There are a number of reasons for the identification and prioritization of these five selected HPWP indicators.

First, training, empowerment, and rewards, are considered as arguably the most essential HPWPs indicators (Boselie, Dietz, and Boon, 2005; Karatepe, 2013b; Karatepe et al., 2014a), and identified among the top-six human resources practices (Boselie et al., 2005). According to Takeuchi et al. (2007), when training and empowerment are available in the workplace, this sends a strong signal to the employee that he or she is considered as a strategic partner in the success of the organization, in addition to being viewed by management as a valued member of the organization. The presence of rewards on the other hand, motivates employees to effectively handle customer queries and resolve customer grievances (Babakus et al., 2003c).

Second, these indicators are selected for this study because they are considered as a critical signal of management's commitment to service quality (Karatepe, 2013b, 2013c), notwithstanding their consistent recommendation as effective management practices, especially within the hospitality industry (Karatepe, 2013c; Karatepe and Olugbade, 2016). Further, in the hospitality industry, the presence of training, empowerment, and rewards, are recognized as constituting beneficial managerial practices for the operation of the business (Chiang and Birtch, 2011; Karatepe and Olugbade, 2016). Moreover, with the hospitality industry being characterized by high levels of low job security and limited career opportunities (Karatepe and Uludag, 2007; Maroudus et al., 2008), these two indicators of HPWPs have been selected for further empirical examination in the present study. Notably, job security and career opportunities indicators have been viewed as core practices in both traditional and more contemporary models of employment relationships (Gong and Chang, 2008; Nasuridin, Ahmad and Tan, 2014).

Given that the attitudinal and behavioural responses of employees are contingent with their perception of the available HPWPs in the work environment (Kehoe and Wright, 2013), this study is motivated to fill a research gap focused on identifying and explaining the underlying mechanisms through which HPWPs, as manifested by training, empowerment, rewards, job security, and career opportunities, influence behavioural job outcomes among millennial frontline employees.

2.5.2 Training

The concept of training denotes a systematically planned intervention primed towards improving employee performance by bridging the gap between current performance and desired performance (Elnaga and Imran, 2013). According to Khan, Khan and Khan (2011), the training factor is considered as perhaps the most essential component that pertains to employee performance. This is because training is primarily focused on enhancing the capabilities of employees (Khan et al., 2011) by affording them the requisite knowledge and skills necessary for the performance of their duties in a manner consistent with organizational standards (Costen and Salazar, 2011). Not only is training instrumental to developing the capabilities of the employee, but it is also essential in sharpening the employee's cognitive as well as creative abilities. Moreover, training develops the employee's self-efficacy, thereby resulting in superior job performance through the replacement of outdated practices with more effective and efficient practices (Elnaga and Imran, 2013).

Training is a systematic and continuous process that should be viewed as perpetual and not as a sporadic event (Singh and Mohanty, 2012). According to Costen and Salazar (2011) organizations that continuously train employees have been found to influence an increase in employees' emotional attachment to the organization, thus leading to their collective wish to remain with the organization. It has also been found that the more an organization invests in continuous training of its employees, the more significant the organization's overall performance is, through the measurement of its standard of product and services offered, the capacity to attract and retain employees, and customer satisfaction (Costen and Salazar, 2011).

Empirical studies have over time shown that training is associated with numerous benefits not limited to improved self-efficacy, reduced turnover, better product and service consistency, increased service accuracy and customer satisfaction, enhanced job satisfaction and motivation, increased organizational commitment and engagement, and enhanced productivity (Costen and Salazar, 2011; Singh and Mohanty, 2012; Elnaga and Imran, 2013;

Anitha, 2014). Moreover, training is also observed to be a significant contributor in motivating employees to feel that they are able to accomplish a task at the desired performance level of an organization (Elnaga and Imran, 2013). Therefore, without the appropriate level of training, the gap between required skills and those of the workforce increases, leading to high levels of dissatisfaction.

Karatepe et al. (2014a) suggested that training and re-training employees in the hospitality industry is essential as it continuously enhances their knowledge and skill development. However, these researchers also noted that the hospitality industry has been recognized for its substandard investment in training, which results in numerous challenges in the workplace such as increased customer grievances, deterioration of service standards, and a lack of communication. The continuous training of employees ensures improvement of service accuracy, thus influencing service performance and employee engagement (Anitha, 2014). Consequently, opportunities for growth and development afforded to employees through training are essential to fostering an incline in their levels of engagement and an improvement in service quality.

The training of employees in the hospitality industry has been reported to accrue a number of benefits including motivating those in frontline jobs to effectively perform in the delivery of service (Karatepe, 2014), enhancing their emotional capability to solve customer problems while developing quality interpersonal relationships (Karatepe and Vatankhah, 2014a), as well as effectively enhancing their work-based engagement and job satisfaction levels (Karatepe et al., 2010; Singh and Mohanty, 2012). An extensive literature review of the existing knowledge and evidence-base affirms that the presence of adequate training results in an increase in engagement levels among frontline employees (Karatepe, 2013b; Anitha, 2014) mainly because training heightens their confidence levels in performing their duties (Anitha, 2014). It is also recognized that with adequate training, frontline employees can be more motivated and engaged in their work due to an increase in skill levels (Anitha, 2014). On the other hand, empirical research also demonstrates that a lack of training can lead to a pool of frontline employees deficient in both the requisite skills and sufficient motivational levels to adequately respond to customer requests and complains (Babakus et al., 2003c; Karatepe, 2013b).

Despite the positive benefits derived from training employees, Karatepe and Karadas, (2012) and Karatepe (2013b) contended that organizational training of frontline employees without their empowerment will not yield the intended outcome of quality service delivery.

2.5.3 Empowerment

The concept of empowerment was initially explored in the 1980s in the community psychology discipline as a way of enabling individuals attain decision-making authority within their community (Varekamp, Heutink, Landaman, Koning, Vries and van Dijk, 2009). Over the years, scholars have defined empowerment in innumerable ways with no definitive agreement on the definition of the concept. However, most of them have formed consensus on a key component of empowerment being that which involves granting employees latitude (or discretion) over certain job-oriented tasks (Meyerson and Dewettinck, 2012). Given that empowerment is closely associated with management practices that include motivation, communication, participative management training, and feedback, among others, it is therefore important to examine the concept and its managerial facets (Pelit, Ozturk and Arslanturk, 2011).

Randolph (1995) defined empowerment as “recognizing and releasing into the organization the power that people already have in their wealth of useful knowledge and internal motivation” (p.20). Hales and Klidas (1998) however, argued that empowerment mainly constituted the sharing of knowledge, information, and power with junior employees. Ro and Chen (2011) further described empowerment as permitting or authorizing employees to autonomously make decisions related to solving customer problems by themselves. On the other hand, Rafiq and Ahmed (1998) defined empowerment from a different viewpoint by describing it as a “state of mind” (p.380). Rafiq and Ahmed (1998) further emphasized five experiences attributed to employees in this empowered state. These experiences encompass control over how the job is executed, awareness of the context in which work is accomplished, liability for personal work output, shared responsibility for unit and organizational performance, and equality in rewards based on personal and collective accomplishments.

Despite the multiple definitions of empowerment in the existing literature, its conceptualization is observed to stem from two distinct perspectives, that is, the structural approach, and the psychological approach (Ro and Chen, 2011). The structural empowerment approach focuses on managerial practices that are aimed at the delegation of power and

decision-making authority, to subordinate employees, from the upper echelons of management (Ro and Chen, 2011; Meyerson and Dewettinck, 2012). On the contrary, the psychological empowerment approach, mainly relates to the employees' psychological state that manifests as four psychological cognitions, namely self-determination, competence, meaning, and impact. This approach views the concept of empowerment as a motivational construct (Ro and Chen, 2011; Meyerson and Dewettinck, 2012) that relates to self-efficacy (Pelit et al., 2011). As such, based on the two definitional approaches it is implied that any type of managerial practice that is instrumental in fostering the feelings of self-efficacy and self-determination, can result in employee empowerment (Pelit et al., 2011).

According to Ro and Chen (2011), empowered behaviours among employees can be displayed in numerous ways. For instance, empowered behaviours can be exhibited by bending service rules to please the customer, providing customers with timely responses to service requests and solutions to services failures, rendering creative service offerings that go above and beyond the employees' prescribed roles, and handling customers in a discrete manner (Lewis, and Clacher, 2001; Bone and Mowen, 2010; Zhang and Bartol, 2010). Furthermore, employees who are empowered significantly impact the success of an organization, with researchers observing a direct relationship between empowerment and increased performance levels, increased job satisfaction, reduced turnover intention, increased productivity levels, and greater commitment (Meyerson and Dewettinck, 2012; Raub and Robert, 2012). In the service industry in particular, empowerment of employees has been widely associated with benefits such as increased service quality, improved service recovery performance, and increased customer satisfaction (Raub and Robert, 2012).

In the hospitality industry, the need to empower employees is evident due to the production and consumption process of service delivery that occurs concurrently, and the instantaneous problem-solving process that increases both customer and employee satisfaction (Pelit et al., 2011). According to Ro and Chen (2011), empowerment is particularly essential for heterogeneous services whereby employees are confronted with the need to adapt their behaviour to meet customer demands. Moreover, empowerment has become increasingly important in the industry as a result of the inherent unpredictable service situations and customer demands, which require the prompt response of empowered employees or those capable of exercising their authority to meet customer expectations (Klidas, Berg and Wilderom, 2007). Additionally, given that the nature of the industry requires on-the-spot solutions and responsiveness, Pelit et al. (2011) argued that empowering employees enables

them utilize their individual skills and initiative in offering instant solutions and responsiveness, thereby enhancing service quality.

According to the works of Babakus et al. (2003c), empowerment affords employees the authority and responsibility required to respond to customers short of having to refer to a long chain of command, as well as the responsibility of exercising their personal judgement in the fulfilment of their duties resourcefully and impartially. However, it is worth noting that the assimilation of empowerment strategies by employees is not always certain due to the perceived notion of empowerment resulting in stress (Karatepe, 2013b). Thus, Karatepe (2013b) proposed that while undertaking challenging service encounters, frontline employees must be trained successfully to assume authority and responsibility in order to alleviate the stress that is associated with the acceptance of empowering roles.

A review of the existing literature affirms that empowerment relates positively with work outcomes e.g. extra-role customer service, creative performance, job performance, perceived organizational support, turnover intention, and work engagement (Karatepe, 2013b; Karatepe et al., 2014a; Karatepe and Vatankhah, 2014a). A study conducted by Karatepe and Vatankhah (2014a) among flight attendants found that empowerment among other HPWPs indicators, resulted in extra-role customer service and creative performance, via their job embeddedness. These results were consonant with a similar study conducted by Karatepe (2013b) in the hotel industry in Romania, in which it was concluded that empowerment, rewards, and training, were positively related to job performance and extra-role customer service, among frontline employee via work engagement. Although the literature supports the benefits of empowerment in the service industry, particularly the hospitality industry, existing literature highlights a need to investigate the role of empowerment among customer-contact employees, and its consequences, as there is a dearth of empirical evidence on empowerment among customer-contact employees (Melhem, 2004).

In line with the hospitality management literature, this study was focused on the empowerment of frontline employees, which is synonymous with existing empowerment studies. Klidas et al. (2007) emphasized the importance of focusing on frontline employees because it is through these employees that an organization is able to influence or reinforce service quality and customer satisfaction at the point-of-service encounter. Furthermore, the empowerment of frontline employees will likely result in benefits such as improved service recovery, improved customer care, relationship marketing (i.e. long-term relationships with valued customers),

enhanced customer satisfaction and service quality, and a superior service culture (Klidas et al., 2007; Pelit et al., 2011). Thus, for purposes of this study, empowerment is described as “devolving decision-making authority and responsibility to frontline employees for control and enhancement of service quality and customer satisfaction during service delivery” (Klidas, 2001, p.34-35).

Of note, job resources or HPWPs such as training and rewards are essential elements in the implementation of empowerment, as they increase employee morale, motivation, and reduce staff turnover, whilst affording employees autonomy without supervision (Klidas et al., 2007). As such, employee empowerment has been shown to only yield the desired organizational work outcomes if combined with the appropriate training and rewards programs (Karatepe, 2013b; Karatepe and Vatankhah, 2014a).

2.5.4 Rewards

Rewards has been broadly defined as what an employer is willing to offer an employee in exchange for his or her contribution in the workplace (Chiang and Birtch, 2008). Bustamam, Teng and Abdullah (2014) argued that the main objective of rewards in institutions is to attract, retain, and motivate qualified employees to achieve higher performance levels while reinforcing performance enhancing-behaviour. However, Bustamam et al. (2014) also reported that the absence of rewards causes employees to withdraw from their jobs, due to a decline in their work-related efforts brought about by an unpleasant working environment devoid of rewards. The utilization of rewards as a motivational tool to improve performance is consistent with the concept of Social Exchange Theory and Gouldner’s (1960) Norm of Reciprocity, which prescribe the establishment of high-quality relationships in an organization due to the capacity of the organization to reward employees for their work-related efforts. In response, these employees feel an obligation to reciprocate by increasing their commitment to their work and organization.

Rewards, over the years, have been used to positively influence employee performance. Organizations recognize rewards as a means of motivating employees to generate novel business ideas that result in increased performance. According to Luthans (2000), the two-basic type of rewards that have been used to drive performance are financial rewards or extrinsic rewards, and non-financial rewards. Financial rewards refer to pay-for-performance rewards devised to remunerate employees on the basis of their direct involvement in, and contribution to, organizational success. Such rewards include performance bonuses, gifts, and

commissions. Conversely, non-financial rewards such as recognition and attention refer to those that are non-monetary. Financial rewards are recognized by organizations as a means of improving the employees' self-esteem and individual worth, as well as a symbolic means of status and achievement (Bustamam et al., 2014). However, existing literature also affirms that financial rewards are not the most effective motivating factors, with non-financial factors being considered more meaningful to employees, and thus more effective in motivating employees, thereby enhancing their performance levels (Aktar, Sachu and Ali, 2012). With the increased pressure of controlling operational costs in the hotel industry occasioned by its labour-intensive nature, the use of non-financial rewards is becoming more prevalent in motivating and enhancing the performance of employees (Chiang and Birtch, 2008).

A review of the existing body of literature in the domain of hospitality management evidences that rewards is a powerful motivational tool that drives employee engagement, job satisfaction, job embeddedness, job and service recovery performance, as well as diminished turnover intentions (Karatepe, 2013b; Karatepe et al., 2014a; Karatepe and Vatankhah, 2014a). For instance, a study by Karatepe (2013b) affirmed that rewards are positively correlated with work engagement, whereby frontline employees perceive this as an appreciation and recognition of their effort. Similarly, Karatepe and Vatankhah (2014b) observed that rewards significantly influenced lower turnover intention and fostered perceived organizational support, among flight attendants in Iran. In addition, researchers such as Babakus et al. (2003c) and Karatepe (2013b) have argued and demonstrated that the presence of reward policies can influence frontline employees to deliver higher quality services while encouraging them to effectively address customer concerns, thereby resulting in the retention of an engaged workforce (Karatepe, 2013b). In other research, Babakus et al. (2003c) contended that the consistent implementation of rewards creates a strong service climate, promotes exceptional performance and influences frontline employees' job satisfaction and organizational commitment. Furthermore, the presence of rewards also motivates employees to display creative performance, effective recovery efforts (Karatepe et al., 2014a), and reduced turnover intention (Bakker and Demerouti, 2008). Given that these desired outcomes emanate from rewarding employees, service organizations must strive to implement an appropriate rewards system. This would transmit a strong signal to frontline service employees of the commitment of management to service quality (Babakus et al., 2003c).

In the existing hospitality management literature, it is emphasized that rewards on its own as an indicator of HPWPs cannot harness the desired outcomes of high employee performance

levels, and enhance delivery of quality customer service and customer satisfaction (Karatepe and Karadas, 2012; Karatepe et al., 2014a). As such, for reward policies to be effective among frontline employees, the simultaneous implementation of training and empowerment would also be required (Karatepe, 2013b; Karatepe et al., 2014a). This also applies to the implementation of training and empowerment, which if implemented in combination with rewards, would significantly impact employee performance (Babakus et al., 2003c).

While training, empowerment, and rewards, have been considered as the most important indicators of HPWPs (Karatepe, 2013b; Karatepe et al., 2014a), job security as an indicator of HPWPs can significantly influence the performance of frontline employees as well as their retention (Karatepe et al., 2014a; Karatepe and Vatankhah, 2014a).

2.5.5 Job Security

Job security is an important and valued aspect for individual's seeking to engage in employment contracts with prospective employers. The concept of job security has, over time, been described in numerous ways in the extant literature, including as the degree to which organizations provide employees with steady employment (Yousef, 1998), an employee's expectation of job continuity (Davy, Kinicki and Scheck 1997; Nasurdin et al., 2014), and the extent to which employees expect to engage in their jobs over an extended period of time (Delery and Doty, 1996). The perception of job security in employment not only demonstrates an organization's longstanding commitment to its employees (Nasurdin et al., 2014), but represents the pivotal role it plays in influencing job outcomes (Yousef, 1998). According to Loi, Chan and Lam (2014), employees experiencing job security, perceive that they have stable employment and are confident about their future job prospects within the organization, thus influencing their increased organization loyalty. On the contrary, employees who perceive low job security levels have been reported to feel that they are uncertain about their jobs and work environment, thereby leading to a decline in their physical and mental health when a lack of job security is experienced over an extended time period.

To understand the concept of job security, researchers have referenced the psychological contract literature, in which job security is prescribed as one of the major perceived core obligations of an organization (Loi, Lam and Chan, 2012). Accordingly, a lack of job security represents a breach of the psychological contract by the employer. As postulated by De Witte (1999), a lack of job security (i.e. insecurity), which is viewed as a work stressor, is injurious to employees due to its related state of uncertainty. Uncertainty can be described as two facets,

that is, unpredictability and uncontrollability (Loi et al., (2012). While unpredictability refers to the employees' lack of clarity concerning their prospective future in their organization and expectations of them and behaviour to be adopted in the work environment (De Witte, 1999), uncontrollability refers to their state of powerlessness in mitigating against the potential threat of future job continuity (Greenhalgh and Rosenblatt, 1984).

Notably, in their seminal work, Greenhalgh and Rosenblatt (1984) considered uncontrollability (i.e. a sense of powerlessness) as being central to job insecurity. Therefore, employees who experience a lack of job security encounter uncertainty and have difficulties in predicting what to expect in their work environment. More so, such employees are reported to be indecisive in terms of how to behave or conduct themselves within their work environment (Loi et al., 2014). Conversely, employees who experience a sense of job security are reported to be certain about their future job prospects and consider this state of certainty as their employers' way of having fulfilled their principal commitment under the psychological contract (Loi et al., 2014), thus resulting in an increase in their organizational commitment. Although a lack of job security is apparent from actual job loss, it is important to recognize that employees working in the same environment may perceive a lack of job security differently (Loi et al., 2012).

The importance of job security is founded in its essential role concerned with influencing employee behavioural work outcomes. Due to its importance, job security has stimulated great interest in both researchers and practitioners. For instance, in an empirical study conducted on 199 employees working in Egyptian telecommunications companies, Gamal and Mohamed El (2012) found that job security was a key determinant of perceived teleworking productivity. Another study conducted on 1,977 Finnish employees from a large telecommunication company evidenced that job security increases the employee's social capital (trust) toward the organization which in turn, increased their affective commitment (Parzefall and Kuppelwieser, 2012). In another study involving 1,229 American employees from 11 technology-based companies, Major, Morganson and Bolen (2013) observed that employees who perceived higher job security showed greater commitment to their organizations. More recently, in a study of 164 flight attendants from 3 airline companies in Iran, it was established that job security increased perceived organizational support and reduced turnover intention (Karatepe and Vatankhah, 2014b).

Despite the positive job outcomes associated with job security, job security in the hospitality management literature is considered a major challenge for employees, particularly frontline employees (Karatepe and Uludag, 2007; Nasurdin et al., 2014; Karatepe et al., 2014a). This has been attributed to the seasonal and unstable nature of jobs in the industry (Maroudus et al., 2008; Kusluvan et al., 2010). The perception of job security among frontline employees is essential to promoting their commitment and engagement, reducing their turnover intention, and further reducing the cost of hiring and training new employees (Karatepe and Olugbade, 2009; Kusluvan et al., 2010). Moreover, job security has been reported to be the most significant motivator of employee behaviour (Purohit and Bandyopadhyay, 2014).

In various empirical studies, researchers have adduced evidence of job security as a precursor of various work-related outcomes. For example, job security has been considered a determinant of outcomes such as employee health, reduced employee turnover, employee retention, organizational commitment (Yousef, 1998; Naswall, Sverke and Hellgren, 2005), job satisfaction (Sverke, Hellgren and Naswall, 2002), and in-role performance (Ye, Cardon and Rivera, 2012). Specifically, in the hospitality industry, empirical research has shown that job security is a significant determinant of work engagement and could be a panacea for high turnover (Karatepe et al., 2014a; Karatepe and Olugbade, 2016). Additionally, job security has been found to be an important indicator of HPWPs likely to motivate frontline employees and promote job consequences such as creative performance and service recovery (Karatepe et al., 2014a; Karatepe and Olugbade, 2016). On the contrary, the lack of job security has been related to a lack of organizational commitment and job satisfaction traits among industry frontline service employees (Loi et al., 2012; Karatepe and Olugbade, 2016).

For the purposes of this study, job security is therefore, described as the perceived continuance and stability of an individual's job as he or she knows it (Probst, 2003). Alongside job security, career opportunities an indicator of HPWPs is also considered an important factor that influences frontline employees' performance. Specifically, a lack of career advancement opportunities for frontline employees impacts their productivity, effectiveness and service quality (Davidson, Timo and Wang, 2010).

2.5.6 Career Opportunities (Opportunities for Career Advancement)

Career opportunities are essential to the overall job performance of an employee. According to Jackson and Sirianni (2009) employees who perceive the availability of career advancement opportunities within their organization are not only motivated to remain with the organization

but also experience high levels of job satisfaction. Career advancement programs defined as “the evolving sequence of a person’s work experience over time” (Arthur, Hall and Lawrence, 1989, p. 8), should indicate what the various steps on the employee’s career trajectory are, and precisely define the necessary conditions for progressing along this path (Slatten and Mehmetoglu, 2011). Slatten and Mehmetoglu (2011) assert that the success of these career development programs is based on the development of individualized career programs whereby employees take up an active role in developing their own preferred career plans within the organization. Furthermore, this success is notably reinforced through the provision of career development services by managers, who play an active role in coaching and counselling employees in need of ideas for self-development (Slatten and Mehmetoglu, 2011).

The existing literature on career advancement opportunities has shown that the combined responsibility of the organization and employee in the career advancement process can lead to increased employee performance (Kong et al., 2015). This joint responsibility is supported within the balanced theory of career management which affirms that both the organization and the employee must be integral to the advancement of the employee’s career. Kraimer, Seibert, Wayne and Liden (2011) highlighted the importance of aligning organizational career development support with an employee’s individual career plans, as a significant motivator of behaviour, a notion consistent with the career motivation theory, based on the premise that work behaviours and decisions to an extent, are influenced by the employees’ desire to accomplish their career goals. For instance, as observed by Kraimer et al. (2011), employees may engage in high job performance as a means of consideration for future career advancement positions. Alternatively, employees can decide to leave an organization in pursuit of preferable career opportunities which coincide with their career plans. Accordingly, organizations must take a leading role in providing employees with career advancement opportunities as a means of influencing desirable work behaviour such as organizational commitment, reduced turnover intention (Jackson and Sirianni, 2009; Nasurdin et al., 2014) and increased customer loyalty and satisfaction (Jackson and Sirianni, 2009).

Employees working in organizations that provide them with career advancement opportunities are reported to have high levels of job and career satisfaction. More so, these employees have the tendency of being enthusiastic about their job and are inclined towards responsibility that enables them to render quality services to customers (Kong et al., 2015), thus leaving them satisfied. In the hospitality industry, the availability of career advancement opportunities

industry has seemingly become important, especially among frontline employees. This is attributed to the significant boundary spanning role that these employees assume in the service delivery process (Kong et al., 2015). Given that customers mainly interact with frontline employees who are more likely to have limited amounts of investment allocated to their development by their organizations, the availability of career advancement opportunities will motivate such employees to exert extra effort to perform at a higher level (Jackson and Sirianni, 2009; Kraimer et al., 2011). However, an assessment of the extant hospitality management literature evidences that frontline employees within the hospitality industry in particular, continue to contend with the challenge of limited career advancement opportunities (Karatepe and Uludag, 2007; Davidson, Timo and Wang, 2010). Kong et al. (2015) contended that hotel management should create a more stable working environment with opportunities for career development particularly for younger employees in an effort to influence their work enthusiasm.

The development of career progression programs to provide career advancement opportunities, remains essential and is correlated with benefits encompassing reduced employee turnover, increased customer satisfaction, creation of empowerment opportunities, increased job performance (Jackson and Sirianni, 2009), job satisfaction (Kong et al., 2015), service recovery, creative performance, and absence intentions (Karatepe and Olugbade, 2016). Thus, management ought to support frontline employees seeking to progress in their careers. More so, frontline employees must feel that their career goals are being met within the organization before being zealous about addressing and meeting customer needs (Jackson and Sirianni, 2009).

The extant literature further shows that career opportunities otherwise described as career progression, can have additional positive job outcomes. For instance, in an empirical study conducted to investigate the influence of hope on job performance, service-recovery performance, and extra-role customer service behaviours through work engagement among 110 Romanian frontline employees, Karatepe (2014) reported that career advancement opportunities were likely to stimulate their level of hope, thus resulting in an increase in their levels of work engagement. Similarly, in a prior study, Jackson and Sirianni (2009) also found that frontline employees who are afforded significant opportunities for career advancement are more likely to be loyal to the organizations in which they work, more fulfilled in their work roles, and more likely to improve on their job performance, as well as remain within their organizations. Moreover, Karatepe and Vatankhah (2014b) established that career

progression led to the retention of talented employees. In other research, using empirical evidence adduced from the airline industry, Karatepe and Vatankhah (2015) reported career development opportunities as being the most significant indicator of HPWPs.

Career development opportunities as demonstrated in the extant literature, are recognized as practices that are motivation-enhancing and are implemented to stimulate the employees' motivation (Karatepe and Olugbade, 2016), thus resulting in desirable work outcomes. This is also consistent with Kruja, Ha, Drishti and Oelfke (2016) who reported in their study that career advancement opportunities are instrumental to the intensification of organizational commitment and job satisfaction, and the reduction of turnover intention. Moreover, career programs that offer employees advancement opportunities can result in timely growth opportunities for employees, triggering an automatic increase in their levels of engagement (Anitha, 2014), as well as an increase in customer loyalty and satisfaction (Jackson and Sirianni, 2009).

Although the presence of available career development opportunities yield positive outcomes for both the organization and the employee, it is worth noting that employee career goals are not constant and may change over time along the different career junctures based on either their work history, the availability of career options within the organization, their individual career management ability, or the cues relayed to them by the organization's representatives concerning their potential career growth (Kraimer et al., 2011; Kruja et al., 2016). Moreover, employees' career aspirations may differ from one individual to another within the same organization and as such, perceptions of career advancement opportunities may differ (Kraimer et al., 2011)

For the devices of this study, the opportunities for career advancement factor is described as the degree to which job positions or opportunities that are aligned to the employee's career interest and goals are available within an organization (Kraimer et al., 2011).

2.6 Job Outcomes

2.6.1 The Concept of Creative Performance

Creativity has been acknowledged as a basis of innovation within an organization (Sweetman, Luthans, Avey and Luthans, 2011) and thus considered a crucial factor for high performance that enables organizations to sustain a competitive advantage (Karatepe et al., 2008; Sweetman et al., 2011). Creativity in an organization is described as the process of generating

useful novel ideas, whereas creative performance refers to the behaviour involved in the manifestation of one's creative potential (Sweetman et al., 2011). Oldham and Cummings (1996) described creative performance as ideas, procedures, or products that are novel or original and ideally suitable and useful for an organization. Of note, they further distinguished creative performance from organizational innovation. Whereas creative performance refers to the products and ideas generated by an individual, organizational innovation entails the successful application of these products at the organizational level.

Early research on creativity among employees was primarily developed using an individualistic approach, which focused on the individual's personality and cognitive abilities. However, recent developments bring to light an interaction between the individual (personality characteristics and cognitive abilities) and contextual (environmental) factors working as the bedrock of creativity (Wang and Netemeyer, 2004; Hon, 2012; Sweetman et al., 2011). Accordingly, Choi (2004) postulated that an individual's creative performance should be explained as an outcome of interplay between the individual and his or her surroundings. For instance, evidence from empirical studies has found that contextual factors such as rewards, goal setting, and personal discretion, can influence creativity among employees (Shalley and Perry-Smith, 2001).

Contextual factors as defined by Shalley, Zhou and Oldham (2004) include those "dimensions of the work environment that potentially influence an employee's creativity but that are not part of the individual" (p. 935), and include job complexity, employee relationship with supervisor, employee relationship with co-worker, rewards (Shalley et al., 2004), and job characteristics (Oldham and Cummings, 1996; Sweetman et al., 2011). Shalley et al. (2004) also observed that environmental and individual characteristics may impact creativity through their effects on the intrinsically motivational tendencies among employees to perform their job responsibilities. As such, when employees are highly motivated, they are more inclined to be creative. This is because this motivation increases their propensity to identify novel information, understand problems, and generate novel solutions. Conversely, when employees experience low levels of motivation, they will lack cognitive flexibility and thus continue to perform their duties in a routine manner (Liu, Jiang, Shalley, Keem and Zhou, 2016).

In the hospitality industry, creative performance is an essential performance outcome particularly for frontline service jobs. According to Coelho et al. (2011), frontline employees possess an important creative potential due to their boundary spanning roles, which provides

them the unique opportunity to customize service delivery to complement each customer's unique requirements. Due to their boundary spanning roles, Karatepe (2016) contends that frontline service jobs must be assumed by individuals who not only generate new concepts for the improvement of services but also provide innovative solutions to customer problems. Moreover, Wong and Ladkin (2008) proffered that creativity can be used as a means of motivating employees to provide higher levels of customer care. In addition, Karatepe et al. (2008) argued that creative employees can foster and sustain a competitive advantage for their organizations.

Although creative performance is important for quality service delivery, empirical studies on the concept have largely been neglected in the hospitality industry (Karatepe et al., 2014a). This has been supported in prior works, as various researchers have lent credence to the observation that there have been relatively few empirical studies on the key service performance outcome of creative performance, in frontline jobs (Karatepe, 2012b; Karatepe and Olugbade, 2016). A major reason attributed to the dearth of empirical evidence in the industry is that human creativity has often been related with so-called artistic industries such as drama, poetry, and painting, for example (Wong and Ladkin, 2008). According to Wong and Ladkin (2008), the hospitality industry was traditionally recognized for providing accommodation and food services, thereby emphasizing on operational routine services that only satisfied the customer's accommodation and food needs. However, this general view of the hospitality industry has been disputed as it has been demonstrated that creative ideas generate benefits for the industry, therefore placing emphasize on a broader range of customer experiences (Wong and Pang, 2003).

As previously mentioned, review of contemporarily studies in existing literature indicate that the current knowledge base on the concept of creative performance and its drivers is still considered to be in its developmental stages (Coelho et al., 2011; Hon, 2012; Karatepe, 2016). However, the limited empirical research on the creative performance construct demonstrates that high-performance work practices, psychological capital, and job embeddedness, can positively influence creative performance among employees (Hon 2012; Karatepe, 2016; Sweetman et al., 2011). For instance, in a study to investigate the effects of positive psychological capital as a predictor, on creative performance among 899 employees, Sweetman et al. (2011) found efficacy, optimism, hope, and resilience, to be predictors of creative performance. In another study of a sample of 219 Chinese employees from the hotel service sectors, Hon (2012) found that competency-based pay (the reward for knowledge and

skill), and individual characteristics (the need for achievement and power), were predictors of an employee's creative performance. Findings from the study emphasized creativity as an outcome of the employee's expression of his or her competencies when his or her skills and knowledge are accordingly rewarded by the organization. Similarly, results from the structural equation modeling analysis conducted by Karatepe (2016) showed that co-worker and family support fostered employee job embeddedness which in turn, boosted creative performance among 212 frontline service hotel employees in Cameroon. In other research, it has been empirically established that HPWPs can be significant predictors of creative performance (Karatepe and Olugbade, 2016).

Further, an assessment of the existing body of knowledge evidences that there exists a limited amount of empirical works on creative performance in relation to the work engagement phenomenon. Of the few studies cited in the existing literature, it has been observed that work engagement can positively influence creative performance. Empirical research on the effects of work engagement on creative performance among frontline service employees in the hotels is indicative of the notion that work engagement stimulates and enhances their creative performance (Karatepe, 2012b; Karatepe and Olugbade, 2016). Consistent with the underlying SET principle of reciprocal reinforcement, Karatepe and Olugbade (2016) affirmed that work engagement functions as a form of repayment demonstrated by employees as a result of the trusting relationship developed between them and their employers. As such, engaged employees are reported to significantly impact the organization through their elevated levels of creative performance.

Given that creativity in frontline service jobs is exhibited when employees initiate and evaluate novel solutions tailored for customer problems or examine long-standing issues from a new perspective (Karatepe et al., 2008), this study adopts Wang and Netemeyer's (2004) definition of creative performance, describing the concept as the quantity of novel ideas generated by individual employees and innovative behaviours displayed in executing work-related duties.

2.6.2 The Concept of Extra-Role Customer Service

Extra-role customer service behaviour counts among the three types of pro-social organizational behaviours (Lee, Nam, Park and Lee, 2006; Bellou and Andronikidis, 2008) that can be exhibited by an employee. Pro-social organizational behaviour is characterized by the constructive behaviours shown by employees towards the organization and other

individuals, with the principle aim of promoting the welfare of both (Lee et al., 2006; Bellou and Andronikidis, 2008). As identified by Bettencourt and Brown (1997), pro-social behaviour encompasses three categories, namely, role-prescribed customer service, co-operation among co-workers, and extra-role customer service.

Role-prescribed customer service pro-social behaviour denotes expected employee behaviour from implied standards inherent in the workplace and distinct responsibilities as prescribed by the role description as well as performance evaluation criterion methods (Lee et al., 2006; Bellou and Andronikidis, 2008). This includes displaying courteous behaviour towards the customers, and accurate knowledge of the organization's policies and products. Existing literature affirms that behaviours such as role-prescribed customer service increase customer loyalty, customer satisfaction, perception of service quality, and organizational performance (Bellou and Andronikidis, 2008). On the other hand, co-operation among workers denotes the positive behaviours of service employees to the other members in their immediate group (Bellou and Andronikidis, 2008; Kim, Tavitiyaman and Kim, 2009b). Azzolini and Shillaber (1993) posit that exceptional customer service delivery to the external customer, depends on the internal service and co-operation relationships among contact employees and other employees within the organization. Similar to role-prescribed behaviour, co-operation among workers is considered instrumental to enhancing the quality of services rendered (Bellou and Andronikidis, 2008).

Lastly, extra-role customer service behaviour (extra-role pro-social behaviour), which forms part of the focus of the present study, characterizes the voluntary behaviour exhibited by the contact employees (frontline employees) displayed while rendering customer service, that exceeds their prescribed job requirements (Bettencourt and Brown, 1997; Lee et al., 2006). Researchers have conceptualized extra-role pro-social behaviour as either functional or dysfunctional. Functional extra-role behaviours include those that promote the well-being of an organization such as co-operating with co-workers whereas dysfunctional extra-role behaviours include those behaviours that diminish the organization's efficiency (Lee et al., 2006). Per the aforementioned definition of extra-role customer service behaviour, frontline service employees surpass expectations to please the customers by affording them auxiliary attention and delivering dynamic and exemplary service, to foster positive emotional responses and customer satisfaction (Lee et al., 2006). Although this is considered as perhaps the most valuable behaviour an employee can display in an organization, it has been reported

to be the least investigated (Moliner, Martinez-Tur, Ramos, Peiro and Cropanzano, 2008), particularly within service organizations. In the hospitality industry, service quality is highly dependent on frontline employees or contact employees due to their close interactions with customers. As a result, the extra-role customer service behaviour of these employees has become indispensable (Daskin, 2015) due to the competitive advantage that it affords an organization (Kim et al., 2009b). Despite its importance to the service industry, existing literature, particularly that which concerns the hospitality industry, indicates that there still persists a dearth of knowledge on extra-role customer service behaviour (Daskin, 2015).

Bellou and Andronikidis (2008) contend that the extra-role behaviours espoused by frontline service employees must be encouraged so as to enhance the service quality provided, thereby improving organizational effectiveness. Furthermore, Daskin (2015) asserts that extra-role customer service behaviours espoused by frontline employees cannot be underrated as they are of significant importance to the functioning of an organization. Therefore, an understanding of what maximizes and minimizes extra-role customer service behaviour (Daskin, 2015), is of consequence.

With the growing demands of customer-service expectations, the hospitality (hotel) industry is continuously in need of engaged employees who in their prescribed roles strive to go the proverbial extra mile to satisfy the dynamic needs of customers (Karatepe, 2013b). This is because the retention of engaged frontline employees has been observed to influence high quality performance (Slatten and Mehmetoglu, 2011; Karatepe, 2013b), and enhanced extra-role service behaviours (Karatepe, 2013b; Karatepe, 2014). Furthermore, additional contemporary studies also affirmed that factors such as satisfaction, commitment, (Lee et al., 2006), work-family conflict (Daskin, 2015), work engagement (Karatepe, 2013b), job embeddedness (Karatepe and Vatankhah, 2014a), job resources, namely autonomy and social support (Bakker, Demerouti and Verbeke, 2004), transformational leadership (Salanova, Lorente, Chambel and Martinez, 2011), and personal resources including self-efficacy, positive affectivity, and intrinsic motivation (Karatepe, 2015), can be determinants of extra-role service behaviours.

In the extant literature, the notion of extra-role customer service has been evidenced in studies of the association between work engagement and this job outcome, whereby engaged frontline employees have been found to prioritize extra-role activities in promptly responding to customer queries and concerns (Karatepe, 2013b). Similarly, Bakker, Schaufeli, Leiter and

Taris (2008) have also reported that work engagement is correlated with extra-role customer service behaviour, whereby these researchers concluded that those frontline employees who are energetic and enthusiastic about their work demonstrate not only an increase in their in-role performance but also an increase in their extra-role performance. In tandem with this conclusion, Bakker et al. (2004) also reported engaged employees as individuals who are eager to exceed their job requirements for the benefit of the organization.

In addition, recent studies on extra-role customer service have also affirmed that there exists a positive relationship between job resources encompassing empowerment, training, and rewards, and work engagement, resulting in extra-role performance (Karatepe, 2013b), as well as personalized services (Solnet, Kandampully and Kralj, 2010). Other studies have also shown that highly engaged employees attach priority to exceeding customer expectations through their extra-role behaviours (Karatepe, 2014). Moreover, the work engagement construct as a motivational factor has been regarded as a determinant of employees' eagerness to exceed their job requirements in meeting customer expectations through their consistent exertion of extra efforts (Moliner et al., 2008; Karatepe, 2011c; Karatepe, 2013a).

Accordingly, Bettencourt and Brown's (1997) definition of extra-role customer service behaviour was adopted for this study.

2.6.3 The Concept of Turnover Intention

Employee turnover remains a major challenge for organizations today within the various industries globally. Organizational costs associated with employees quitting their jobs, replacement of qualified employees, training of new employees, and general administration costs, have been noted as major concerns for organizations (Elci, Sener, Aksoy and Alpakan, 2012). Accordingly, practitioners and researchers have continued to actively identify and understand the drivers of employee turnover. To then answer the pertinent question of what influences employee turnover, empirical studies have focused on investigating the various determinants of turnover intention (Joo and Park, 2010). Turnover intention is considered a type of employee withdrawal behaviour from their work-related activities. More so, and as Bothman and Roodt (2012) contended, this behaviour constitutes a primary means through which an employee manages their concerns arising from their relationship with their employers.

Over the years, the concept of turnover intention has assumed various definitions across the existing literature. For instance, Tett and Meyer (1993) characterized turnover intention as an intentional and conscious wilfulness to exit the organization. The researchers further defined turnover intention as “the last in a sequence of withdrawal steps taken, characterized by thoughts of quitting and the intent to search for alternative employment” (p. 262). Turnover intention has also been described as the transition of the individual into and out of employment in his or her present organization (Altarawmneh and Al- Kilani, 2010). Similarly, turnover intention has been referred to as an intuitive approximation of the likelihood of a person leaving the organization (Carmeli and Weisberg 2006; Cho, Johanson, Guchait 2009). While scholars have used the terms turnover intention, intention to leave, and intention to quit interchangeably (Coomber and Barriball, 2007; Kovner, Brewer, Greene and Fairchild, 2009), the term turnover intention was used for the purposes of this study.

Researchers and industry practitioners have, overtime, concentrated on understanding the determinants of actual turnover vis-a-vis turnover intention. However, scholars are now striving to understand the determinants of turnover intention, as this withdrawal behaviour is observed to be a precursor of actual behaviour. Behavioural intention as postulated by Bothman and Roodt (2012), has been considered the most immediate determinant of actual behaviour. Moreover, researchers have widely studied behavioural intention and found it to be the most important predictor of actual turnover (Guchait and Cho, 2010). Bothman and Roodt (2012) observed that behavioural intention was a reliable antecedent of actual behaviour, implying that turnover intention was a suitable proxy of actual turnover behaviour. Lingard (2003) also observed that it was difficult to measure actual turnover, however suggesting that instead, turnover intention functioned as a good predictor of actual turnover. Furthermore, in additional studies, turnover intention has been confirmed to be the strongest cognitive predecessor of actual turnover (Carmeli and Weisberg 2006; Cho et al., 2009; Zopiatis, Constanti and Theocharous, 2014).

Identifying and understanding the determinants of turnover intention behaviour is essential so as to mitigate against and control factors that influence the employee’s intention to separate from their employer. Existing literature indicates that most of the prior empirical studies conducted on the determinants of turnover intention have been primarily focused on job-related factors (e.g. pay, performance, organizational commitment, job satisfaction, role ambiguity, emotional exhaustion, role conflict, work conditions, supervisor support), external

or environmental factors (such as alternative job opportunities, unemployment rates, union presence, economic conditions), and personal or individual factors (such as self-esteem, and the demographic factors age, tenure, and marital status), as significant and immediate determinants of turnover intention (Mulki, Jaramillo and Locander 2007; Guchait and Cho, 2010; Elci et al., 2012; Jang and George, 2012). Specifically, Elci et al. (2012) observed that among employees, lack of commitment and job dissatisfaction were the main influencing factors that predict turnover intention.

In the extant literature, there exists evidence of limited empirical studies focused on those human resource practices which directly impact the employee's work environment as predictors of turnover intention (Guchait and Cho, 2010). Consequently, an improved understanding of how human resource practices can deter one's intention to separate from an organization, is warranted. Despite the various attempts in prior research to identify and understand the predictors of turnover intention, Firth, Mellor, Moore and Loquet (2004) observed that there is limited consistency in study findings moderately due to the diversity of the construct, coupled with a lack of consistency in its measurement, as well as the difference in varying research contexts in which predictors of the construct were investigated.

Turnover intention, particularly in the hospitality (hotel) industry, has been found to be much higher compared to other industries (Kim, 2014), in addition to posing a major and persistent challenge to the industry (Jang and George, 2012). Moreover, it has received considerable attention among hotel executives and researchers due to its direct monetary and indirect costs such as low morale, reduced performance levels, and poor service quality (Altarawmneh and Al-Kilani 2010; Jang and George, 2012). In their research, Jang and George (2012) indicated that direct costs associated with employee turnover represents about 15-30% of total costs associated with the separation of employees from their organizations, whereas the remaining 70-85% accounts for the hidden costs attributed to customer dissatisfaction and the loss of customers due to unsatisfied employees. Among frontline employees, it has been demonstrated that turnover intention contributes to substandard customer service and impedes service recovery endeavours considered essential for the retention of customers (Alexandrov, et al., 2007; Ashil et al., 2008).

A review of empirical studies in the existing literature in the domain of hospitality management shows various predictors of turnover intention among employees encompassing HPWPs (including empowerment, rewards, and training), emotional exhaustion,

organizational commitment, and work engagement (Nadiri and Tanova, 2010; Jang and George, 2012; Lee, Huan and Zhao, 2012; Lv, Xu and Ji, 2012). For instance, a study by Yavas and Babakus (2010) indicated that when job resources or HPWPs e.g. rewards in the workplace are present, employee turnover intention reduces, as employees tend to feel appreciated and valued. Other empirical studies have also evidenced that employees with limited training and development opportunities and perceived job insecurity are more likely to exhibit higher turnover intention (Karatepe, Yavas, and Babakus, 2007; Staufenbiel and Konig, 2010). On the contrary, employees who are empowered have been observed to have lower turnover intention (Karatepe et al., 2007; Yavas and Babakus, 2010). Further, Karatepe and Ngeche (2012) affirmed that work engagement led to a decline in turnover intentions among service industry employees. This reduction in turnover intention is supported by Karatepe and Aga (2012) who found that employees who are hardworking and enthusiastic, feel more involved in their tasks, thereby displaying lower turnover intention levels.

According to Hwang, Lee, Park, Chang and Kim (2014) high turnover intention among frontline employees can result in low levels of product and service quality, as well as increased costs to the organization in the training and hiring of new employees. Accordingly, as a way of managing turnover intention among frontline employees, Altarawmneh and Al- Kilani (2010) prescribed the use of effective human resources practices that are partly within the control or purview of management.

In the present study, Tett and Meyer's (1993) definition of the turnover intention construct as "the conscious and deliberate wilfulness to leave the organization" (p. 262) was adopted.

2.7 Hypotheses Development

The following hypotheses were proposed for the target respondents of the present study, millennial frontline employees.

2.7.1 High-Performance Work Practices (HPWPs)

HPWPs have been characterized as distinct, interrelated work practices, designed to enhance employee performance (Huselid, 1995; Takuechi et al., 2009).

Training is a factor that is instrumental to the enhancement of employee performance (Khan et al., 2011). This work practice enables an employee with the requisite knowledge and skills to perform his or her duties as per organizational standards and deliver quality services

(Costen and Salazar, 2011). The training of a frontline service employee in the development of his or her behavioural and functional skill-level, enhances his or her ability to resolve service-related issues with customers who are displeased and dissatisfied (Boshoff and Allen, 2002; Yavas and Babakus, 2010; Karatepe and Vatankhah, 2014a). Employees who lack adequate training on the other hand are more likely to deliver unsatisfactory service as well as ineffectively address customer complaints and demands (Yavas and Babakus, 2010). Empowerment affords employees the responsibility and authority to handle customer requests and problems without referring to numerous people in the chain of command (Babakus et al., 2003c; Yavas and Babakus, 2010). More specifically, empowering frontline employees enables them accomplish their work-related duties, use their personal judgement, and provide instant solutions to customer complaints (Karatepe, 2013b). Moreover, empowerment enables service organizations to form close relationships with customers due to an increase in employee flexibility (Hartline, Maxham and McKee, 2000; Karatepe et al., 2007). Notably, it has been postulated in prior empirical studies, that the work practice of employee empowerment will only yield desired outcomes if combined with the appropriate training regimens (Babakus et al., 2003c; Karatepe, 2013b).

Further, the work practice of rewards is considered critical to the effectiveness of organizations through the reinforcement of the desired behaviour of employees, coupled with their motivation (Chiang and Birtch, 2008; Bustamam et al., 2014). Employees who perceive a strong reward and recognition climate for their efforts have stronger and positive feelings towards their jobs and organizations (Chiang and Birtch, 2011). More specifically, frontline employees who are recognized and rewarded for their effort are more likely to have a favourable perception about their jobs, thereby becoming more satisfied and committed to their organizations (Chiang and Birtch, 2011). The availability of rewards signifies to employees that management at the organizational level is dedicated to satisfying the customer and willing to recognize those employees who successfully attain this objective (Karatepe et al., 2007). However, these rewards can only be effective with the simultaneous implementation and enforcement of training and empowerment (Karatepe et al., 2014a; Karatepe and Vatankhah, 2014b).

Moreover, job security, an important indicator, has been found to motivate frontline employees and enhance their job outcomes (Karatepe and Olugbade, 2016). Employees who work in an environment where they perceive job security are more likely to contribute their

knowledge and efforts towards improving innovation and productivity (Gong and Chang, 2008). When employees experience minimal job security in organizations, job insecurity becomes a hindrance stressor that decreases their performance (Karatepe and Olugbade, 2016). To reinforce this sense of job security, the prospect of career opportunities is also a motivator for frontline employees, as it enhances their work practices through the creation of a stable environment for their career growth and development (Jackson and Sirianni, 2009; Karatepe, 2014). Specifically, for younger employees, management should foster work environments that offer these employees with opportunities to advance in their careers (Kong et al., 2015). Furthermore, the availability of career opportunities also motivates the employee to exhibit favourable work outcomes e.g. lower turnover intention (Karatepe and Olugbade, 2016). Thus, management ought to provide support to frontline employees willing to seek counselling on career progression (Kang, Gatling and Kim, 2015). Accordingly, on the basis of the foregoing discussion the following hypothesis is proposed:

Hypothesis 1 (H1): Training, rewards, empowerment, job security, and career opportunities, are significant indicators of High-Performance Work Practices (HPWPs).

2.7.2 The Relationship between High-Performance Work Practices (HPWPs) and Work Engagement

Training, empowerment, rewards, job security, and career opportunities, are HPWPs indicators for this study.

When frontline employees recognize that they work in an environment in which such HPWPs are prevalent, they are more energized and inspired, and as a result, become more involved (Karatepe, 2013b; Karatepe and Olugbade, 2016). In consonance with the SET and the motivational process of the JD-R model, frontline employees operating in a work environment in which job resources such as HPWPs are available, are more inclined to pay back the organization through high work engagement levels (Karatepe, 2013b; Karatepe and Olugbade, 2016).

In addition, frontline employees must acquire the necessary requisite knowledge and skills required to handle service delivery processes as well as address customer requests and complaints through training (Karatepe, 2013b). Without the necessary requisite skills, frontline employees will have limited abilities necessary to perform their duties. The existence of relevant training programs conveys a powerful signal to frontline employees of the

management's devotion to the improvement of service quality (Babakus et al., 2003c; Karatepe, 2013b). Thus, training frontline employees motivates them to improve their capabilities, attain greater levels of productivity (Combs et al., 2006), and enhance service accuracy, thus impacting engagement and service performance (Paradise, 2008).

Training as an indicator of HPWPs has been linked to increased confidence levels among employees, which translates to greater levels of employee work engagement (Mauno et al., 2007; Athina, 2014). Although training is considered to have an impact on employees' performance, training employees without empowering them will not yield the organization's intended outcome of quality service delivery (Babakus et al., 2003c; Karatepe, 2013b).

Empowerment allows employees to realize the correlation between their actions and customer value (Babakus et al., 2003c). Specifically, empowering frontline employees affords them the responsibility and authority needed to instantly act on customer-related queries and complaints (Babakus et al., 2003c), thus impacting service quality and performance. In addition, empowered employees are able to fulfil their assigned duties and responsibilities, apply their creative individual judgement, and render timely and unbiased feedback to customer requests and complaints (Kim et al., 2009b; Karatepe 2013b). In frontline jobs, empowerment is unavoidable because of the nature of the jobs, for which tasks cannot be pre-specified to ensure customer satisfaction, following the dynamic and unique needs of different customers (Babakus et al., 2003c). However, for frontline service employees to effectively exercise their mandate to address customer requests and complaints effectively, rewards must be in place to recognize their efforts. Thus, training and empowerment must be reinforced through rewards (Karatepe, 2013b). When employees perceive that managers recognize and reward their efforts, their feelings towards their job and organization are strengthened (Karatepe et al., 2014a). Moreover, rewards and recognition are essential in motivating employees to exhibit positive behaviours and attitudes necessary for the delivery of service and complaint-handling procedures (Karatepe and Vatankhah, 2014a). Taken together, the training, empowerment, and rewards indicators stimulate reactions from the frontline employees. However, employed independent of each other, these job resources or HPWPs will not yield the expected performance results. It is only the concurrent implementation of these three job resources that impacts the affective states of frontline employees', and consequently, their performance (Babakus et al., 2003c). In addition, this combination of rewards with training and empowerment is more likely to trigger their engagement (Hughes and Rog, 2008, Karatepe, 2013b).

Moreover, frontline employees must also have a sense of job security, as it promotes their commitment and engagement while reducing their turnover intention (Karatepe and Olugbade, 2016; Karadas and Karatepe, 2019). Additionally, affording frontline employees career advancement opportunities has been observed to foster employee motivation as well as lead to their retention within organizations (Karatepe, 2014; Karatepe and Vatankhah, 2014b; Karatepe and Olugbade, 2016; Karadas and Karatepe, 2019).

Therefore, as per the foregoing discussion, the following hypothesis is put forth:

Hypothesis 2 (H2): HPWPs as manifested by training, empowerment, rewards, job security, and career opportunities, are positively associated with work engagement.

2.7.3 The Relationship between Work Engagement and Job Outcomes

Creative performance, extra-role customer service, and turnover intention, are the three job outcomes examined in this study. An extensive literature review denotes that the work engagement construct is correlated with various behavioural job consequences e.g. absence intention, job performance, service recovery performance, career satisfaction, and affective organizational commitment (Karatepe, 2011c; Karatepe, 2012b; Karatepe, 2013b; Karatepe and Olugbade, 2016; Karadas and Karatepe, 2019). However, researchers have reported a dearth of empirical research on the association between work engagement and multiple job outcomes (Karadas and Karatepe, 2019; Karatepe et al., 2019).

There are a number of reasons for investigating the linkages among work engagement and the aforementioned outcomes of this study.

First, the existing knowledge-base on the drivers of creative performance still remains relatively scarce (Hon, 2012; Karatepe, 2016). Of the few studies conducted on creative performance relative to work engagement, work engagement has been reported to stimulate and enhance the creative performance of employees (Karatepe, 2012b; Karatepe and Olugbade, 2016). This is because highly engaged employees are most capable of generating novel concepts for service delivery and exhibiting innovative behaviours to effectively resolve customer problems (Karatepe, 2012b).

Second, an examination of the existing literature affirms a need to further ascertain the relationship between work engagement and extra-role service behaviour (Christian et al., 2011; Karatepe, 2013b; Karatepe, 2014). This examination would enable an improved

understanding of whether engaged employees prioritize in-role performance (prescribed duties) or extra-role performance. Essentially, this is because the hospitality industry requires employees with the proactive behaviours necessary for adapting to specific situations when dealing with customers. Engagement can be regarded as a determinant of extra-role customer service, as there is a higher likelihood that employees who are engaged are inclined towards exerting additional effort, and go the extra mile when rendering services to customers (Karatepe, 2013b). The existing evidence-base on work engagement effects on extra-role service behaviours indicates that work engagement has been observed as a determinant of the employees' eagerness to exceed their in-role responsibilities, and thereby satisfy customer expectations through the exertion of extra effort (Moliner et al., 2008; Karatepe, 2011c; Karatepe, 2013a). This is attributed to engaged employees simultaneously investing their cognitive, emotional, and physical energies to facilitate customer needs (Karatepe, 2013a).

Third, turnover intention has continued to be a major challenge in the hospitality industry as previously mentioned in the literature, mainly due to a high dependence on the human resource component (Nadiri and Tanova, 2010; Jang and George, 2012). Existing literature indicates that highly engaged frontline employees find it difficult to leave their organizations because they have invested considerable time and energy in their work roles (Halbesleben and Wheeler, 2008; Karatepe and Aga, 2012; Karadas and Karatepe, 2019). Similarly, previous research has also shown that work engagement lowers the turnover intention of service employees (Schaufeli and Bakker, 2004; Karatepe, 2013a).

Given that frontline service employees must pinpoint and strive to meet the actual and expected customer needs (Lages and Piercy, 2012), it is postulated that engaged millennial frontline employees are required to generate novel concepts for service improvement, exhibit resourceful behaviour in service delivery, and surpass their role responsibilities to meet and exceed the expectations of the customer. Moreover, engaged millennial frontline employees are more inclined to have a favourable outlook towards their job and organization, and therefore be less willing to leave the organization. Empirically, Karatepe (2013a) demonstrated that work engagement significantly influences the extra-role performance behaviours among frontline service employees as well as reduces their turnover intention. Further, Karatepe (2012b) also demonstrated that work engagement positively influences creative performance among frontline employees. Therefore, consequent to the foregoing discussion, the following hypotheses are put forth:

Hypothesis 3a (H3a): Work engagement is positively associated with creative performance.

Hypothesis 3b (H3b): Work engagement is positively associated with extra-role customer service.

Hypothesis 3c (H3c): Work engagement is negatively associated with turnover intention.

2.7.4 Work Engagement as a Mediator between High-Performance Work Practices (HPWPs) and Job Outcomes

Work engagement, as a motivational factor, has been positioned to play a mediating role between HPWPs and the selected job outcomes creative performance, extra-role customer service, and turnover intention.

The SET and the motivational process of the JD-R model provides guidance concerning work engagement as a mediator of the effects of HPWPs, on job outcomes. From the SET perspective, when employers take care of their employees, relationships of social exchange ensue, and this results in beneficial consequences (Cropanzano and Mitchell, 2005). Those employees who have HPWPs present in their work environment have a tendency to exhibit heightened work engagement levels (Karatepe and Olugbade, 2016). With the availability of HPWPs, employees will respond by being more engaged, leading to positive work outcomes in the workplace e.g. creative performance, extra-role customer service, and lower turnover intention (Karatepe, 2013a; Karatepe, 2013b; Karatepe and Olugbade, 2016; Karadas and Karatepe, 2019). This reciprocity is explained by the existence of more quality, trusting relationships between the employers and their employees (Saks, 2006; Karatepe, 2013b). The motivational pathway in the JD-R model delineates the work engagement construct's proposed function as a mediator. Job resources or HPWPs in particular, enhance employees' work engagement. This is because they mitigate work-related job demands, thereby enabling growth, learning, and development (Schaufeli and Bakker, 2004; Karatepe, 2012b; Karatepe and Olugbade, 2016). As a result, employees display favourable work-based outcomes (Bakker and Demerouti, 2008).

In this study, the researcher proposes that work engagement is the response given by millennial frontline employees as a form of repayment when HPWPs are availed in the workplace. As such, these employees in turn display low levels of turnover intention, offer novel solutions to successfully resolve customer requests and complaints, and endeavour to

demonstrate extra-role service performance (Karatepe, 2013b; Karadas and Karatepe, 2019). Therefore, subsequent to the foregoing discussion, the following hypotheses are proposed:

Hypothesis 4a (H4a): Work engagement mediates the effects of HPWPs as manifested by training, empowerment, rewards, job security, and career opportunities, on creative performance.

Hypothesis 4b (H4b): Work engagement mediates the effects of HPWPs as manifested by training, empowerment, rewards, job security, and career opportunities, on extra-role customer service.

Hypothesis 4c (H4c): Work engagement mediates the effects of HPWPs as manifested by training, empowerment, rewards, job security, and career opportunities, on turnover intention.

2.8 The Conceptual Model of the Study

The study's conceptual model, underpinned by the Social Exchange Theory (SET) and the Motivational Process of the Job Demands-Resources (JD-R) Model discussed in Sections 2.3.1 and 2.3.2, and developed to assess the relationships between High-Performance Work Practices (HPWPs) and job outcomes through work engagement as a mediating (intervening) mechanism, explicated as per the hypotheses formulated in Section 2.7, is presented in Figure 2.4.

As depicted in Figure 2.4, training, empowerment, rewards, job security, and career opportunities, as manifest HPWPs indicators, are related as determinants to work engagement, a mediating (intervening) construct, which in turn is positioned to determine the three consequent job outcomes creative performance, extra-role customer service, and turnover intention.

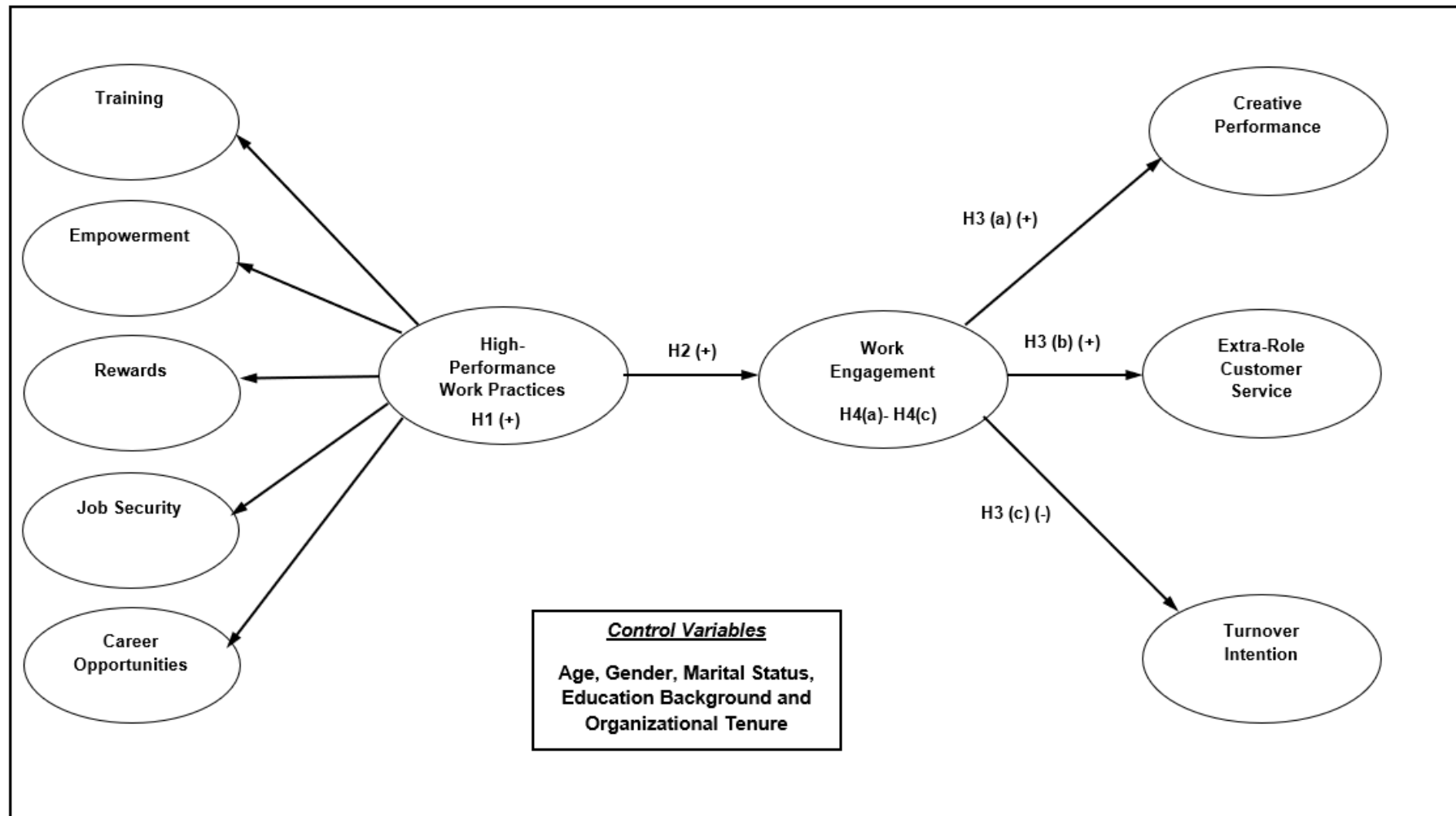


Figure 2.4. Conceptual Model

2.9 Summary of Chapter

The principle aim of this chapter was to provide a contextual and theoretical understanding of the study.

First, the contextual background provided an understanding of the hospitality (hotel) industry from a global perspective and a regional perspective, that is, Sub-Saharan Africa. This was followed by an examination of frontline employees in the hospitality (hotel) service industry, and a discussion of the millennial generational cohort.

Second, the underpinning theories of the present study were discussed and the conceptualization of the selected constructs for the study, that is training, empowerment, rewards, job security, and career opportunities as manifest indicators of HPWPs, the work engagement construct, and creative performance, extra-role customer service, and turnover intention as job outcomes, were presented.

Third, this was succeeded by an extensive investigation of the relationships among these variables based on the existing literature. Grounded on the empirical evidence adduced from the extant literature, hypotheses were then formulated and a conceptual model developed and presented.

Finally, the study's developed and hypothesized conceptual model of the determinants and outcomes of work engagement, underpinned by theory, that is, the Social Exchange Theory (SET) and the motivational process of the JD-R model, was presented and described.

In the subsequent chapter, the research methodology employed for the study is presented and discussed.

Chapter 3

Research Methodology

3.1 Introduction

The principle aim of this chapter is to describe the research methods adopted for the study. First, the research philosophy, approach, research strategy and research design of the study is discussed. Second, the study's sampling procedure and sampling design is discussed. Third, the survey measurement instrument used for data collection from respondents (millennial frontline employees) is described. Fourth, the data collection process employed and data analysis procedures and techniques are discussed. Lastly, ethical research considerations are outlined.

The research methodology used for the present study is illustrated as the layered schematic in Figure 3.1.

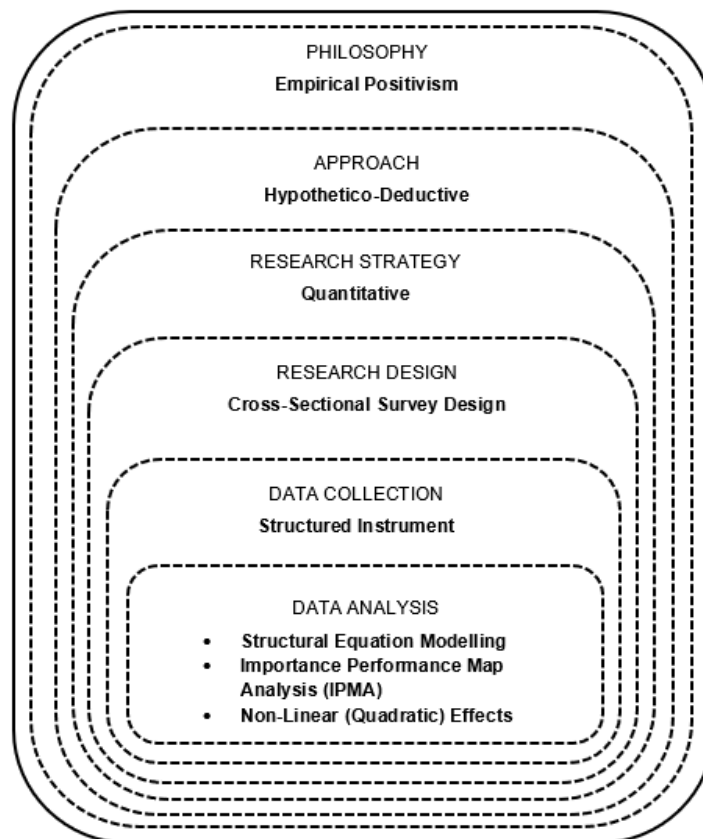


Figure 3.1. Methodology of the Study

3.2 Research Philosophy and Approach

3.2.1 Philosophy

Philosophy entails a system of beliefs and conventions on the advancement of knowledge and its essence (Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, 2012). Ontology and epistemology are considered as the two major research philosophies (Saunders et al., 2012). Ontology concerns nature and reality, whereas epistemology concerns what the acceptable knowledge in a discipline is (Bryman, Bell, Hirschsohn, Dos Santos, du Toit, Masenge, Van Aardt and Wagner, 2017). Ontology encompasses two aspects, namely objectivism and constructionism, whereas epistemology assumes three perspectives, that is, positivism, realism, and interpretivism (Saunders et al., 2012; Bryman et al., 2017).

This study was anchored on a philosophy that is consistent with empirical positivism (Straub, Boudreau and Gefen, 2004), an epistemological approach that is objective and allows the researcher to empirically test theories and theoretical concepts (Urbach and Ahlemann, 2010; Bhattacharjee, 2012). The motivation for positivism in this study is that it allows for (1) the use of existing theory (or theories) to formulate hypotheses and (2) theorized relationships between related concepts to be hypothesized and empirically tested (Saunders et al., 2012). In doing so, objective reality is approximated using empirical data that can be precisely quantified (Orlikowski and Baroudi, 1991). As such, the testing of hypotheses leads to the confirmation of theory (Saunders et al., 2012; Bryman et al., 2017). Furthermore, research informed by empirical positivism is conducted in an objective manner, as the researcher is not influenced, and does not have any influence on research subjects (Saunders et al., 2012).

The study's purpose was to examine the proposed relationships between the High-Performance Work Practices (HPWPs) and its manifest indicators training, empowerment, rewards, job security, and career opportunities, the mediation of work engagement, and consequent job outcomes, namely creative performance, extra-role customer service, and turnover intention, by drawing on existing underpinning theories, that is, Social Exchange Theory (SET) and the Motivation Process of the Job Demands-Resources Model (JD-R). Therefore, the epistemological perspective of positivism is deemed suitable for the study. Moreover, the influence of positivism in the study allows for the adoption of structured methodology to not only facilitate replication but allow for quantifiable observations for statistical data analysis (Saunders et al., 2012).

3.2.2 Approach

A hypothetico-deductive approach (Kaplan and Duchon, 1988) was used to empirically test the study's hypothesized inter-variable relationships (Bhattacharjee, 2012). This approach is used to conduct research by testing theoretical hypotheses using empirical data (Bhattacharjee, 2012). Its use in conducting research draws from theory and practice, as the researcher infers hypotheses from what is known in practice and theory. In turn, these hypotheses are empirically tested (Bryman et al., 2017).

A hypothetico-deductive approach was employed in the study as it enabled the researcher (1) explain relationships between variables through the use of hypotheses to empirically test relationships between variables, (2) collect quantitative data for statistical analysis, (3) identify controls to allow for the empirical testing of hypotheses, (4) operationalize variables in a form that enables observations to be quantified, (5) generalize findings statistically through the use of samples of a sufficient numerical size, and (6) use highly structured methods to facilitate replication of study findings. Moreover, a hypothetico-deductive approach dictated that the researcher be independent of phenomena under observation (Saunders et al., 2012).

Bryman et al. (2017) recommend the process of deduction as indicated in Figure 3.2. Consistent with Bryman and Bell's recommendation, this study identified theories of interest that are used to underpin the development of a conceptual model to address an identified research problem. This was followed by formulating specific hypotheses that were to be empirically tested, after which data were collected on variables used to examine the phenomenon in question. Based on the data obtained for the study, statistical research findings were presented. The formulated study hypotheses were either confirmed or rejected, thus leading to a theoretical contribution being made in the form of theory extension, revision, or confirmation.

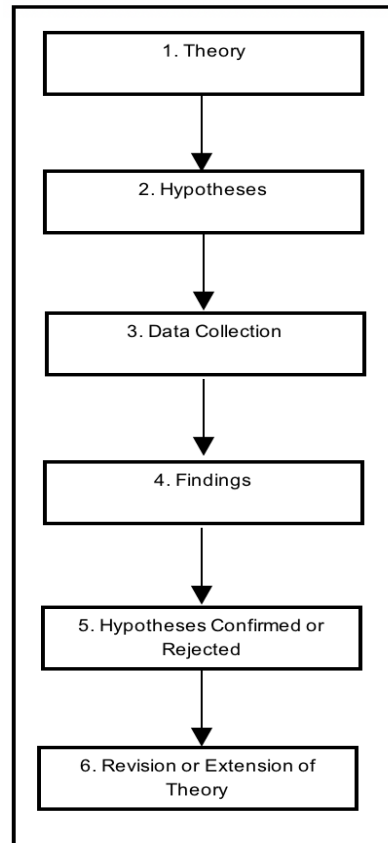


Figure 3.2. The Hypothetico-Deductive Approach (Bryman et al., 2017)

Unlike the inductive approach which is used for building of theory, a hypothetico-deductive approach was deemed suitable and was adopted for the study as it is focused on the extension or confirmation of existing theory that has been subjected to rigorous empirical testing (Saunders et al., 2012). Moreover, using this approach, the researcher was able to deduce hypotheses from theory, express these hypotheses in operational terms, and test these hypotheses using empirical data and statistical procedures to support the application of theory (Saunders et al., 2012; Bryman et al., 2017).

3.3 Research Strategy and Design

3.3.1 Research Strategy

The strategy adopted for the research study was quantitative (Creswell, 2009; Bhattacharjee, 2012; Bryman et al., 2017), for which a cross-sectional survey design was employed (Saunders et al., 2012). The quantitative strategy is predominantly used in studies informed by the epistemological perspective of positivism (Bhattacharjee, 2012), which constitutes the statistical, mathematical, or numerical, analysis of research data collected in the field (Babbie, 2010). This research strategy allows the researcher to use empirical data and statistical

procedures to test a theory that constitutes measurable variables, to ascertain whether the theory explains or predicts the phenomenon of interest (Yilmaz, 2013). Moreover, the quantitative method enables the researcher elicit numerical data from sampled respondents in a survey and generalize it to a target population to make inferences from the data about the characteristics or behaviour of the population (Creswell, 2009). Furthermore, this research strategy permits for systematic data collection, the deductive testing of theory, the effective mitigation against researcher's bias, and the replication of empirical findings (Creswell, 2009).

The quantitative strategy employed for the study is typically associated with the hypothetico-deductive approach (Saunders et al., 2012), and has been considered non-experimental, as independent variables are measured autonomously, and their effects empirically tested using statistical procedures (Bhattacharjee, 2012). The use of a quantitative strategy for the study was informed by a number of reasons. First, a quantitative strategy is useful in supporting the proposition of hypothesized inter-relationships between variables under observation, and producing models through which such relationships are empirically tested (Saunders et al., 2012). Second, conducting a quantitative field survey provides for the efficient use of limited time and resources for both the researcher and respondents. Third, a quantitative strategy affords respondents the opportunity to provide candid responses to questionnaire statements on variables of interest in the study, with their anonymity guaranteed by the researcher.

With the use of a quantitative strategy, a structured questionnaire was developed to elicit numerical data on conceptual model variables of interest from target sample respondents (Bryman et al., 2017). This was to enable the collection and quantitative statistical analysis of empirical data using descriptive, inferential statistical techniques (Saunders et al., 2012).

3.3.2 Research Design

To empirically test the structural relationships as hypothesized by the study's conceptual model (see Figure 2.4 in Chapter 2), an appropriate research designed was required. A research design is the blueprint for empirical studies used to address or test specified hypotheses (Bhattacharjee, 2012). As described by Saunders et al. (2012), it is the overall plan a researcher adopts to answer formulated research questions. In selecting a research design, the researcher must be aware that the research problem determines the type of design to be adopted for a study.

To empirically validate the conceptual model of the study, a cross-sectional research design involving a field survey was adopted. This design allows the researcher to obtain empirical data on independent and dependent variables at a single point in time (Bhattacharjee, 2012; Saunders et al., 2012; Bryman et al., 2017). Additionally, this design allows the researcher to explain how variables are related to each other (Saunders et al., 2012).

Moreover, explanatory and predictive research (Bhattacharjee, 2012; Saunders et al., 2012), which is a type of scientific research (Bhattacharjee, 2012), was employed for the current study. Specifically, explanatory research is focused on studying a phenomenon or problem with the sole purpose of explaining the inter-relationships among several variables (Babbie, 2010; Saunders et al., 2012). This allows the researcher to recognize determinant factors and consequences of a target phenomenon (Bhattacharjee, 2012).

The primary motivation for the selection of this type of scientific research for the study is that it allows for the empirical testing of hypothesized relationships between theorized concepts. Furthermore, explanatory research is employed to understand and explain the proposed hypothesized relationships and their underlying causative mechanisms (Bhattacharjee, 2012). Accordingly, empirical data were elicited from a pooled sample of respondents and generalized to a target population to infer certain characteristics or behaviours therein (Creswell, 2009). In using explanatory research, the cross-sectional survey design adopted for the study also allowed for systematic data collection in the field, empirical testing of proposed hypotheses, and the possible replication of the study's empirical findings (Creswell, 2009).

3.4 Delineation of Study

3.4.1 Study Setting

The context of the current study was Kenya, a country located in the Eastern region of Africa. The study was limited to two counties in Kenya, namely Nairobi and Mombasa, for two reasons.

First, Nairobi, the capital city of Kenya and a business and economic hub in East and Central Africa (IDC, 2012), comprises a number of star-rated international hotels for global business travel. Second, Mombasa, the second largest city after Nairobi, has a reputation as the main tourist hub and destination in Kenya, consisting of a number of star-rated hotels and resorts (IDC, 2012). At the time of the present study, the counties of Nairobi and Mombasa comprised 50 star-rated hotels and resorts (ranging from one-star to five-star ratings) in total, 37 in

Nairobi county, and 13 in Mombasa county (Tourism Regulatory Authority, 2016; Kenya Gazette, 2017).

The data collected in the counties of Nairobi and Mombasa were focused exclusively on rated four-star and five-star hotels for two reasons. First, hotels within these star-rated categories are more likely to operate in international markets, with global work demands pegged to international service levels and global best practices. Second, these star-rated hotels require a wide variety of Human Resource (HR) skills ranging from the technical and technological to the emotional, for effective customer service delivery (Baum and Devine, 2007).

The county of Nairobi comprised 12 recognized five-star rated hotels and 11 recognized four-star rated hotels, whereas the county of Mombasa consisted of only 5 recognized four-star rated hotels, with no recognized five-star rated hotel (Tourism Regulatory Authority, 2016; Kenya Gazette, 2017).

3.4.2 Unit of Analysis

A unit of analysis refers to the target of an investigation, and can either be an individual, a group of people, and organizations or countries, among others (Bhattacharjee, 2012). An understanding of the unit of analysis enables the researcher to identify what type of data to collect and from whom (Bhattacharjee, 2012).

For the current study, the unit of analysis constituted frontline service employees working in four-star and five-star hotels. Consonant with prior empirical studies (e.g. Karatepe and Kilic, 2009; Yang, 2010; Karatepe, 2013a; Karatepe, 2013b, Karatepe and Olugbade, 2016), these frontline employees were full-time, and included front desk staff, food and beverage service staff (waiters, waitresses, hostesses, and bar attendants), bell attendants (porters), door attendants, guest relations representatives, spa attendants, housekeeping staff, concierge staff, and hotel and conference sales representatives.

Frontline employees who were line employees as well as supervisors were sampled in the study. Back-office personnel and managers were excluded from the study. Further, only those targeted frontline employees representative of the millennial generational cohort (born between the years 1980 and 2000), were sampled.

3.5 Population of Study

Daniel (2012, p.9) refers to a population as “a set of elements to which the researcher intends to apply the findings of a study”. The author further emphasized that defining a population, requires the identification of inclusive and exclusive elements of the target population.

For this study, the population, from which a sampling frame was drawn comprised 3,864 frontline employees in Kenya, working in a total of 38 four-star and five-star rated hotels in Kenya. Frontline employees from other star-rated hotels in other counties in Kenya were excluded from the study. The population sample of 3,864 frontline employees, was obtained by the researcher from the Human Resources managers and officers in the respective four-star and five-star rated hotel establishments in conjunction with the management of the Kenya Association of Hotel Keepers and Caterers (KAHC), through email correspondence. The Human Resources officers did not disclose the names of the frontline employees, but provided the total number of frontline employees working in their establishments.

Furthermore, the study stipulates the individual-level as the unit of analysis. This is because the purpose of the study is to predict and explain the impact of individual perceptions of the manifest indicators training, empowerment, rewards, job security, and career opportunities as available High-Performance Work Practices (HPWPs), on job outcomes, namely creative performance, extra-role customer service, and turnover intention, through work engagement which is positioned as a potential intervening mechanism.

3.6 Sampling

Sampling refers to the process of selection of a segment of individuals or entities belonging to a population to observe and make statistical inferences about the target population (Bhattacharjee, 2012). According to Bhattacharjee (2012), sampling allows a researcher to select a section of the population (sample) that is representative of the population to observe and analyse, as it would be unfeasible for the researcher to study the population as a whole. Thus, it is paramount for the researcher to select a study sample that is truly representative of the study target population in order to facilitate the generalization of derived inferences (Bhattacharjee, 2012). Therefore, the sampling process adopted for the study is discussed next.

3.7 Sampling Design

The sampling design employed for the present study is detailed in Figure 3.3. First, the sample size for the study is discussed in Section 3.7.1 and second, the sampling technique used to draw a pooled sample for the study is described in Section 3.7.2.

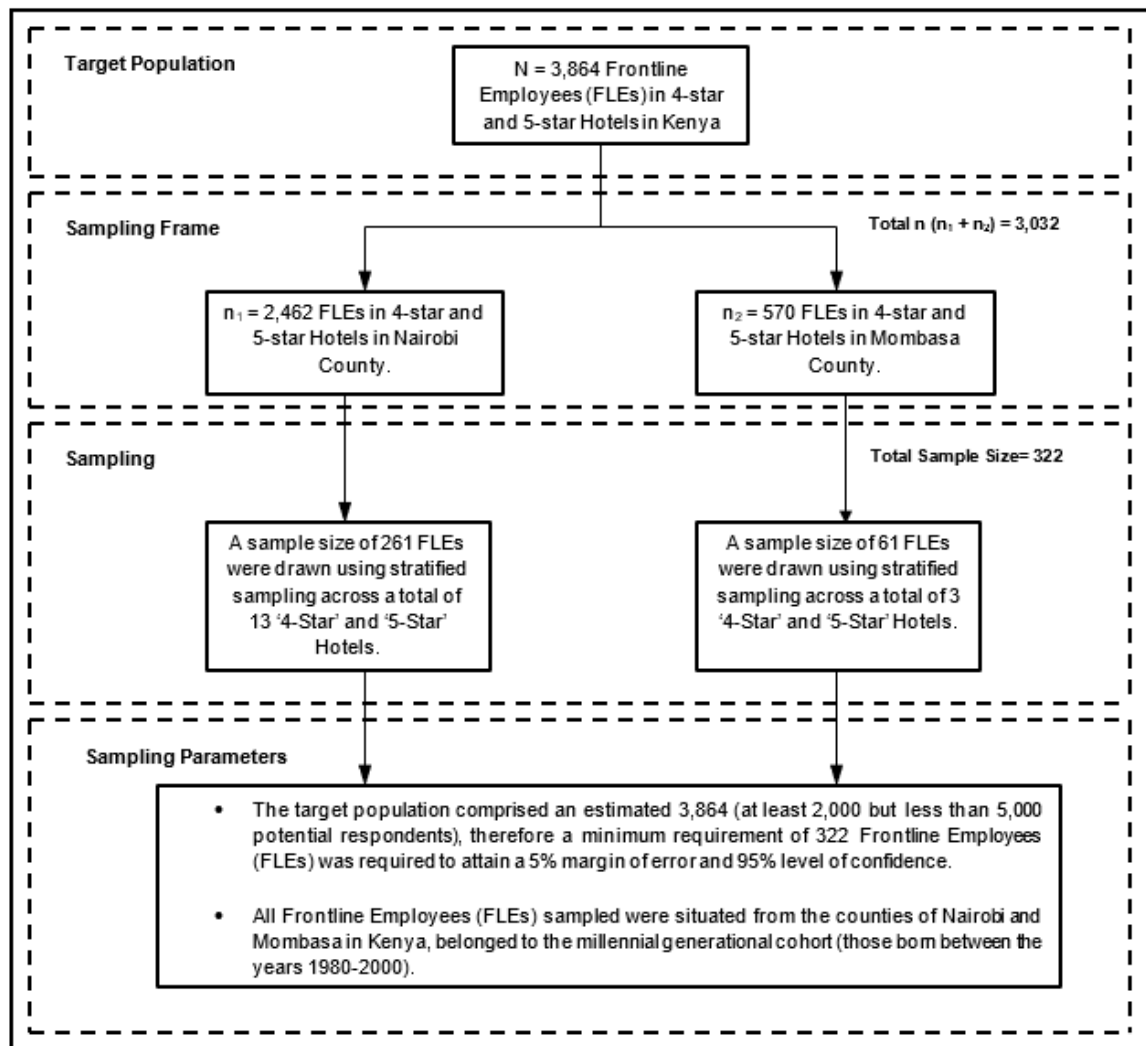


Figure 3.3. Sampling Design

3.7.1 Sample Size

The targeted sample of the study comprised 322 millennial frontline employees across four-star and five-star hotels in the counties of Nairobi and Mombasa in Kenya. In estimating a suitable sample size for the study, Saunders et al.'s (2012) prescribed guidelines were employed. Saunders et al. (2012) postulated that for a researcher to attain a 5% margin of error and satisfy a 95% level of confidence, a target population comprising at least 2,000 respondents but less than 5,000 respondents would require a minimum threshold of 322 sampled respondents.

Therefore, in line with the prescribed guidelines and an estimated target population of 3,864 frontline employees across four-star and five-star Nairobi and Mombasa hotels in Kenya, the researcher anticipated that a minimum threshold of 322 frontline employees from the millennial generational cohort, across four-star and five-star Nairobi and Mombasa hotels would be required. However, a larger sample size of 435 millennial frontline employees, well exceeding the minimum threshold, was obtained for the study to mitigate against errors associated with the generalization of findings to the target population (Saunders et al., 2012).

3.7.2 Sampling Technique

To devise a sample size from the sampling frame (n) for the study, a two-phase sampling method was adopted.

First, four-star and five-star hotels from the counties of Nairobi and Mombasa in Kenya, were randomly selected for inclusion in the study. Specifically, a list of four-star and five-star hotels was obtained from the Kenya Association of Hotel Keepers and Caterers (KAHC), in conjunction with published lists of star-rated hotels provided by Kenya's Tourism Regulatory Authority (TRA) and Kenya Gazette notifications. In total, it was found that there are 38 four-star and five-star hotels in Kenya. However, 16 hotels comprising four-star and five-star hotels were randomly selected from across the two counties of Nairobi and Mombasa, from the TRA's published list of star-rated hotels in Kenya.

Second, stratification with simple random sampling was applied in selecting the study participants from the four-star and five-star hotels selected from the two counties. Stratification involves the separation of the target population into homogenous, mutually exclusive segments (strata), from which a simple random sample is derived (Daniel, 2012). According to Daniel (2012) the strata must not overlap, and together, should comprise the entire sample population.

Thus, the study's target population was first divided into four-star and five-star hotels comprising frontline employees across the counties of Nairobi and Mombasa, and second, samples of frontline employees of the millennial generational cohort were randomly drawn from each four-star and five-star hotel across these two counties, and combined to form a single sample.

An estimated total (n) of 3,032 frontline service employees work in four-star and five-star hotels across the Nairobi and Mombasa counties. Those employed to work in four-star and

five-star hotels in Nairobi County ($n_1 = 2,462$), represented a proportion of (81%) of the sum total of frontline service employees working across the counties of Nairobi and Mombasa, whereas those who work in four-star and five-star hotels in Mombasa County ($n_2 = 570$), represented a proportion of (19%). These proportions constituted the sampling frame for the study ($n_1 + n_2 = 3,032$), from which samples were drawn.

In Nairobi County, 6 four-star and 7 five-star hotels were randomly selected, whereas in Mombasa County, only 3 four-star hotels were randomly selected. Of note, five-star hotels from Mombasa county were not selected as there were no five-star hotels in the county as per the published list by TRA and Kenya Gazette notifications. A proportional number of millennial frontline employees was then drawn using simple random sampling, thereby ensuring that each member of the study's targeted population had an equal probability of selection (Daniel, 2012). Specifically, a sample size of 261 millennial frontline employees was drawn from across four-star and five-star hotels in Nairobi County, whereas a sample of 61 millennial frontline employees was drawn from across four-star hotels in Mombasa County. Overall, a combined pooled sample of 322 millennial frontline employees was targeted from a total of 16 identified and selected four-star and five-star hotels across the counties of Nairobi and Mombasa.

In accordance with the proportional number of frontline employees constituting the sampling frame with respect to Nairobi County ($n_1 = 2,462$, 81%), the sample size of 261 millennial frontline employees also represented a proportion of (81%) of frontline employees sampled across the counties of Nairobi and Mombasa. Similarly, in accordance with the proportional number of frontline employees constituting the sampling frame with respect to Mombasa County ($n_2 = 570$, 19%), the sample size of 61 millennial frontline employees similarly represented a proportion of (19%).

3.8 Data Collection

3.8.1 Measurement Instrument Development

A questionnaire instrument was developed for the study survey. The utilization of a questionnaire in obtaining data regarding a particular phenomenon from respondents is primarily used in descriptive and explanatory studies (Saunders et al., 2012). Questionnaire development involves the process of designing an instrument (research questionnaire) constituting a set of formulated question items that aim to elicit responses in a systematized

manner from respondents (Bhattacharjee, 2012). For a researcher to obtain useable responses, question items must be defined in a clear and concise manner (Saunders et al., 2012). Question items that are ambiguous and inadequately phrased result in responses that are less accurate and of minimal value (Bhattacharjee, 2012).

The survey instrument (questionnaire) developed for the study was divided into four sections with a total of sixty-five questions. Question items on demographic information and related constructs were formulated in a manner that was clear and easy for respondents to understand. Structured questions (close-ended questions), whereby the respondents select their responses from prescribed choices, were used to obtain data. Based on the length of the questionnaire, the duration of time taken to complete the questionnaire was estimated between 20-25 minutes per respondent. Additionally, the questionnaire survey instrument used did not need translation as English is Kenya's official national language.

3.8.2 Pilot Testing the Measurement Instrument

The questionnaire was first subjected to a pre-testing phase. Pre-testing of the survey instrument was done to ensure that content validity was established. This is the extent to which the instrument scale items correspond to the constructs intended to be measured (Bhattacharjee, 2012).

The survey instrument (questionnaire) was first pre-tested by four academics comprising expert researchers. Second, the instrument was also pre-tested by four practitioners, consisting of a guest reservation manager, a human resource manager, a member executive representative, and a human resource consultant. The comments received from these pre-testers were used for further refinement of the questionnaire. Results of the pre-test affirmed that there was consensus among the academics and practitioners that most questionnaire instrument items were well phrased, relevant, and easy to comprehend. Of the few questionnaire instrument items that required amendment, it was recommended that corresponding questions be re-phrased, and that less ambiguous words be used without altering the meaning of each item statement.

Further, the pre-testers recommended that additional questions be included to obtain supplementary demographic data on respondent millennial frontline employees. These indicators included family size (number of children), number of years worked in the hospitality industry, positions held within the organization (as a line employee or supervisor), and type of employment (whether part-time or full-time).

Consistent with existing empirical research (Karatepe and Olugbade, 2009; Karatepe et al., 2014a, 2014b), the questionnaire was also tested by conducting a pilot study of thirty millennial frontline service employees. They consisted of full-time millennial frontline employees including food and beverage service staff (waiters, waitresses, hostesses, and bar attendants), front (desk) office staff, housekeeping and guest representatives, from one four-star and five-star hotels in Nairobi county. The aim of the pilot study was to ensure that the face validity of the survey instrument was established. Face validity refers to whether question items are indeed an adequate measure of the underlying construct at face value (Bhattacharjee, 2012).

The amendments made on questionnaire survey instrument items are summarized in Table 3.1. Of note, these revisions were effected without changing the meaning of item statements.

Table 3.1. Amendments to Questionnaire Survey Instrument

Testing Phase	Construct	Variable (Item)	Literature Source	Item Statement	Amended Item Statement
Pre-Testing	High-Performance Work Practices (HPWPs)	Training (Item 5)	Boshoff and Allen (2000)	5. I receive training on dealing with customer problems.	5. I received training on how to deal with customer problems.
		Training (Item 6)	Boshoff and Allen (2000)	6. I was trained to deal with customer complaints.	6. I received training on how to deal with customer complaints.
		Empowerment (Item 8)	Hayes (1994)	8. I do not need to get management's approval before I handle problem	8. I do not need management's approval before I handle customer problems.
		Empowerment (Item 10)	Hayes (1994)	10. I have a lot of control over how I do my job.	10. I can exercise control over how I solve customer problems.
	Work Engagement	Vigour (Item 27)	Schaufeli et al. (2002)	27. At my work I always preserver, even when things do not go well.	27. At my work I never give up, even when things do not go well.
	Job Outcomes	Turnover Intention (Item 53)	Boshoff and Allen (2000)	53. I often think about resigning.	53. I often think of quitting my job.
		Turnover Intention (Item 54)	Boshoff and Allen (2000)	54. It would not take much to make me resign from the organization	54. It would not take much to convince me to leave this hotel
Pilot-Testing	Work Engagement	Absorption (Item 39)	Schaufeli et al. (2002)	39. I am immersed in my work.	39. I am deeply involved in my work.

3.8.3 Description of the Adapted Measurement Instruments

To operationalize the conceptual model constructs for the study, pre-validated and well-established single and multiple item scale measures adapted from previous empirical studies in the extant literature, were used. The adapted constructs from existing literature are summarized in Table 3.2.

Table 3.2. Adapted Constructs for the Study					
Construct	Type	Variable (Dimension)	Definition	Number of Scale Items	Literature Source
High-Performance Work Practices (HPWPs)	Predictor	Training	An employees' perception of training as a HPWPs.	6	Boshoff and Allen (2000)
		Empowerment	An employees' perception of empowerment as a HPWPs.	5	Hayes (1994)
		Rewards	Employees perception of rewards as a HPWPs.	5	Boshoff and Allen (2000)
		Job Security	An employees' perception of job security as a HPWPs.	4	Delery and Doty (1996)
		Career Opportunities	An employees' perception of career opportunity as a HPWPs.	4	
Work Engagement	Mediator	Vigour	An employees' perception of their level of vigour in performing their duties.	6	Schaufeli et al. (2002)
		Dedication	An employees' perception of their level of dedication in performing their duties.	5	
		Absorption	An employees' perception of their level of absorption in performing their duties.	6	
Job Outcomes	Criterion	Creative Performance	An employees' ability to deliver services in an innovative and resourceful manner.	6	Wang and Netemeyer (2004)
		Extra-Role Customer Service	An employees' willingness to go above and beyond their pre-scribed roles.	5	Bettencourt and Brown (1997)
		Turnover Intention	An employees' intention to leave the organization.	3	Boshoff and Allen (2000)

First, High Performance Work Practices (HPWPs) indicators as manifested by training, empowerment, rewards, job security, and career opportunities, were operationalized for the study. Specifically, training and rewards were measured using six-item and five-item scales adapted from Boshoff and Allen (2000), respectively. The measures for these variables were assessed on a Likert scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). Boshoff and Allen (2000) reported Cronbach's Alpha (α) coefficient scores of 0.87 and 0.83 for training and rewards, respectively. Sample questionnaire items are 'I receive continuous training to provide good services', and 'The rewards I receive are based on customer evaluations of service', for training and rewards, respectively.

A five-item scale adapted from Hayes (1994) was used to measure empowerment. Hayes (1994) reported a Cronbach's Alpha (α) coefficient score of 0.85. The measure for this variable was also assessed on a Likert scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). The respondents were asked to indicate the extent to which they were in agreement with statements such as 'I am empowered to solve customer problems'. Job security and career opportunities were measured using a four-item scale adapted from Delery and Doty (1996). The measures for these variables were assessed on a Likert scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). Delery and Doty (1996) reported Cronbach's Alpha (α)

coefficient scores of 0.66 and 0.64 for job security and career opportunities, respectively. Generally, Cronbach's Alpha (α) coefficient scores of 0.600 to 0.700 are acceptable in exploratory research (Straub et al., 2004; Hair et al., 2018a). However, these values must never fall below the 0.600 threshold (Cronbach, 1951; Nunally and Bernstein, 1994; Urbach and Ahlemann, 2010). Moreover, four-item scales adapted from Delery and Doty (1996) for the variables job security and career opportunities have widely been used in the existing literature (Karatepe et al., 2014a; Karatepe and Vatankhah, 2014a, 2015; Karatepe and Olugbade, 2016). Sample questionnaire items are 'Job security is almost guaranteed to frontline employees in this organization' and 'Frontline employees have very little future within this organization', for job security and career opportunities, respectively.

The instrument scale items used to measure High-Performance Work Practices (HPWPs) variable dimensions are presented in Table 3.3.

Table 3.3. Measures of High-Performance Work Practices (HPWPs)			
Variable	Scale Item	Statement	Literature Source
Training	TR 1	I receive continuous training to provide good services.	Boshoff and Allen (2000), Karatepe (2013b)
	TR 2	I received extensive service training before I came into contact with customers.	
	TR 3	I receive training on how to better serve customers.	
	TR 4	I receive training on how to deal with complaining customers.	
	TR 5	I received training on how to deal with customer problems.	
	TR 6	I received training on how to deal with customer complaints.	
Empowerment	EW 1	I am encouraged to handle customer problems by myself.	Boshoff and Allen (2000), Karatepe (2013b)
	EW 2	I do not need management's approval before I handle customer problems.	
	EW 3	I am allowed to do almost anything to solve customers' problems.	
	EW 4	I exercise control over how I solve customer problems.	
	EW 5	I am empowered to solve customer problems.	
Rewards	RW 1	If I improve the level of service I offer customers, I will be rewarded.	Boshoff and Allen (2000)
	RW 2	The rewards I receive are based on customer evaluations of service.	
	RW 3	I am rewarded for serving customers well.	
	RW 4	I am rewarded for dealing effectively with customer problems.	
	RW 5	I am rewarded for satisfying complaining customers.	
Job Security	JS 1	Frontline employee can expect to stay in the organizations for as long as they wish.	Delery and Doty (1996)
	JS 2	It is very difficult to dismiss a frontline employee in this organization.	
	JS 3	Job security is almost guaranteed to frontline employees in this organization.	
	JS 4	If this company were facing economic problems, frontline employees in this organization would be the last to get cut.	
Career Opportunities	CO 1	As a frontline employee I have clear career paths within the organization.	Delery and Doty (1996)

	CO 2	Frontline employees have very little future within this organization.	
	CO 3	My career aspirations as a frontline employee within this organization are known by their immediate supervisors.	
	CO 4	Frontline employees who desire promotion have more than one potential position they could be promoted to.	

Second, and consistent with prior empirical studies (Karatepe et al., 2010) work engagement was measured using the seventeen-item Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (UWES) (Schaufeli et al., 2002, Schaufeli et al., 2006), composed of three construct dimensions, namely vigour, dedication, and absorption. Specifically, vigour and absorption were measured using six-item scales. Dedication was measured using a five-item scale (Schaufeli et al., 2006). Schaufeli et al. (2006) reported Cronbach's Alpha (α) coefficient reliability scores of 0.79, 0.89, and 0.72, for vigour, dedication, and absorption, respectively. Responses to scale-items used to measure these three dimensions of work engagement were elicited using a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). Sample questionnaire items are, 'At work, I am full of energy', 'My job inspires me', and 'Time flies when I am working', for vigour, dedication, and absorption, respectively.

The instrument scale items used to measure work engagement variable dimensions are presented in Table 3.4.

Table 3.4. Measures of Work Engagement			
Variable	Scale Item	Statement	Literature Source
Vigour	VI 1	When I get up in the morning, I feel like going to work.	Schaufeli et al. (2006)
	VI 2	At my work, I feel bursting with energy.	
	VI 3	At my work I never give up, even when things do not go well.	
	VI 4	I can continue working for very long periods at a time.	
	VI 5	At my job, I am very resilient, mentally.	
	VI 6	At my job, I feel strong and vigorous.	
Dedication	DE 1	I find the work that I do full of meaning and purpose.	
	DE 2	I am enthusiastic about my job.	
	DE 3	My job inspires me.	
	DE 4	I am proud of the work that I do.	
	DE 5	To me, my job is challenging.	
Absorption	AB 1	I feel happy when I am working intensely.	
	AB 2	I am immersed in my work.	
	AB 3	I get carried away when I am working.	
	AB 4	It is difficult to detach myself from my job.	
	AB 5	I feel happy when I am working intensely.	
	AB 6	I am deeply involved in my work.	

Third, the job outcomes constructs creative performance, extra-role customer service, and turnover intention were also operationalized for the study. Specifically, creative performance was measured using a six-item scale adapted from Wang and Netemeyer (2004). Creative performance was reported to have a Cronbach's Alpha (α) coefficient score of 0.86 (Wang

and Netemeyer, 2004). Responses to scale-items used to measure the job outcome creative performance were elicited using a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 5 (almost always) to 1 (never) (Karatepe and Olugbade, 2016). A sample item for creative performance is ‘I generate creative ideas for service delivery’. Extra-role customer service, reported to have a Cronbach’s Alpha (α) coefficient score of 0.97, was measured using a five-item scale adapted from Bettencourt and Brown (1997), and turnover intention, reported to have a Cronbach’s Alpha (α) coefficient score of 0.82, was measured using a three-item scale adapted from Boshoff and Allen (2000). Responses to scale-items used to measure the job outcomes dimensions extra-role customer service and turnover intention, were elicited using a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree) (Bettencourt and Brown, 1997; Boshoff and Allen, 2000). Sample questionnaire items for extra-role customer service and turnover intention are ‘I frequently go out of my way to help customers’ and ‘I often think of quitting my job’, respectively.

The instrument scale items used to measure job outcomes variable dimensions are presented in Table 3.5.

Table 3.5. Measures of Job Outcomes			
Variable	Scale Item	Statement	Literature Source
Creative Performance	CP 1	I carry out my routine tasks in ways that are resourceful.	Wang and Netemeyer (2004)
	CP 2	I come up with new ideas for satisfying customer needs.	
	CP 3	I generate and evaluate multiple alternatives for novel customer problems.	
	CP 4	I have fresh perspectives on old problems.	
	CP 5	I improvise methods for solving a problem when an answer is not apparent.	
	CP 6	I generate creative ideas for service delivery.	
Extra Role Customer Service	ERC 1	I voluntarily assist customers even if it means going beyond job requirements.	Bettencourt and Brown (1997)
	ERC 2	I help customers with problems beyond what is expected or required.	
	ERC 3	I often go above and beyond the call of duty when serving customers.	
	ERC 4	I willingly go out of my way to make a customer satisfied.	
	ERC 5	I frequently go out the way to help a customer.	
Turnover Intention	TI 1	I often think of quitting my job.	Boshoff and Allen, (2000)
	TI 2	It would not take much to convince me to leave this hotel.	
	TI 3	I will probably be looking for another job soon.	

In a manner consistent with prior empirical studies (Karatepe et al., 2010; Karatepe and Olugbade, 2016) on work engagement and related concepts, the survey instrument for the study was also employed to elicit data on the respondent demographic variables gender, age, marital status, education level, and organizational tenure. These five measures were retained in the study as control variables to test for their potential confounding effects (Antonakis, Bendahan, Jacquart and Lalive, 2010). In addition, the instrument was used to elicit

supplementary data on the respondent demographic variables number of children, number of years worked in the hospitality industry, employment type (full-time or part-time), and job category (department).

3.8.4 Survey Instrument Administration

Data for the study were elicited from millennial frontline employees using a self-reported structured questionnaire survey instrument. The use of a self-administered instrument enabled the researcher to elicit data from respondents on target variables for subsequent statistical analysis (Bhattacharjee, 2012).

The questionnaire comprised a cover letter (participant information sheet) and sixty-five questions categorized into four sections, Section A (Biographical Information), Section B (High-Performance Work Practices (HPWPs)), Section C (Work Engagement), and Section D (Job Outcomes - Creative Performance, Extra-Role Customer Service, and Turnover Intention). The researcher enlisted the assistance of a field research adviser in the data collection process from the pre-testing and pilot-study phases, to instrument refinement and main data collection.

First, prior to administering the questionnaire survey instrument to target respondents, the researcher obtained a list of star-rated hotels in Kenya from the Tourism Regulatory Authority (TRA) and Kenya Gazette notifications to identify the number of four-star and five-star hotels in the country. As per information published by the TRA and Kenya Gazette notifications, there were a total of 38 four-star and five-star hotels across Kenya. From the list obtained, the researcher established that there were twelve five-star hotels and eleven four-star hotels in Nairobi county, and five four-star hotels in Mombasa county. However, at the time of the study, there were no five-star hotels in Mombasa county.

Second, the researcher contacted the Kenyan Association of Hotel Keepers and Caterers (KAHC), whose members comprised four-star and five-star hotels in Kenya using a cover letter indicating the study's purpose, through which permission was sought for collecting data from millennial frontline employees in four-star and five-star hotels, who were listed members of KAHC.

Third, the researcher contacted the Human Resource and Training managers of twenty-four hotels across the counties of Nairobi and Mombasa, using a letter transmitted via electronic correspondence. Specifically, the researcher contacted ten four-star and eleven five-star hotels

in Nairobi county, and three four-star hotels in Mombasa County. Further, the researcher secured permission to collect data from a total of eighteen hotels i.e. eight five-star and seven four-star hotels from Nairobi county, and three four-star hotels from Mombasa county. Specifically, for the pilot-phase of the study, data from millennial frontline employees were collected from two hotels in Nairobi county (1 five-star and 1 four-star hotel), after which data were collected from the remaining sixteen hotels across the counties of Nairobi and Mombasa for the main data collection phase.

Although the Human Resource and Training managers affiliated with all the selected hotels agreed to participate in the study, only four permitted the researcher to directly administer the survey instrument to target respondents. As such, the management of the remaining twelve hotels did not permit the researcher to contact the millennial frontline employees directly. Accordingly, hard copies of the survey instrument ensuring the anonymity and confidentiality of respondents were distributed to the participating millennial frontline employees by their Human Resource and Training managers.

The cover page of the survey instrument contained a letter (participant information sheet) briefly describing the objective of the study, explaining why millennial frontline employees were targeted as respondents for the study, and emphasizing their voluntary participation in the study. Selection bias in this study was minimized as the researcher directed the Human Resource and Training managers to distribute the self-administered survey instrument across a wide range of millennial frontline employees (that is, aged between 18 and 38 years) including food and beverage service staff (waiters, waitresses, hostesses, and bar attendants), front (desk) office staff, housekeeping staff, guest relations staff, bell attendants, and spa attendants. Of note, completed questionnaires were retrieved by the Human Resource and Training managers and collected by the researcher within a span of two weeks after survey instrument administration.

A total of 485 questionnaires were distributed to respondent millennial frontline employees, as shown in Table 3.6.

County	Hotel Number	Star-Rating	Distributed Questionnaires	Collected Questionnaires
Nairobi	1	Five-Star	31	31
	2	Five-Star	31	30
	3	Five-Star	31	20
	4	Five-Star	35	34
	5	Five-Star	31	30
	6	Five-Star	20	20
	7	Five-Star	31	27

	8	Four-Star	30	29
	9	Four-Star	31	21
	10	Four-Star	31	23
	11	Four-Star	31	26
	12	Four-Star	31	30
	13	Four-Star	31	27
Mombasa	14	Four-Star	30	30
	15	Four-Star	30	30
	16	Four-Star	30	27
Total	16	7 Five-Star, 9 Four-Star	485	435

Note: Hotel names are not mentioned in the thesis as management in the participating hotels requested their identities remain anonymous.

3.8.5 Study Sites

A background description of the sites surveyed for the study and from which data were collected is presented in Table 3.7.

Table 3.7. Description (Profile) of Data Collection Sites			
Site (County)	Hotel Classification (Star-Rating)	Number of Hotels	Site Description (Profile)
Nairobi	Five-Star	7	- Nairobi County is among the 47 counties in Kenya, in which Nairobi is the capital city of Kenya. The county has an approximate population of 3.6 million people (Ministry of Health, 2015). The county has seventeen primary constituencies (Infotrak, 2015) from which four-star and five-star hotels were selected for the study. - Nairobi County is the business and economic hub of East Africa and a prime tourism conference destination in East and Central Africa (IDC, 2012). Nairobi County has a National Park which is approximately 113 square km, as well as museums, parks, and historical sites (Magical Kenya, 2019). - Nairobi County is home to one of the two prominent internationally recognized airports in Kenya, the Jomo Kenyatta International Airport (JKIA), and plays host to 12 five-star and 11 four-star hotels (Tourism Regulatory Authority (TRA), 2016).
	Four-Star	6	
Mombasa	Four-Star	3	- Mombasa County is among the 47 counties in Kenya, located along the Coastal Region of the country, in which Mombasa is the largest city after Nairobi city. The county has an approximate population of 1.1 million people (Ministry of Health, 2015). The county has six primary constituencies from which the four-star hotels were selected for the study (Infotrak, 2015). - Mombasa County is among most popular tourist and leisure destination in the coastal region of Kenya (IDC, 2012). This is attributed to its historical tourist attractions such as the famed Fort Jesus, as well as its renowned beautiful sandy beaches along the coastline of the Indian Ocean. - Mombasa County is also home to one of two prominent internationally recognized airports in Kenya, The Moi International Airport (MIA), and plays host to five four-star hotels. At present, the county does not play host to a recognized five-star hotel (Tourism Regulatory Authority (TRA), 2016).

3.9 Validity and Reliability

3.9.1 Content and Face Validity

First, content validity refers to the extent to which instrument scale items and concepts correspond (Vanderstoep and Johnston, 2009). To ensure content validity (Leedy and Ormrod, 2013), survey instrument item measures for the study were adapted from prior validated scales (Borque and Clarke, 1994), from the extant Human Resource Management (HRM) literature.

The survey instrument was administered for pretesting by select expert academics and practitioners. Saunders et al. (2012) postulated that to reinforce the content validity of a survey instrument, expert panellists must be involved to ascertain whether instrument items are essential, useful, or necessary. Four academic experts, consisting of research scientists, were selected based on their (1) expertise in social science research, and (2) extensive experience in the elicitation of empirical data from field research surveys. Thus, their recommendations provided insights on the extent to which study measures were suitable for the study's objectives. Similarly, four expert practitioners were identified on the basis of their (1) extensive experience in the hotel industry, and (2) capacity in determining whether formulated questionnaire statements would be easily understood by millennial frontline employees across the various departments in four-star and five-star hotels.

Second, face validity is the extent to which on the surface, instrument items represent purported measures of their underlying constructs (Bhattacharjee, 2012; Leedy and Ormrod, 2013). To ensure face validity of the survey instrument, a pilot study (Leedy and Ormrod, 2013) involving thirty select millennial frontline hotel employees was conducted in one five-star and one four-star hotel in Nairobi county. Nairobi county was selected for the pilot study due to ease of accessibility and proximity to participants. This was essential for the purpose of cost reduction during the data collection phase. Consistent with Peat, Williams, Xuan and Mellis's (2001) assertion concerning the exclusion of participants of pilot studies from the main study's sample, the thirty millennial frontline employees who participated in the pilot phase of the study were excluded from the main survey of the study.

Responses from the pilot study were useful in ascertaining the reliability of survey instrument measures. Additionally, the responses confirmed that the instructions on the cover letter of the questionnaire survey instrument were easily understood by respondents and that they were also able to interpret and provide answers to question items using survey instrument scale

measures. The pilot study also confirmed the actual response time for data collection fell within the estimated range of 20-25 minutes required to complete the questionnaire.

3.10 Data Analysis Procedure

3.10.1 Data Screening

Data screening is a data examination process that involves the identification and analysis of missing values and detection of potential outliers (Mertler and Reinhart, 2016; Hair, Black, Babin and Anderson, 2018a). Specifically, it allows for the testing of statistical assumptions of normality (Hair et al., 2018a). The purpose of data screening is to ascertain that the data obtained for empirical study, is clean, reliable, and useable for further statistical analyses (Hair et al., 2018a).

Prior to screening for missing values, questionnaire items were examined to identify items that required reverse scoring.

(i) Reverse Scoring

According to Hair et al. (2018a), reverse-scoring is the process of switching the values of a variable while preserving distributional characteristics, to align correlations with other variables within the same factor. In this process, data values for variables are reversed so that their correlations with other variables are aligned i.e. switched from negative to positive, and vice versa (Hair et al., 2014a). The object of reverse-scoring is to counteract a ‘cancelling-out’ between variables with negative and positive loadings on the same factor.

Reverse scoring was first initialized to ensure that all correlations on question items for the present study were uniformly aligned. Identification and evaluation of missing data was then conducted on the data set. This ensured the preservation of the original distribution of values in the data set, ensuring that the presentation of erroneous results does not occur, as this could affect the generalization of findings (Hair, Black, Babin and Anderson, 2014a; Hair et al., 2018a).

(ii) Missing Values

Missing data is defined as the absence of valid values on one or more variables for analysis (Hair et al., 2018a). The occurrence of missing values can arise from the refusal of respondents to answer particular questions in the instrument used to collect data from respondents (Bryman et al., 2017). As such, missing values in the dataset must be examined prior to further analysis

to identify the pattern and relationship of the missing values. This ensures the maintenance of the original distribution of values in a particular dataset, as closely as possible (Hair et al., 2018a).

For the present study, data were screened by observing first, variables with missing values for each case or observation (missing data by variable), and second, cases or observations with missing values for each variable (missing data by case). A guiding principle as per Hair et al. (2018a) is that less than 10% of cases should contain missing data (Malhotra, 1987; Raymonds and Roberts, 1987). Therefore, exclusion of offending cases or variables containing an excessive number of missing values were deleted so as to significantly minimize the extent of missing values in the dataset.

Further, the substitution imputation method was applied to replace missing values with the series mean for each set of predictor (independent) and criteria (dependent) variables, thus ensuring a complete dataset with integrity (Hair et al., 2014a). This method involves the estimation of missing values based on the valid values of other variables and/or cases in the dataset (Raghunathan, 2004; Hair et al., 2018a). The mean substitution imputation method was deemed appropriate for a number of reasons. First, the mean value derived represents the best single replacement value, as it is calculated from valid responses in the existing sample (Hair et al., 2014a; 2018a). Second, for the mean substitution imputation method to be deemed appropriate, less than 10% of the entire data set should contain missing values (Hair et al., 2018a). As per Hair et al.'s (2018a) recommendation, the entire dataset, comprised less than 10% of missing values. Thus, the mean substitution method was appropriate and thereby used to replace missing values. Third, this method provides the researcher with complete information, thereby ensuring that all observations in the dataset are available for use in analysis (Hair et al., 2014a; 2018a).

Of note, cases with missing demographic data were neither screened for missing data nor replaced with any value. Based on the extremely low (negligible) percentage of missing values on the demographic variables (between 0 and 1 %), ignoring the missing data or using a remedy to substitute these values e.g. imputation, is not likely to create a bias in the data ($n = 405$), and considerably affect results (Hair et al., 2014a). Notably, the demographic variables were not hypothesized as predictors or criteria in the study's conceptual model. Typically, for demographic predictors, some form of imputation treatment is necessary (Little, 1992; Pigott,

2001; Little and Rubin, 2002). In this case, imputation of missing values on demographic variables was not applicable.

(iii) Outliers

As described by Hair et al. (2018a), outliers are considered as observations or cases exhibiting a distinct combination of characteristics identified as being uniquely different from other observations in a dataset. Outliers are uncommonly high or low values on a variable or unique combination of values across variables that make the observation or case distinguishable from the others in the dataset (Hair et al., 2014a).

For the present study data were screened for the detection of potential outliers using the univariate method. This method involves the assessment of the distribution of observations for each variable and identifies as outliers only the cases that fall at the outer ranges (high or low) of the distribution (Hair et al., 2018a). Cases that fall at the outer (high or low) ranges of the distribution were identified as potential outliers. As such, cases or observations for each variable were examined and a threshold for designation as an outlier was established. As proffered by Hair et al. (2018a), for a sample size of 80 or more cases or observations, a standardized (z) score threshold of up to ± 4 was utilized to ensure the identification of unusually high or low values on each item in comparison to other cases or observations in the dataset.

(iv) Normality

Normality is an important assumption in multivariate data analysis, as it concerns the shape of the distribution of data for a single individual metric variable and its conformity to the normal distribution (Hair et al., 2018a).

Two measures, kurtosis and skewness, were used to describe the shape of a data distribution. Kurtosis concerns the “peakedness” or “flatness” of the distribution relative to the normal distribution, whereas skewness denotes the distribution’s balance, i.e. whether it shifts towards the left or right side, or is centred and symmetrical (Hair et al., 2018a). A distribution that is unbalanced in a dataset is considered skewed (Hair et al., 2018a). Positive skewness indicates a distribution signifying a rightward shift, while negative skewness reflects a leftward shift. For kurtosis, negative kurtosis values denote a “platykurtic” or “flatter” distribution, whereas positive values reflect a “leptokurtic” or “peaked” distribution (Hair et al., 2014a). As sample size is observed to have an effect on amplifying statistical power by

minimizing sampling error, a larger sample size has been shown to significantly diminish the detrimental effects of non-normality (Hair et al., 2018a). For a smaller sample size, i.e. of 50 or fewer observations, particularly sample sizes of 30 or lower, a significant departure from normality could have a substantial impact on the results. On the contrary, for a sample size of 200 observations or more, these effects are considered as unsubstantial (Hair et al., 2018a).

To assess the shape of the distribution of data in comparison to the normal distribution, a test for normality was conducted. Kurtosis and skewness values were used and evaluated to describe the relative shape of the data distribution (Field, 2009; Gravetter and Wallnau, 2014). Variables in the present study exhibited skewness and kurtosis values within the prescribed ranges of -2 to +2 for skewness (Field, 2009, Gravetter and Wallnau, 2014) and -3 to +3 for kurtosis (Hair et al., 2018a).

3.10.2 Respondent Demographic Profile

Demographic profiling was conducted to capture characteristics of the target population and observe any emergent patterns among millennial frontline employees in the Kenyan hospitality (hotel) industry.

Data on the demographic variables gender, age, marital status, number of children (family size), highest level of education, organizational tenure, department (job category), years worked in the hospitality industry, position held at the organization (line employee or supervisor), and type of employment (part-time or full-time), were obtained from target respondents.

Demographic profiles including gender, age, marital status, education level, organizational tenure, number of children, and number of years worked in the hospitality industry, have been examined in prior empirical studies (e.g. Karatepe, 2013b; Karatepe and Karadas, 2014; Karatepe and Karadas, 2015; Karatepe, 2015). Consistent with these empirical studies, data on the demographic variables age, gender, marital status, highest level of education, organizational tenure, department (job category), and type of employment (part-time or full-time) were elicited. Frequency distributions for each of these variables were tabulated for descriptive findings among target respondents (Section 4.3 in Chapter 4).

3.10.3 Preparation for Factor Analysis

(i) Factorability

The primary purpose of factor analysis is to establish the underlying structure among variables. Factor analysis provides a basis for assessing the structure of the inter-relationships (correlations) among a large number of variables by defining those sets of variables i.e. factors that are highly interrelated (Hair et al., 2018a).

For factor analysis, the minimum absolute size of a sample should comprise 50 observations, or an equivalent ratio of 5 observations per variable, although a sample size of a minimum of 100 observations is most acceptable. This is equivalent to a ratio of 10 observations per variable (Hair et al., 2014a, 2018a). As a sample size of 405 observations was retained after data screening, subsequent factor analyses were considered appropriate.

To evaluate the appropriateness of the construct items for factor analysis, all independent (predictor) variables were inter-correlated (Hair et al., 2014a, 2018a). As a general rule of thumb, if no substantial number of inter-item correlations above 0.300 are found, then factor analysis is not appropriate (Hair et al., 2014a, 2018a). Therefore, for the present study, an independent (predictor) variable item found to inter-correlate with a score below 0.300 with any other item within the same construct was excluded prior to factor analysis as it would reduce the factorability of the data (Hair, Anderson, Tatham and Black, 1998).

(ii) Common Method Bias

As variable data were elicited from single respondents via a cross-sectional field survey, verification for the presence of common method bias was required.

The Harman's (1976) Single-Factor Test (Podsakoff and Organ, 1986) was applied to examine the variables for their common method variance. Common method bias is a measure of how much false covariance is shared between independent and dependent variables assessed at a single instance or point in time (cross-sectional), using a similar or identical questionnaire survey instrument (Bhattacharjee, 2012). Given that a self-report survey instrument was used to obtain data from a single source, common method bias was a potential risk in the study. Common method variance of variables was assessed using Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA). All items of the study's variables were examined through an unrotated factor solution to determine whether the majority of the variance was accounted for by a single factor (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee and Podsakoff, 2003).

Common method bias is present if (a) a single factor accounts for the majority of the variance in the variables or (2) all items load on a single factor (Podsakoff et al., 2003). As prescribed by Podsakoff et al (2003), common method bias is detected if a single factor accounts for over 50% of the variance for all variables.

As a result of the EFA, a total of 11 factors were generated, and no factor accounted for over 50% of the explained variance for all variables. In addition, items did not load on a single factor. Therefore, it was established that common method bias did not pose a significant risk.

3.10.4 Instrument Construct Validity and Reliability: Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA)

(i) Construct Validity

Bhattacharjee (2012) described construct validity as the extent to which a measurement scale is representative of the theoretical construct it was intended to measure. It concerns whether selected measurement items are congruent with each other and can be considered as a single entity (Boudreau, Gefen and Straub, 2001). Unlike internal validity which is focused on the strength of linkages between constructs, construct validity concerns the assessment of the individual construct (Straub et al., 2004).

Construct validity for the study was obtained by testing for two primary components, that is, convergent and discriminant validity (Campbell and Fiske, 1959). Convergent validity refers to the proximity with which a particular measure is related to alternate measures within the same construct, whereas discriminant validity defines the degree to which a particular construct is empirically distinguishable from other constructs (Hair et al., 2014a; Hair, Hult, Ringle and Sarstedt, 2014b).

Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA) through Principle Component Analysis (PCA) was conducted to establish convergent and discriminant validity. EFA is a data reduction method which combines a set of items into a smaller set of factors through the use of PCA (Bhattacharjee, 2012). Essentially, these factors are meant to be congruous with the theoretical construct being measured (Bhattacharjee, 2012). For the study, two EFA approaches, factor extraction and rotation, were used.

First, extraction is utilized to ascertain and define the underlying structure of variables (Hair et al., 2014a, 2018a). Typically, Principal Component Analysis (PCA) and common factor analysis are utilized to analyze linkages among variables to explain them in the form of their

underlying dimensions (factors). The object of extraction is to compact (summarize) the information within a number of original variables into fewer variates (factors) or composite dimensions with minimal loss of data (Hair et al., 2014a, 2018a).

Second, rotation is used to re-distribute factor variance to attain a simplified, theoretically more meaningful pattern and is considered arguably the most essential tool in factor interpretation (Hair et al., 2014a). Practically, the objective of rotation is to simplify the rows and columns of the factor matrix to enable interpretation. In this matrix, columns signify factors, and each row corresponds to a variable loading across the factors (Hair et al., 2014a, 2018a). Essentially, the reference axes of the factor are rotated about the origin to attain an alternative position. Rotation can either be Orthogonal Factor Rotation or Oblique Factor Rotation. The most basic rotational method is Orthogonal Factor Rotation, whereby the axes are maintained at 90 degrees, whereas Oblique Factor Rotation is not restricted to being perpendicular. Oblique Factor Rotation resembles Orthogonal Factor Rotation but differs in that it assumes that extracted factors are correlated, and rotated factors are not independent (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2001). Further, instead of limiting the factor rotation to an orthogonal solution, oblique rotation pinpoints the degree to which each of the factors correlate (Hair et al., 2014a, 2018a).

Specifically, PCA factor extraction with Promax (Oblique) rotation was used to conduct an EFA in the study. PCA is utilized when the objective is to condense most of the original information (variance) in a minimized number of factors for the purposes of prediction, and is considered suitable when data reduction is necessitated. It is focused on the minimum number of factors required to explain the maximum proportion of the total variance of the original variables under study (Hair et al., 2014a, 2018a). Further, PCA is considered reliable in assessment of variables free of error (Luck and Rubin, 1987). The Promax (Oblique) rotation method was preferred as it is most appropriate for the object of eliciting several theoretically meaningful factors or constructs. Further, it is also accepted that in the real world, few constructs are uncorrelated (Hair et al., 2014a, 2018a).

For the present study, the general rule for factor extraction was applied whereby each extracted factor required an Eigen value of greater than 1.000 (Bhattacharjee, 2012). The Eigen value of a single factor is indicative of the amount of variance in the dataset that the factor accounts for (Pallant, 2010; Brace, Kemp and Snelgar, 2012). Factors with an Eigen value of 1.000 or more were preserved, while those with Eigen values of less than 1.000 were excluded (Pallant,

2010). Extracted factors are then rotated using the Oblique factor rotation. This rotation generates factor weights that are used to aggregate the individual items of a specific construct into a composite measure (Bhattacharjee, 2012).

In addition, Bartlett's Test of Sphericity (Bartlett, 1954) and the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) Measure of Sampling Adequacy (Kaiser, 1970), were effected. The KMO Measure of Sampling Adequacy indicates how much variance within the dataset could be explained by factors (Brace et al., 2012). The KMO indices range from 0.000 to 1.000, where a value of 0.600 signifies an acceptable minimum threshold for factor analysis (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2007; Pallant, 2010; Brace et al., 2012). Thus, KMO values that were found to be greater than 0.600 (> 0.600), were considered as acceptable. Bartlett's Test of Sphericity is a statistic applied to determine the presence of correlations among variables and indicate that the data is factorable (Pallant, 2010; Brace et al., 2012). A statistically significant Bartlett's Test of Sphericity ($p < 0.05$) as prescribed by Brace et al. (2012), indicated that sufficient correlations were present among the variables.

To establish convergent validity, Hair et al.'s (2018a) general rule of thumb was applied whereby items belonging to a specific construct had to display factor loadings of 0.300 and above on a single factor, specifically with a sample size of 350 and above. Average Variance Extracted (AVE) scores were also obtained to further establish the convergent validity of all dimensions (variables). The AVE refers to the mean (average) value of the square loadings of the indicators associated with a construct. Specifically, this is the sum (total) of squared loadings divided by the number of indicator items (Hair et al., 2014b). A cut-off threshold of at least 0.500 was applied for the establishment of convergent validity (Fornell and Larcker, 1981). Subsequently, discriminant validity was established by obtaining the square root of the calculated AVE values (SQRT AVE).

(ii) Construct Reliability

To discern the consistency of the survey instrument employed for the study, construct reliability must be ensured. Consistency denotes the extent to which the administered instrument will measure in exactly the same way each and every time it is used on the same sample (Bhattacharjee, 2012; Hair et al., 2018a). As such, a Cronbach's Alpha (α) coefficient was obtained as an internal measure of the consistency of each of the conceptual model variables used in the study (Creswell, 2009).

Cronbach's Alpha (α) coefficient testing has widely been used to gauge the reliability of self-reported questionnaire items (Vanderstoep and Johnston, 2009). Coefficient cut-off values between 0.600 and 0.700 are recommended and acceptable in quantitative research (Hair et al., 2014a, 2018a). In the study, the recommended cut-off value threshold of 0.700 was applied.

Accordingly, the dimensions (variables) of HPWPs (training, empowerment, rewards, job security, and career opportunities), work engagement (vigour, dedication, and absorption), and job outcomes (creative performance, extra-role customer service, and turnover intention), exhibited acceptable Cronbach's Coefficient Alpha (α) reliability scores of 0.700 or above.

3.10.5 Item Analysis of Study Variables

Item analysis of all the study variables was conducted to establish the internal reliability of all the measurement items. This was performed to verify that item measures for each specific variable within the scale correlated strongly with each of the other respective items (Brace et al., 2012).

For the current study, Cronbach's Coefficient Alpha (α) values for each measurement item were obtained as an indicator of scale reliability. Cronbach's Coefficient Alpha (α) values between 0.600 and 0.700 and above were deemed acceptable measures that indicate the reliability of a scale (Brace et al., 2012; Hair et al, 2014a).

Correlated item-total correlation, defined as the correlation between each measurement item, and the sum of other measurement items (Brace et al., 2012), was also evaluated. Measurement items with values lower than 0.200 are indicative of an item's inadequacy to measure a specific variable satisfactorily (Nunnally, 1978). Thus, items with values below the acceptable threshold of 0.200 were recommended for deletion as this would result in a higher Cronbach's Coefficient Alpha (α) value for the overall scale.

3.10.6 Pearson's Test of Correlation

To assess the degree of relationship between the variables in the study, a Pearson's test of correlation was conducted. The Pearson product-moment correlation or Pearson's test of correlation, was computed to establish the direction and magnitude between variables (Brace et al., 2012; Hair et al., 2014a).

In addition to establishing the strength of the correlations, the researcher also examined the significance of the relationships using a two-tailed test (i.e. 1.65 for a significance level of 10% ($\alpha = 0.10$, two-tailed test), 1.96 for a significance level of 5 % ($\alpha = 0.05$, two-tailed test), and 2.57 for a significance level of 1% ($\alpha = 0.01$, two-tailed test) (Hair, Hult, Ringle and Sarstedt, 2017).

Relationships between the study variables were interpreted based on the product-moment correlation, which indicated the magnitude of the relationships. In addition, the direction of the relationships were also interpreted based on either a negative sign (-) which depicted a negative relationship, or a positive sign (+) which depicted a positive correlation (Brace et al., 2012).

To evaluate the strength of the correlations, Brace et al.'s (2012) rule of thumb was adopted for the study. Accordingly, r values of between 0.000 and 0.200 were considered generally weak, r values of between 0.300 and 0.600 were interpreted as moderate, and r values of between 0.700 and 1.000 were interpreted as strong (Brace et al., 2012).

3.10.7 Partial Least Squares-Structural Equation Modeling (PLS-SEM)

Similar to prior empirical studies (e.g. Cohen and Olsen, 2013; Choi, Goh, Adam and Tan, 2016; Ho, Gaur, Chew and Khan, 2017; Elrehail, Emeagwali, Alsaad and Alzghoul, 2018; Harden, Boakye and Ryan; 2018) the relationships in a structural path model were estimated using Partial Least Squares - Structural Equation Modeling (PLS-SEM), a component-based, second-generation multivariate data analysis procedure.

PLS-SEM is a path modeling technique that allows the researcher to assimilate unobservable variables indirectly measured by their indicators (Hair et al., 2014b; Hair et al., 2017). This modeling technique involves the use of path models and latent variables. Path models as defined by Hair et al. (2014b, 2017), are diagrams used to visualize hypotheses and variable relationships, examined via Structural Equation Modeling (SEM). Path models constitute constructs (not directly measured) and indicator items (directly measured) whose relationships are depicted using arrows (Hair et al., 2014b).

The two primary elements of a path model are the (1) measurement (outer) model, and (2) structural path (inner) model. First, the measurement (outer) model is used to show the relationship between constructs and their underlying indicator items, whereas second, the structural (inner) model is used to demonstrate the relationship between constructs (Urbach

and Ahlemann, 2010; Hair et al., 2017). Furthermore, structural path models comprise exogenous (predictor) and endogenous (criteria) variables. The exogenous (independent) variables in the structural path model are those constructs used to explain other constructs, whereas the endogenous (dependent) variables are those explained by other constructs (Hair et al., 2017).

Structural path models are developed based on theory, a set of systematically interconnected propositions formulated using scientific methods and used to explain empirically observable phenomena and predict hypothesized outcomes (Urbach and Ahlemann, 2010; Hair et al., 2017). Of note, the development of the structural path model is premised upon structural model theory and measurement model theory (Hair et al., 2017).

3.10.8 Motivation for the Use of Partial Least Squares-Structural Equation Modeling (PLS-SEM)

The PLS-SEM approach is most suited for studies in which the objective is to predict and explain target constructs. PLS-SEM was preferred for the study due to its hypothetico-deductive predictive-orientation, which is in tandem with the study's primary objectives of explaining the hypothesized relationships between conceptual model variables.

In contrast to the Covariance - Based Structural Equation Modeling (CB-SEM) which is a Maximum Likelihood (ML) estimation procedure, the component-based PLS-SEM is premised upon the Ordinary Least Squares (OLS) regression method. Notably, PLS-SEM efficiently utilizes available data to approximate path relationships with the aim of minimizing the variance of the dependent variable, a key feature that facilitates the predictive objective of this approach (Hair, Ringle and Sarstedt, 2011; Hair et al., 2017).

PLS-SEM was selected for the study as it works most efficiently in assessing complex models (Hair et al., 2017). In addition, PLS-SEM makes no assumptions regarding the underlying data used for estimation. PLS-SEM can also accommodate both reflective and formative model specifications, and single-item constructs without identification problems (Hair et al., 2017). Further, over time, this approach has been observed to provide researchers with a high degree of parameter estimation efficiency and greater statistical power as compared to the more rigid CB-SEM approach (Hair et al., 2017).

It is noteworthy that results from prior empirical studies have evidenced a minor difference between PLS-SEM and CB-SEM (Hair et al., 2017). Therefore, results obtained using PLS-

SEM and CB-SEM do not differ significantly. In addition, results from PLS-SEM analyses can be considered as proxies of CB-SEM results (Hair et al., 2017).

Despite its robustness the PLS-SEM approach is not without shortcomings. For example, PLS-SEM is not applicable to structural path models with causal loops or circular relationships between variables (non-recursive) (Hair et al., 2017). In addition, where estimation bias and consistency are concerned, PLS-SEM parameter estimates have not always been optimal (Hair et al., 2017). Hair et al. (2017) proffered that in selecting the PLS-SEM approach for a particular study, four key characteristics must be considered. These consist of (1) data, (2) model properties, (3) the PLS-SEM algorithm, and (4) issues of model evaluation. A summary of these key characteristics is presented in Table 3.8.

Table 3.8. Key Characteristics of Partial Least Squares-Structural Equation Modeling (PLS-SEM)	
Data Characteristics	
Sample Size	No identification problems with small sizes. In general, attains high levels of statistical power with small sample sizes. Larger sample sizes enhance the precision of PLS-SEM estimation.
Distribution	No distributional assumptions; PLS-SEM is a non-parametric procedure.
Missing Values	Highly robust as long as missing values fall below a reasonable level.
Scale of Measurement	Works with metric data and quasi-metric (ordinal) scaled data, as well as binary coded variables. Some limitations when using categorical data for the measurement of endogenous latent variables.
Model Characteristics	
Number of Items in Each Construct Measurement Model	Handles constructs measured with single and multi-item measures.
Relationships between Constructs and their Indicators	Easily integrates reflective and formative measurement models.
Model Complexity	Handles complex models with multiple structural model relations. Larger numbers of indicators are helpful in reducing the bias inherent in PLS-SEM.
Model Setup	No causal loops allowed in the structural model (only recursive models).
PLS-SEM Algorithm Properties	
Objective	Minimizes the amount of variance that is unexplained (i.e., maximizes the R^2 values).
Efficiency	Converges after a few iterations (even with complex models and/or large sets of data) to the optimum solution; efficient algorithm.
Construct Scores	Estimated as linear combinations of their indicators and used for predictive purposes. Can be used as input successive analyses. Not affected by inadequacies in data.
Parameter estimates	In general, structural model relationships tend to be underestimated (PLS-SEM bias). In general, measurement model relationships tend to be overestimated (PLS-SEM bias). Consistency at large. High levels of statistical power.
Issues of Model Evaluation	
Evaluation of the Overall Model	No global goodness-of-fit criterion

Evaluation of the Measurement Models	Reflective measurement models: reliability and validity assessments using multiple criteria. Formative measurement models: validity assessment, significance and relevance of indicator weights, indicator collinearity.
Evaluation of the Structural Model	Collinearity among sets of constructs, significance of path coefficients, coefficient of determination (R^2), effect size (f^2), and predictive relevance (Q^2 and q^2 effect sizes).
Additional Analyses	Impact-Performance Map Analysis (IPMA) Mediating Effects Hierarchical Component Models (HCMs) Multigroup Analyses Uncovering and Treating Unobserved Heterogeneity Measurement Model Invariance Moderating Effects

3.10.9 Measurement Model (Construct) Specification

The measurement model represents the relationship between latent variable's (constructs) and their indicators. The structural model is utilized to express the linkages (relationships) between latent variables (constructs) (Henseler, Hubona and Ray, 2016) as illustrated in Figure 3.4.

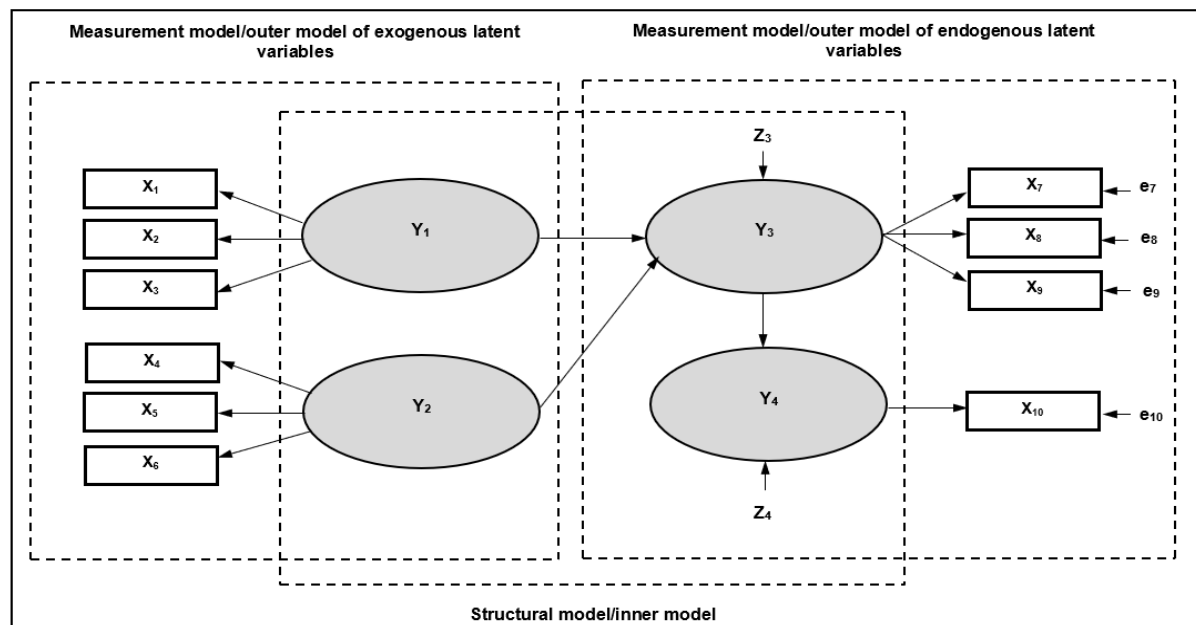


Figure 3.4. Measurement (Outer) and Structural Path (Inner) Model (Hair et al., 2017)

In using the PLS-SEM approach to analyze data, the specification of the construct (latent variable) is fundamental to the empirical evaluation of the measurement (outer) and structural path (inner) model.

(i) Construct Specification

To specify constructs (latent variables), measurement (outer) models can be represented as either reflective or formative (Hair et al., 2014b, 2017). The reflective measurement model (Mode A), is premised upon measures as representing the effects (manifestations) of the latent underlying variable (construct). As such, causality is seen to emanate from the construct to its indicators (Hair et al., 2014b). On the contrary, the formative measurement model (Mode B) is premised upon the measures as indicators that cause the latent variable (construct) (Hair et al., 2014b).

Construct specification is effected to determine the type of measurement model. This is determined by the conceptualization of the construct, and the aims and objectives of the empirical study. However, it is noteworthy that construct misspecification can lead to measurement inaccuracy (Petter, Staub and Rai, 2007). In addition, this misspecification could hinder theory inference and development. In specifying the composition of the construct to determine the type of measurement model, a number of guidelines can be used for measurement model selection.

The criteria used to determine the type of measurement model of the study, are summarized in Table 3.9.

Table 3.9. Guidelines for Selection of Measurement Model Type			
Criterion	Formative Model	Reflective Model	Literature Source(s)
Direction of causality between indicators (measurement items) and constructs.	Direction of causality is from the indicators (measurement items) to the latent variable (construct).	Direction of causality is from the latent variable (construct) to the indicators (measurement items).	Diamantopoulos and Winklhofer (2001)
Is the latent variable (construct) a trait that explains the indicators (measurement items) or is the latent variable (construct) a combination of the indicators (measurement items)?	The latent variable (construct) is a combination of the indicators or rather the indicators are defining characteristics of the latent variable (construct).	The latent variable is a trait that is, indicators (measurement items) are a manifestation of the latent variable (construct).	Fornell and Bookstein (1982)
Do the indicators (measurement items) depict the consequences or the causes of the latent variable (construct)?	The indicators (measurement items) represent causes of the latent variable (construct).	The indicators (measurement items) represent consequences of the latent variable (construct).	Rossiter (2002)
Does dropping or adding the measurement items change the trait of the construct?	Adding or dropping a measurement item does change the construct's traits (conceptual domain).	Adding or dropping a measurement item does not change the construct's traits (conceptual domain).	Chin (1998), Jarvis, MacKenzie and Podsakoff (2003)
Are the indicators (measurement items) mutually interchangeable?	Indicators (measurement items) are not interchangeable	Indicators (measurement items) are interchangeable	Jarvis, MacKenzie and Podsakoff (2003)

Based on these selection criteria, construct conceptualization, and the aims and objectives of this study, a measurement model specified as reflective (Mode A) was utilized to model the

latent variables representing this study's theoretically underpinned conceptual model constructs.

3.10.10 Evaluation of the Measurement Model for Instrument Construct Validity and Reliability: Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA)

Latent variables (constructs) and their measurement indicators were adapted from pre-validated and well established multiple-item scales from the extant literature, for which constructs were modelled as reflective (Mode A) in concordance with the criteria outlined in Table 3.9.

Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) was evaluated using. Partial Least Squares – Structural Equation Modeling (PLS-SEM) A PLS-SEM algorithm was run using a path weighting scheme, which estimates the latent variable using regression and correlations. Specifically, the loadings of the measurement items on each latent variable is specified in the model and their correlations determined (Gefen and Straub, 2004).

Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) was also used to establish construct validity and reliability.

(i) Convergent Validity

Individual indicator reliability and the Average Variance Extracted (AVE) were used to evaluate convergent validity.

The convergent validity of a latent variable (construct) is the degree to which a measure positively correlates with alternate measures of the same construct (Hair et al., 2014b, 2017). Based on the domain sampling model, indicators of a reflective construct are taken as varying (alternate) measures of the same construct. Thus, item measures (indicators) of a reflective construct should share a high proportion of variance or converge (Hair et al., 2014b, 2017).

To assess convergent validity, the researcher considered the construct indicator outer loadings. High outer loadings show that the related indicators share much in common, as represented by the construct (Hair et al., 2017). The size of a construct outer loading is also known as its indicator reliability. The outer loadings of all construct indicators should be statistically significant. Although a significant outer loading can be quite low, a rule of thumb is that standardized outer loadings should measure 0.708 or higher (Hair et al., 2014b, 2017). The squared value of an indicator's outer loadings denotes how much variation in an item is

accounted for by the construct, and is described as a measure of the variance extracted from the item construct indicator (Hair et al., 2017). As per Hair et al.'s (2014b) suggestion, a latent variable should account for a significant portion of each indicator's variance, typically not below 50%. In addition, this indicates that the shared variance between the construct and its indicators exceeds the measurement error variance (Hair et al., 2017). Indicator outer loadings should therefore, exceed 0.708, since the squared value (0.708^2) for this threshold is equal to 0.50 (50%) (Hair et al., 2014b). However, the threshold of 0.700 is deemed close enough to 0.708 to be considered acceptable in most cases (Urbach and Ahlemann, 2010).

In the social science disciplines, researchers often obtain relatively weak outer loadings (below 0.700), particularly when new developed measurement scales are used (Hulland, 1999; Urbach and Ahlemann, 2010). It is instructive to note that instead of just eliminating indicators when their outer loadings fall below the threshold of 0.700, the effects of removing the item on the composite reliability of the construct, should be carefully considered beforehand (Hair et al., 2014b, 2017). As a general principle, Hair et al. (2014b, 2017) recommended that indicators with outer loadings that fall between 0.400 and 0.700 be marked for elimination from the measurement scale. This is in the event that deleting an indicator increases the composite reliability of the construct, or the variance extracted is observed to be above 0.500 (50%) (Hair et al., 2014b, 2017). Moreover, it is also important to consider whether eliminating the indicator will influence the content validity of the construct. As such, indicators with weaker outer loadings have, in some instances, been retained on the basis of their adverse impact on the construct's content validity. However, the construct indicators exhibiting very low outer loadings (below 0.400) nevertheless ought to be deleted (Hair et al., 2011). Following Hair et al.'s (2014b, 2017) and Urbach and Ahlemann's (2010) recommendations, the aforementioned thresholds were used for the study to establish convergent validity.

The convergent validity of the reflective measurement model constructs was also assessed via the Average Variance Extracted (AVE). This parameter is described as the grand mean (average) value of squared loadings of the indicators of that construct, that is, the sum (total) of the squared loadings divided by the number of indicators (Fornell and Larcker, 1981; Hair et al., 2014b). Thus, the AVE is equivalent to the communality of a construct. An AVE with a value of 0.500 or higher, shows that on average, the construct accounts for more than half of the variance of its indicators (Fornell and Larcker, 1981; Hair et al., 2014b; Henseler et al., 2016). In contrast, an AVE of lower than 0.500, shows that on average, more variance may

subsist in the error of the items, than in that which is explained by the construct itself (Hair et al., 2017). As such, AVE values of 0.500 and above were used to establish convergent validity in the study.

(ii) Discriminant Validity

The Fornell-Larcker criterion, cross-loadings, and the Heterotrait-Monotrait (HTMT) Ratio were used to assess discriminant validity.

Discriminant validity is the degree to which a construct is distinguishable from the other model constructs (Hair et al., 2014a). Therefore, establishing discriminant validity of a construct implies that it is unique and that it represents attributes not captured by other model constructs (Hair et al., 2017).

Discriminant validity was established by evaluating the cross-loadings of the construct indicators (Hair et al., 2017). Cross-loadings were established by correlating each measurement item of a latent variable (construct) with all other items (Urbach and Ahlemann, 2010). As per Urbach and Ahlemann's (2010) guidelines, discriminant validity is established when each measurement item loading is higher for its associated construct than for any other construct. For the present study, all indicator outer loadings on the associated constructs were found to be higher than any other cross-loading, thereby confirming discriminant validity.

Discriminant validity was also assessed using the Fornell-Larcker criterion (Fornell and Larcker, 1981). This was achieved by comparing the square root of AVE values with latent variable (construct) correlations. According to Hair et al. (2017), the square root of each construct's AVE should be higher than its highest correlation with any other construct. Essentially, this criterion is premised upon the assumption that a construct shares greater variance with its own indicators than with any other construct. For this study, the AVE value square roots of each latent variable were found to exceed the correlations of these constructs with the other latent variables, thereby confirming discriminant validity.

Following the recent development in evaluating construct discriminant validity in PLS-SEM, Henseler, Ringle and Sarstedt's (2015) new discriminant criterion, the Heterotrait-Monotrait (HTMT) ratio of correlations, was also used. The HTMT ratio is defined as the between trait-correlations (i.e., mean average correlations of indicators across constructs measuring different concepts) to the within-trait correlations (i.e., mean average correlations of indicators measuring the same phenomenon) (Henseler et al., 2015; Hair et al., 2017). As such, the

HTMT ratio signifies an estimate of the correlations between two latent variables (constructs) (Henseler et al., 2015).

Researchers who have critically assessed the performance of cross-loadings and the Fornell-Larcker criterion in the confirmation of discriminant validity have found that neither approach is a reliable determinant of discriminant validity (Henseler et al., 2015). Specifically, when two constructs perfectly correlate, cross-loadings have shown a lack of discriminant validity thereby rendering this criterion ineffective for empirical study (Hair et al., 2017). Similarly, the Fornell-Larcker criterion has been shown to perform poorly, particularly where construct indicator loadings only slightly differ (e.g. all indicator loadings score between 0.600 and 0.800). According to Voorhees, Brady, Calantone and Ramirez (2016), when indicator loadings have stronger variations between them, the Fornell-Larcker criterion's performance in capturing discriminant validity is enhanced but overall, remains inadequate.

Henseler et al. (2015) proposed the HTMT ratio to remedy these limitations. The HTMT ratio captures the mean of all correlations of indicators across constructs that measure differing constructs (heterotrait-heteromethod correlations) relative to the mean of the average (monotrait-heteromethod correlations) of indicators that measure the same construct (Hair et al., 2017). It represents an approximation of what the true correlation between two constructs would be if they were perfectly and reliably measured. This is known as disattenuated correlation (Hair et al., 2017). As observed by Hair et al. (2017), a lack of discriminant validity denotes a disattenuated correlation between two constructs that is close to 1.000.

Of note, the exact threshold levels of the HTMT ratio have been contended in prior research. Based on prior research findings, Henseler et al. (2015) recommended a value threshold of 0.900 in the event that the path model includes latent variables (constructs) that are highly conceptually similar. Thus, a HTMT ratio value of higher than 0.900 would indicate the absence of discriminant validity. However, when the path model latent variables (constructs) are more conceptually distinct, a lower and therefore more conservative value threshold of 0.850 is preferred (Henseler et al., 2015). As such, the HTMT ratio can therefore, function as the basis of a statistical test for discriminant validity.

To assess the HTMT ratio, two approaches were considered that is, HTMT as a criterion and HTMT as a statistical parameter. HTMT as a criterion involves the comparison of the HTMT value to the predefined threshold. HTMT as a statistical test involves the use of the bootstrapping procedure, which allows for the construction of the confidence intervals for the

HTMT. This confidence interval represents the range within which the true HTMT population value lies, assuming a specific confidence level (95%) (Hair et al., 2017). Therefore, a confidence interval comprising the value 1.000, denotes that discriminant validity is lacking. On the contrary, if this value lies beyond the range of the interval, then discriminant validity is established (Henseler et al., 2015). Following Henseler et al.'s (2015) recommendations, the aforementioned HTMT parameters were adapted for the study to confirm discriminant validity.

(iii) Internal Consistency Reliability

Traditionally, the Cronbach's Alpha (α) value has widely been adopted as the parameter for internal consistency reliability. However, as observed by Hair et al. (2017), this measure has been found to be sensitive to the number of scale items, thereby underestimating the internal consistency reliability. Thus, it may be utilized as the most conservative measure for internal consistency reliability. In light of its limitations, an alternative internal consistency reliability measure known as Composite Reliability (ρ_c) is applied, and deemed more appropriate for PLS-SEM analysis (Hair et al., 2014b, 2017). Composite reliability was therefore employed to evaluate the internal consistency (reliability) of measurement instrument variables.

Unlike the Cronbach's Alpha (α) coefficient value which is premised upon the assumption that all indicators are reliable, composite reliability recognizes that indicators may have different loadings, and is thus primed towards measuring the sum of a construct factor loadings in relation to the sum of the factor loadings with the inclusion of the error variance (Urbach and Ahlemann, 2010). Composite values oscillate between 0 (completely unreliable) and 1 (perfectly reliable). As such, a threshold of composite values of between 0.700 and 0.900 as recommended by Hair et al. (2014b), were adopted for the study. Notably, values below 0.600 tend to demonstrate a lack of internal consistency.

3.10.11 Summary of Measurement Model Evaluation

To establish overall model validity for the study, it is noteworthy that criteria are systematically applied through a two-phase process, that is, the evaluation of the measurement model through EFA and CFA.

The evaluation criteria used in assessing the measurement model constructs of the study is summarized in Table 3.10.

Table 3.10. Evaluation Criteria for Assessment of Measurement Model			
Parameter	Criterion	Threshold	Literature Source
Unidimensionality	Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA)	Factors with an Eigen value greater than 1.000. Item loading coefficients of 0.300 and above are considered high loadings for sample sizes greater than 350.	Hair et al. (2014a, b)
Convergent Validity	Indicator Reliability	Indicator outer loadings should be greater than 0.708. Outer loading indicators of between 0.400 and 0.700 must be considered for deletion if removal enhances composite reliability.	
	Average Variance Extracted (AVE)	The AVE should be greater than 0.500.	Urbach and Ahlemann (2010), Hair et al. (2014b)
Discriminant Validity	Cross-Loadings	Outer loadings of indicators on a construct should be greater than all its cross-loadings with other constructs.	Urbach and Ahlemann (2010), Hair et al. (2014b)
	The Fornell-Larcker criterion	The square root of the AVE of each variable should be greater than its highest correlations with any other variable.	Fornell and Larcker (1981)
	Heterotrait-Monotrait (HTMT) Ratio	HTMT Criterion: HTMT values should be below 0.85 (conservative measure) or 0.90. HTMT Statistical Test: Confidence interval comprising the value 1.000, denotes the absence of discriminant validity.	Henseler et al. (2015)
Internal Consistency Reliability	Cronbach's Alpha (α) Coefficient	The values of 0.600 and 0.700 are recommended and acceptable.	Urbach and Ahlemann (2010), Hair et al. (2014b)
	Composite Reliability (ρ_c)	Composite Reliability values should be greater than 0.708 or between 0.700 and 0.900. However, values of between 0.600 and 0.700 can be deemed acceptable in exploratory research.	Hair et al (2014b), Urbach and Ahlemann (2010)

3.10.12 Evaluation of the Structural Path Model: Hypotheses Testing

Structural path model assessment follows the validation of the measurement model. It involves the evaluation of the measurement model's predictive capabilities and relationships between constructs (Hair et al., 2014b).

Prior to the assessment of the study's structural path model, High-Performance Work Practices (HPWPs), was evaluated as a Hierarchical Component Model (HCM) or Higher Order Construct (HOC).

3.10.13 High-Performance Work Practices (HPWPs) as a Hierarchical Component Model (HCM) or Higher-Order Construct (HOC)

HCMs are described as constructs that incorporate more than one underlying dimension, and can be differentiated from other unidimensional constructs often represented as a single underlying factor (Wetzels, Odekerken-Schroder and Oppen, 2009). HCMs or higher-order models are multi-dimensional constructs that are operationalized at higher levels of abstraction.

HCMs consist of two facets. The first facet captures the Higher-Order Construct (HOC) or second-order construct, which represents the more abstract construct, and the second facet captures the Lower Order Constructs (LOCs) or first-order constructs, which represent the more concrete sub-dimensions of the abstract, higher-order construct (Hair et al., 2014b). In a HCM, each LOC is a distinct element of its related HOC, and each LOC comprises a set of indicators. According to Hair, Sarstedt, Ringle and Gudergan (2018b), these LOC indicators can be defined by the uniqueness of the features that characterize the LOC.

HOCs can either be represented in reflective mode or constituted into formative mode. In reflective mode, LOCs as manifest variables are explained by the HOC as the latent variable. Thus, the relationship of components in the HCM is explained from the HOC to its underlying LOCs (Wetzels et al., 2009). Conversely, a HOC that is constituted in a formative mode indicates a combination of various distinct LOCs that form the general construct. This relationship is explained from the LOCs to the HOC (Hair et al., 2018b). Further, HCMs can also be explained by the relationship between the LOCs and its indicators (i.e. formative or reflective).

Establishing HCMs requires the support of existing theory (Hair et al., 2017). Hair et al. (2018b) cogently argued that a HCM cannot be constituted merely on the basis of ensuring that a PLS path model is parsimonious, but rather on the basis of existing measurement theory. Therefore, consistent with prior research in the existing literature (e.g., Karatepe, 2013b; Karatepe and Vatankhah, 2014a, 2015; Karatepe and Olugbade, 2016), and underpinned by theory, the HCM embedded in the structural path model used in this study was modelled as a reflective-reflective (Type I) HCM as illustrated in Figure 3.5.

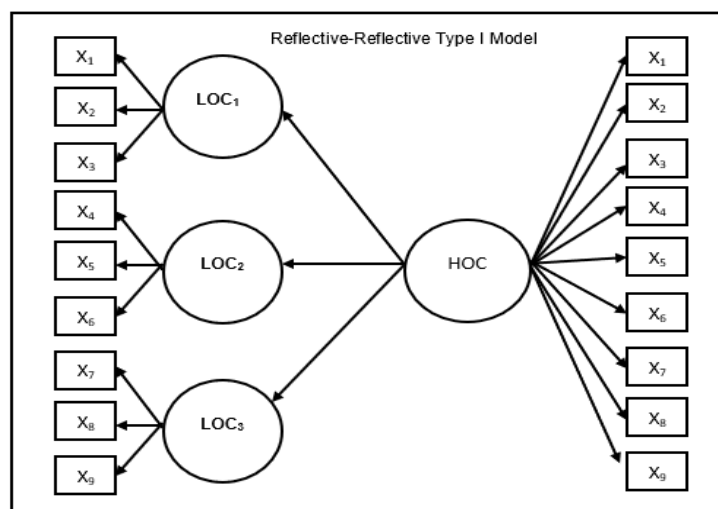


Figure 3.5. Reflective-Reflective (Type I) HCM Model (Ringle et al., 2011; Becker et al., 2012)

This type of HCM specifies a second-order reflective relationship between the HOC and its LOCs, and a first-order reflective relationship between the LOC and its indicators (Hair et al., 2017). For this HCM, the LOCs are considered distinct yet highly correlated, as the HOC explains their correlations (Hair et al., 2018b).

To evaluate the HPWPs HOC, the HCM was first modelled as a reflective-reflective (Type I) HCM model, consonant with existing measurement theory (Karatepe, 2013b; Karatepe and Olugbade, 2016).

Second, the HPWPs HCM was estimated using the repeated indicator approach. This approach was preferred for several reasons. First, the repeated indicator approach is the most commonly used method in estimating a HOC in PLS (Wilson and Henseler, 2007; Riel, Henseler, Kemeny and Sasovova, 2017). Second, for estimating a reflective-reflective (Type I) HCM, the repeated indicator approach is widely recommended (Becker, Klein and Wetzels, 2012). Third, this approach is advantageous due to its robust nature in estimating all constructs concurrently as opposed to estimating the LOCs and the HOC separately (Becker et al., 2012). Fourth, the approach takes the entire nomological network into account, thereby preventing interpretational confounding (Becker et al., 2012).

Notably, the repeated indicator approach is appropriate when all LOCs have an equal number of indicators in order to prevent biased loadings or weightings on the HOC (Becker et al., 2012; Hair et al., 2017). However, as observed by Becker et al. (2012), compelling evidence to support this assertion is absent in the existing literature. One disadvantage of the repeated indicator approach is the repeated use of the same indicators which can trigger artificially correlated residuals (Becker et al., 2012; Riel et al., 2017). However, following extensive testing, Becker et al. (2012) observed that this approach obtains similar results for the path coefficients when compared to other methods of estimating a HCM in PLS-SEM.

To evaluate the measurement model of the HPWPs HCM, path relationships between the underlying dimensions otherwise known as Lower Order Constructs (LOCs) (training, empowerment, rewards, job security, and career opportunities), and the Higher Order Component (HPWPs), were examined (Karatepe, 2013b; Karatepe and Olugbade, 2016) by implementing the PLS-SEM approach.

To establish the convergent validity and internal consistency reliability of the HPWPs HCM, path coefficients which correspond to HCM loadings for the LOCs were obtained from the PLS-SEM analysis and used to manually compute the AVE, Composite Reliability (P_c) and

Cronbach's Alpha (α) scores. Hair et al. (2014b) prescribed that the threshold AVE value of 0.500 is sufficient for the establishment of convergent validity. In addition, recommended scores of 0.700 and 0.900 were used to confirm internal consistency reliability (Hair et al., 2014b, 2017). Notably, discriminant validity of the HCM was not established at this stage, as this was confirmed during the CFA phase of analysis.

Following to the evaluation of the measurement model of the HPWPs HCM, the structural path model for the study was examined.

3.10.14 Structural Path Model

To examine the structural path model, data were submitted to PLS-SEM analyses and a systematic sequential approach followed, through a six-step procedure.

First, the structural model was examined for collinearity, the extent to which predictor variables have a close or exact linear relationship to each other (highly correlated) (Hair et al., 2017). Testing for collinearity entails the examination of each predictor variable (construct) independently, for each sub-section of the structural path model. Collinearity testing was impelled because the estimation of the structural model's path coefficients depends on the Ordinary Least Squares (OLS) regression of each dependent latent variable, on a corresponding predictor latent variable (Hair et al., 2017). As with standard multiple regression, path coefficients can be biased if their estimations include critical levels of collinearity among the predictor (exogenous) latent variables (Hair et al., 2017). Accordingly, collinearity was assessed by computing Tolerance levels and Variance Inflation Factor (VIF) values. Tolerance levels of 0.200 and below, and VIF values of 5.000 and above, in predictor variables, were used as thresholds to establish collinearity (Hair et al., 2014b).

Second, path coefficients were obtained to assess the significance of the relationships between variables in the structural path model. Path coefficients obtained through PLS-SEM algorithms were used to represent the hypothesized relationships among structural model variables (Hair et al., 2017). Hair et al. (2014b, 2017) proffered that path coefficients with standardized values close to +1.000 demonstrate strong positive relationships, whereas those close to -1.000 indicate strong negative relationships. To establish the significance of the structural model path coefficients, a standard error value was obtained through the procedure of bootstrapping, allowing for calculation of empirical t values. Bootstrapping is a non-parametric procedure applied to examine the significance of structural model path coefficients

(Efron and Tibshirani, 1986; Davison and Hinkley, 1997; Hair et al., 2014b). Bootstrapping involves the drawing of a large number of samples from the original sample size with replacement. According to Hair et al. (2014b, 2017) the replacement process signifies that each time an observation is randomly drawn from the sampling population, it is reinstated in the sampling population before the succeeding observation is drawn. This means that an observation for any bootstrap sample can be chosen more than once or not chosen at all. Further, each bootstrap sample has an equal number of observations as the original sample size.

Bootstrap samples obtained were then used to approximate the structural path model, with estimates of the coefficient forming a bootstrap distribution that is considered an estimation of the sampling distribution. This distribution forms the basis for determining the standard error and deviation of the coefficient estimates (Hair et al., 2014b, 2017). In the bootstrap procedure, the bootstrap distribution is considered to be a sensible approximation of an estimated coefficients' distribution, and its standard deviation a substitute for the parameter's standard error (Hair et al., 2014b). As a guiding principle, 5000 bootstrap samples are recommended (Hair et al., 2014b). As an acceptable guideline, each bootstrap must equate the number of observations in the original sample (Hair et al., 2014b). For instance, in this study, because there are 405 valid observations in the original sample, each of the 5000 bootstrap samples used contained 405 cases. Following the results of the bootstrap procedure, the empirical t values were then compared to recommended thresholds for critical alpha (α) values, i.e. 1.65 for a significance level of 10% ($\alpha = 0.10$, two-tailed test), 1.96 for a significance level of 5 % ($\alpha = 0.05$, two-tailed test), and 2.57 for a significance level of 1% ($\alpha = 0.01$, two-tailed test), respectively (Hair et al., 2017). Empirical t values that exceeded these critical value thresholds denoted an empirically observable level of significance between structural path model variables. Additionally, p values were obtained to further establish the path significance of coefficients between variables in the structural path model. Further, the bootstrap confidence interval was also derived using the Bias-Corrected and Accelerated (BCa) approach. These paired approaches were used to account for biases and skewness in the bootstrap distribution (Efron, 1987; Gudergan, Ringle, Wende and Will, 2008; Henseler, Ringle and Sinkovics, 2009; Sarstedt, Henseler and Ringle, 2011). The bootstrap confidence intervals enabled the researcher to test whether an estimated path coefficient is significantly different from zero (Hair et al., 2017). As such, confidence intervals for estimated path

coefficients that excluded zero were assumed to have a significant effect in the structural path model.

Third, coefficients of determination (R^2 values) of the structural path model were established. The coefficient of determination R^2 value measures the predictive accuracy of the structural path model (Hair et al., 2014b). The R^2 value is used to depict the independent (predictor) variables combined effect on the dependent (criterion or criteria) variables in the structural path model. The R^2 value also signifies the amount of variance in the dependent variables accounted for by all the independent variables connected to it (Hair et al., 2014b). To establish the R^2 values of the structural path model, the squared correlation between a specific dependent (criterion) variable's actual and predicted values were obtained (Hair et al., 2014b). As indicated by Hair et al. (2014b), R^2 values can oscillate from 0 to 1, where higher values typically indicate high levels of predictive accuracy. The R^2 value thresholds of 0.670, 0.333, and 0.190 for dependent (criteria) variables considered as substantial, moderate, and weak effects, respectively (Chin, 1998), were adopted for the study. However, as cautioned by Hair et al. (2014b), such interpretations may not necessarily be conclusive, particularly in social-science-oriented research disciplines. For instance, in studies on consumer behaviour, R^2 values of 0.200 are considered high, whereas in a discipline such as marketing, R^2 values of 0.750 or higher are expected.

Fourth, the sizes of the effects of each of the paths in the structural model was obtained by means of Cohen's f^2 value. The f^2 effect measures whether the predictor variable for a particular structural model path has a substantial impact on the criterion variable (Urbach and Alhemann, 2010). To establish the f^2 effect size, changes in the R^2 values of the dependent (criteria) variables when a specific independent (predictor) variable was included and excluded from the path model were obtained using the PLS-SEM algorithm (Hair et al., 2014b). To interpret the f^2 values, f^2 values between 0.020 and 0.150, 0.150 and 0.350, and 0.350 and above, were adopted, whereby values of 0.020 and 0.150 represent a small effect, values of 0.150 and 0.350 represent a medium effect, and 0.350 and above represent a large effect (Cohen, 1988).

Fifth, the predictive relevance of the structural path model was assessed using Stone-Geisser Q^2 values (Geisser, 1974; Stone, 1974) through a blindfolding procedure based on the cross-validated redundancy approach. Blindfolding is a sample reuse procedure through which the d th data point in the dependent (criterion) variable's indicators is excluded and the parameters

with the residual or leftover data points are approximated (Chin, 1998; Henseler et al., 2009; Tenenhaus, Vinzi, Chatelin and Lauro, 2005). These leftover data points are then used to predict the excluded data points. As such, the variance between the true (excluded) and predicted data points is then utilized as input for computation of the Q^2 measure (Hair et al., 2017). Essentially, this procedure is a repetitive process that is iterated until each data point has been omitted and the estimated structural path model re-assessed. The Q^2 measure was obtained as a value signifying the predictive relevance of the structural path model (Hair et al., 2014b). To establish predictive relevance, Hair et al.'s (2014b) threshold for the Q^2 value was adopted. Accordingly, a Q^2 value of greater than zero was indicative of the structural path model's predictive relevance on a specific dependent (criterion) variable, whereas a Q^2 value of less than zero represented the absence of significant predictive relevance.

Sixth, in a similar manner to the f^2 effect size for corresponding R^2 values, the relative impact of the predictive relevance was assessed using the q^2 effect size. To establish the q^2 effect, changes in the Q^2 values of the dependent (criteria) variables when a specific independent (predictor) variable was included and excluded from the path model were computed manually. As a measure of predictive relevance, q^2 values of 0.02, 0.15 and 0.35, respectively, were used to interpret that an independent (predictor) variable had a small, medium, or large predictive relevance on a specific dependent (criterion) variable in the structural path model (Hair et al., 2014b, 2017).

The evaluation criteria used in assessing the structural path model is summarized in Table 3.11.

Table 3.11. Criteria for Evaluation of the Structural Path Model				
Step	Criterion (Model Validity)	Formula (Mathematical Expression)	Threshold	Literature Source
1	Collinearity	Tolerance	Tolerance levels of 0.200 and below indicates collinearity.	Hair et al. (2014b)
		$TOL_{x1} = 1 - R^2_{x1}$		
		Variance Inflation Factor (VIF)	VIF values of 5.000 and above denote collinearity.	
		$VIF_{x1} = 1/TOL_{x1}$		

2	Path Coefficients	Automatically generated using PLS-algorithm	- Path coefficients between latent variables in the structural path model must be assessed in terms of their sign, strength, and significance. - Path coefficients have standardized values between -1 and +1. - Path coefficients close to +1 denote strong positive relationships, path coefficients close to -1 denote strong negative relationships. - Estimated coefficients close to zero indicate a non-significance.	Hair et al. (2014b)
3	Coefficient of Determination (R^2 Value)	$r = \frac{n(\sum xy) - (\sum x)(\sum y)}{[n(\sum x^2) - (\sum x)^2][n(\sum y^2) - (\sum y)^2]}$	R^2 value ranges from 0 to 1, with high values indicating high levels of predictive accuracy.	Hair et al. (2014b)
4	Effect Size (f^2)	$f^2 = \frac{(R^2 \text{ included} - R^2 \text{ excluded})}{(1 - R^2 \text{ included})}$	f^2 values between 0.020 and 0.150 represent a small effect. f^2 values of between 0.150 and 0.350 represent a medium effect. f^2 values of 0.350 and above represent a large effect.	Cohen (1988) Urbach and Alhemann (2010)
5	Predictive Relevance (Q^2 Value)	$Q^2 = \frac{(Q^2 \text{ included} - Q^2 \text{ excluded})}{(1 - Q^2 \text{ included})}$	Q^2 values > 0 indicate the model has predictive relevance. Q^2 values < 0 indicate a lack of predictive relevance.	Henseler et al. (2009) Hair et al. (2014b)
6	Effect Size (q^2)	$q^2 = \frac{(Q^2 \text{ included} - Q^2 \text{ excluded})}{(1 - Q^2 \text{ included})}$	q^2 values of 0.02, 0.15, and 0.35, respectively, denote that an independent variable has a small, medium, or large effect on the predictive relevance Q^2	Hair et al. (2014b)

3.10.15 Mediation Analyses

Mediation is a process that involves empirically testing the hypothesized direct path relationships between two variables, a predictor (X) and a criterion (Y), accounting for a theoretically related, third and intervening variable (M), which indirectly provides information on the direct effect between these two predictor and criterion variables (X and Y) through its indirect effect (X to Y through M) (Hair et al., 2014b). In essence, the effects of the predictor variable (X) on the criterion variable (Y) is mediated by another variable (M), otherwise known as the mediator (Cepeda, Nitzl and Roldan, 2018).

The basic model upon which the phenomenon of mediation is based, is depicted in Figure 3.6.

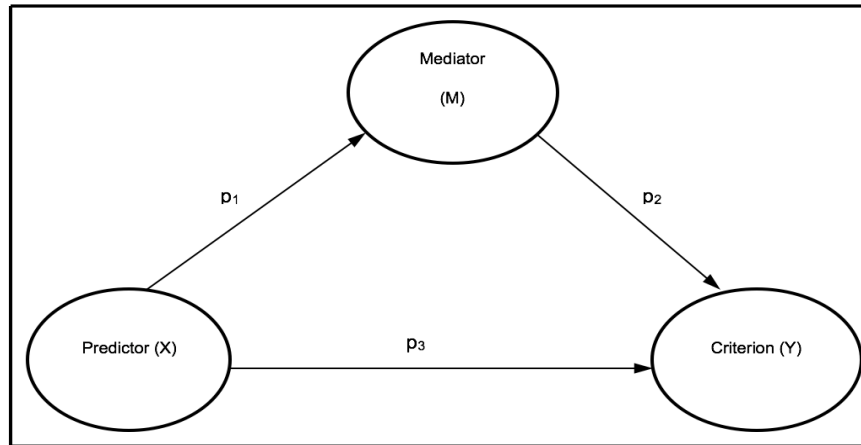


Figure 3.6. Basic Mediation Model

As such, in a typical mediation model, the indirect effect of the mediator variable (M) is observed to affect the direct association between two variables (X and Y) (Hair et al., 2014b). In determining the possible mediated relationship of the study's conceptual model, mediation analyses of a structural path model were conducted to answer the following questions (Hair et al., 2014b):

1. Is the direct effect of the predictor (X) on the criterion (Y) significant when the mediator (M) is excluded from the path model?
2. Is the indirect effect of ($p_1 * p_2$) of the predictor (X) on the criterion (Y) through the mediator (M) significant after its inclusion in the path model?
3. How much of the direct effect (p_3) of the predictor (X) on the criterion (Y) does the indirect effect ($p_1 * p_2$) absorb? Is there full or partial mediation?

A generic approach used by researchers to test for the significance of the mediating effects is the Sobel (1982) test. Using this test, the association between the predictor variable and the criterion variable is compared with the inclusion and the exclusion of the mediator variable (Helm, Eggert and Garnefeld, 2010). This test has however been criticized for its lack of statistical power and use of unstandardized path coefficients for test statistics (Hair et al., 2017). Moreover, the Sobel test has been challenged due to its assumption of a normal distribution which is not consonant with PLS-SEM, a non-parametric method (Hair et al., 2017). Further, the parametric assumptions of the Sobel test are not upheld for the indirect effects, given that the product of two normally distributed coefficients results in a non-normal distribution (Hair et al., 2017). Therefore, instead of the Sobel test, it is recommended that researchers bootstrap the sampling distribution of the indirect effects (Preacher and Hayes, 2004, 2008).

The bootstrapping of indirect effects has been observed to yield greater levels of statistical power over the Sobel test (Hair et al., 2017). Moreover, unlike the Sobel test, the bootstrapping procedure makes no assumptions about the sampling distribution of the statistics, thus making it more suitable for PLS-SEM analysis. For these reasons, particularly for PLS-SEM-oriented studies, researchers have discouraged the use of the Sobel test for mediation analysis (Klärner, Sarstedt, Hoeck and Ringle, 2013) and have instead advocated for the bootstrapping procedure as a superior alternative (Henseler et al., 2009; Sattler, Volckner, Riediger and Ringle, 2010).

Nitzl, Roldan and Cepeda (2016) have since prescribed a technique applied to test mediation effects using PLS-SEM other than the commonly used Baron and Kenny (1986) approach which many researchers have often drawn upon, even for use in PLS-SEM studies. This method is preferred to the Baron and Kenny (1986) approach due to recent research that details conceptual and methodological problems associated with the approach (Shrout and Bolger, 2002; Zhao, Lynch and Chen, 2010). Furthermore, compared to more recent statistical methods (Nitzl et al., 2016) for PLS-SEM research, the Baron and Kenny (1986) approach is now considered an outdated causal-step approach to testing for the presence of mediating effects. In comparison, researchers in the domain of covariance based structural equation modeling (CB-SEM), have often considered more up-to-date methodologies when testing for mediation, such as assessing the model's indirect effects using the bootstrapping procedure (Iacobucci, Saldanha and Deng, 2007; Hair, Black, Babin and Anderson, 2010), an approach that many PLS-SEM-oriented researchers fail to utilize.

As such, Nitzl et al.'s (2016) recommended procedure to test for mediating effects via the bootstrapping procedure in PLS-SEM, was utilized in this study. The Nitzl et al. (2016) procedure follows a two-stage approach for testing mediation effects. First, the researcher determines the significance of the indirect effects ($a \times b$) and their strength. According to Nitzl et al. (2016), testing for the indirect effects provides the researcher with the information required to test mediation effects, while testing the magnitude of the mediation effects determines the size of the mediation. Second, the researcher examines the significance of the direct effect to establish the type of effect or mediation observed, that is, non-mediation, partial mediation, or full mediation.

In the extant literature on mediation analyses, two types are examined, that is, full and partial mediation. Nitzl and colleagues' procedure to test mediation effects on PLS-SEM however, takes this a step further, proffering different types of mediation phenomena, namely (1) non-

mediation which involves direct-only non-mediation and no-effect non-mediation, (2) partial mediation which can be sub-divided into complementary partial mediation and competitive partial mediation, and (3) indirect-only mediation, otherwise known as full mediation.

The direct-only non-mediation occurs when the direct effect (c) is significant but not the indirect effect ($a \times b$) (Nitzl et al., 2016; Hair et al., 2017). In this relationship, the mediator variable has no effect thus designating a direct, non-mediating effect (Cepeda et al., 2018).

In contrast, the no-effect non-mediation occurs when neither the indirect ($a \times b$) nor the direct (c) effects are significant (Nitzl et al., 2016; Hair et al., 2017). However, as posited by Nitzl et al. (2016), the total effect ($a \times b \times c$) can be significant. Notably, in prior work on mediation, Zhao et al. (2010) cautioned that the occurrence of these two types of non-mediation, often signifies a weak underpinning theoretical framework, which therefore necessitates further examination of the hypothesized model.

With respect to complementary partial mediation, which is characterized as partial mediation, the indirect ($a \times b$) and the direct (c) effects are both significant and point in the same direction, whether positive or negative (Nitzl et al., 2016; Hair et al., 2017). Thus, a positive ($a \times b \times c$) value denotes complementary partial mediation. In this relationship, a portion of the effect of independent (predictor) variable (X) on the dependent (criterion) variable (Y) is mediated through the mediator variable (M), whereas the independent (predictor) variable (X) nevertheless explains a portion of the dependent (criterion) variable (Y), independent of the mediator (M). The complementary partial mediation shows that the mediator variable possibly explains or confounds the association between the predictor variable and criterion variable (Nitzl et al., 2016). This type of partial mediation is also known as positive confounding or consistent model (Zhao et al., 2010).

The converse of complementary partial mediation is competitive partial mediation. For this type of partial mediation, the direct (c) and indirect ($a \times b$) effects are significant, and point in opposite directions (Nitzl et al., 2016). Thus, a negative ($a \times b \times c$) value denotes competitive partial mediation. This type of partial mediation is based on the presumption that the mediator variable would not only decrease the strength of the association between the predictor and the criterion variables, but also increase it (Nitzl et al., 2016). This type of partial mediation is also known as negative confounding (Zhao et al., 2010; Nitzl et al., 2016).

Concerning indirect-only mediation also known as full mediation, the indirect effect ($a \times b$) in this instance is significant and not the direct effect (c) (Nitzl et al., 2016; Hair et al., 2017).

This type of mediation signifies that the effect of the independent (predictor) variable (X) on the dependent (criterion) variable (Y) is completely transmitted with the aid of the mediator variable (M). In addition, Hair et al. (2017) asserted that full mediation can also be observed when the absolute value of the indirect effect ($a \times b$) is greater than the absolute value of the total effect ($a \times b + (c)$) thus indicating the presence of a suppressor effect (Cheung and Lau, 2008). Furthermore, full mediation can be established in cases where small direct effects are observed despite a high mediating effect. This effect can be considered as full mediation when the association of the direct effect with the mediating effect becomes low but remains significant (Nitzl et al., 2016).

Using PLS-SEM analysis (Hair et al., 2017), the effects tested to evaluate whether partial mediation (complementary or competitive), full mediation (indirect-only), or non-mediation (direct-only or no effect), are present in the estimated structural path model, are (1) indirect effect ($a \times b$) denoted as ($p_1 \cdot p_2$), (2) the direct effect (c) denoted as (p_3), and (3) the product ($a \times b \times (c)$) of the direct and indirect effect denoted as ($p_1 \cdot p_2 \cdot p_3$).

Prior to mediation analyses, the reliability and validity of the measurement model for the structural path model must be established. Failure to do so results in biased findings of mediation effects (Hair et al., 2017).

The mediation analysis procedure prescribed by Nitzl et al (2016) and adapted for the study using PLS-SEM analysis with bootstrapping technique for the analysis of mediated effects (Hair et al., 2017), is illustrated in Figure 3.7.

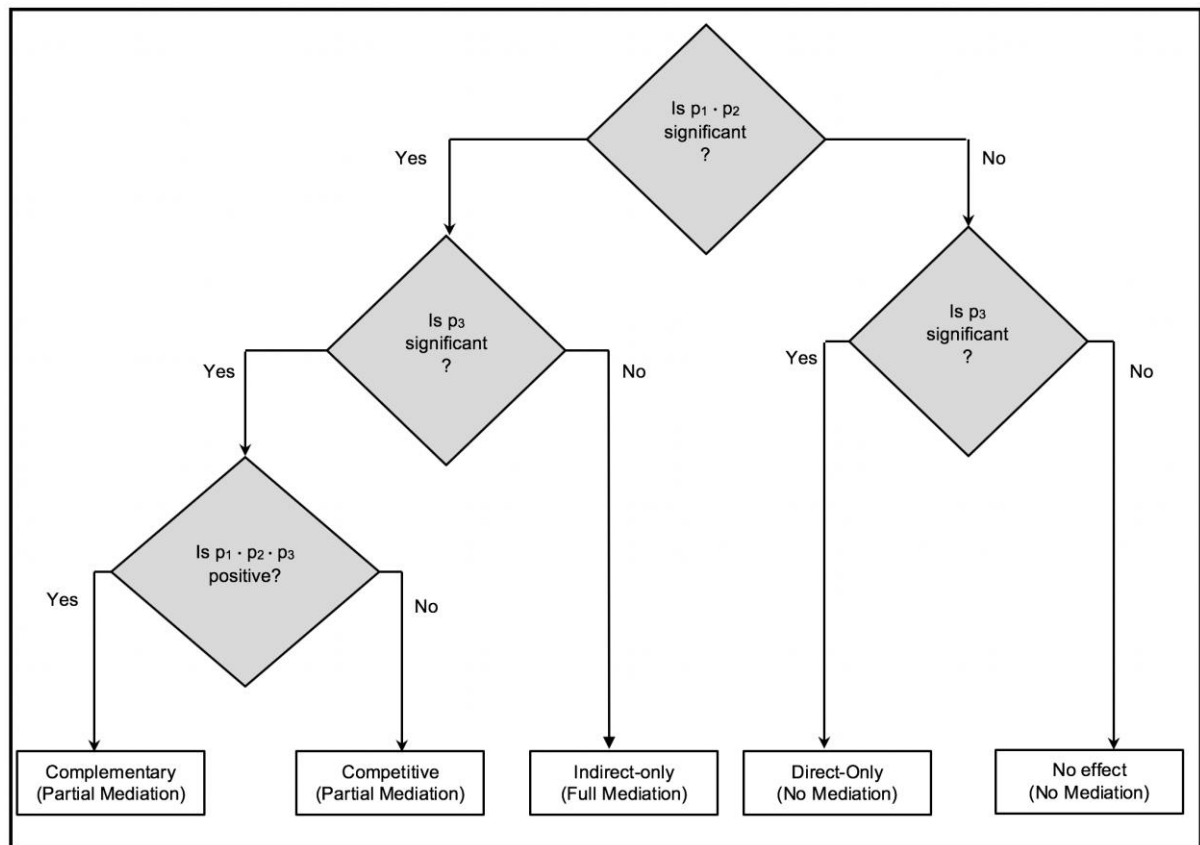


Figure 3.7. Mediation Analysis Procedure (Hair et al., 2017)

3.10.16 Test for Potential Confounding Effects (Control Variables)

The variables gender, age, marital status, highest level of education, and organizational tenure, were included and controlled for in estimating the structural path model.

Concordant with prior studies (e.g. Karatepe et al., 2010; Karatepe and Vatankhah, 2014a; Karatepe and Olugbade, 2016; Iikhanizadeh and Karatepe, 2017), the potential effects of demographic variables including age, gender, highest level of education, organizational tenure, and marital status, were controlled for and tested for their potential confounding effects on High-Performance Work Practices (HPWPs), work engagement, and job outcomes (creative performance, extra-role customer service, and turnover intention), considered as dependent (criteria) variables.

The aforementioned control variables were found to have no confounding effects.

3.11 Post-Hoc Analysis

In this chapter, PLS-SEM analysis is used to establish the relative importance of latent variables in a structural path model by estimating the direct, indirect and total relationships

therein. To extend and further enrich the empirical findings of the study, the researcher went a step further to conduct additional PLS-SEM tests, to provide additional insights, extract implicit patterns, and infer unique trends from the data obtained.

To conduct this post-hoc test investigation, Importance Performance Map Analysis (IPMA) and quadratic tests for non-linear effects were implemented.

3.11.1 Importance Performance Map Analysis (IPMA)

The Importance-Performance Map Analysis (IPMA), otherwise called the importance-performance matrix analysis or impact-performance map analysis, at both the construct and indicator levels, was conducted using PLS-SEM. This test builds on PLS-SEM estimates inherent in the structural path model's relationships, and specifies an added dimension to the analysis that factors in the average values of the latent variables (Hair et al., 2014b). Specifically, for a particular dependent (criterion) variable which is characterized as a main target construct in the analysis, the IPMA is used to compare the structural path model total effects (importance) to the latent variable scores (performance) average values of its predecessor constructs to establish the most essential or critical areas for managerial attention, action, or improvement.

In essence, the total (direct and indirect) effects denote the antecedent (predictor) constructs' importance in influencing the target (criterion) construct (dependent variable), whereas the latent variable scores (index values) denote their performance (Hair et al., 2014b, 2017). As such, these results elicit the recognition of those antecedent (predictor) constructs that have relatively high importance for predicting the target (criterion) construct, and relatively low performance for subsequent managerial intervention. Antecedent (predictor) constructs with lower importance relative to other constructs, are assumed to be of low priority for performance improvement, as they would have little impact in improving the target (criterion) construct.

To execute the IPMA test, the researcher must first identify the target construct. Second, the total effects (importance and performance scores) of the predictor constructs are then determined. Third, an importance performance map is created, and lastly, an extension of the IPMA on the indicator-level is conducted (Ringle and Sarstedt, 2016). For the current study, work engagement was identified as the target construct, with the HPWPs indicators as its independent predictor variables.

To conduct the IMPA test, the unstandardized total effects (importance) and unstandardized rescaled latent variable scores (performance) were obtained. Latent variable scores (index values) were rescaled on a range from 0 to 100. Rescaling allows each latent variable score to assume values between 0 and 100. Mean values of these scores are then used to indicate the construct's performance, where 0 represents the lowest performance and 100 represents the highest performance (Hair et al., 2017, 2018b). The total effects are then obtained and represent the summation of the direct and indirect effects, which captures the association between two constructs (Hair et al., 2018b).

The findings from IMPA are represented as a graphical output for visual interpretation (Hair, et al., 2017). The total effects signify the *importance* of the predictor constructs, whereas their average latent variable values signify their *performance*. The IPMA enables the researcher to compare *importance* and *performance* scores of the predictor constructs, and to identify critical areas for managerial improvement (Hair et al., 2017).

Thus, IPMA has been found to be a valuable analytic tool used to extend the results of standard PLS-SEM path coefficient estimates by contrasting the total effects of a set of latent variables on a selected target (criterion) construct e.g. work engagement, with the average latent variable scores of this construct's model predecessors e.g. HPWPs as training, empowerment, rewards, job security, and career opportunities.

To extend prediction in the study and further inform practice through empirical evidence using PLS-SEM IPMA tests, the researcher sought to establish what HPWPs (i.e. training, empowerment, rewards, job security, and career opportunities), were in fact, most conducive to work engagement levels, among millennial hotel frontline employees in the context of Kenya.

3.11.2 Test for Non-linear (Quadratic) Effects

PLS path models indicate that a latent variable affects another in a linear manner. However, this assumption is not accurate as some relationships may be non-linear. According to Hair et al. (2018b), linear relationships are depicted by straight lines while non-linear relationships include all associations that are not illustrated by straight lines but rather, by curves (curvilinear).

For the present study, a non-linear (quadratic) effects post hoc test was conducted between work engagement (predictor variable) and the three job outcomes (criterion variables), namely

creative performance, extra-role customer service, and turnover intention. The non-linear (quadratic) effects test was conducted to determine the significance of the possible non-linear relationships between these variables.

In establishing non-linear effects using PLS models, the equation $Y_2 = P_1Y_1 + P_2Y_1^2$ is considered, where Y_2 represents the criterion variable and Y_1 the predictor variable, P_1 the path coefficient of the linear relationship between Y_1 and Y_2 , and P_2 , the path coefficient between Y_1^2 and Y_2 . This model is specified as linear, such that the path coefficient P_1 and P_2 that links Y_1 and Y_1^2 with Y_2 , is linear. However, the non-linear (quadratic) effect is created and represents the Y_1^2 variable, which is the product of Y_1 when it interacts with itself ($Y_1 * Y_1$). Notably, a quadratic effect can be considered as an instance of special moderation (Hair et al., 2017), as Y_1 self-moderates the relationship between Y_1 and Y_2 as illustrated in Figure 3.8. That is, the linear relationship between Y_1 and Y_2 varies in size depending on the values of Y_1 .

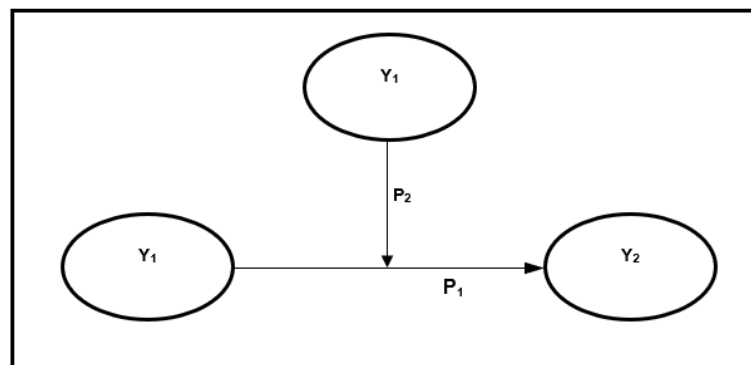


Figure 3.8. Basic Non-Linear Effects as a Self-Moderation Model

Consistent with Rigdon, Ringle and Sarstedt (2010), in a similar manner to the interaction inherent in standard moderator analysis, self-moderation can be modelled using an interaction (product) term. However, in contrast to standard moderator analysis where this product term signifies the interaction between the predictor Y_1 and a third (some other) moderator variable, in the case of self-interaction the quadratic term would represent the interaction of Y_1 with itself, expressed as the equation $Y_2 = (P_1 + P_2 Y_1) * Y_1 = P_1 Y_1 + P_2 Y_1^2$.

In interpreting non-linear effects, Hair et al. (2018b) recommends that if the quadratic effect appears to be positive, the magnitude of the predictor Y_1 effect on the criterion Y_2 increases with higher levels of Y_1 . On the contrary, if the quadratic effect happens to be negative the magnitude of the predictor Y_1 effect on the criterion Y_2 decreases with a higher value of Y_1 .

The concept of self-moderation with a quadratic term (Y_1^2 with the relationship P_2 to Y_2) as an additional variable in the PLS model, is depicted in Figure 3.9.

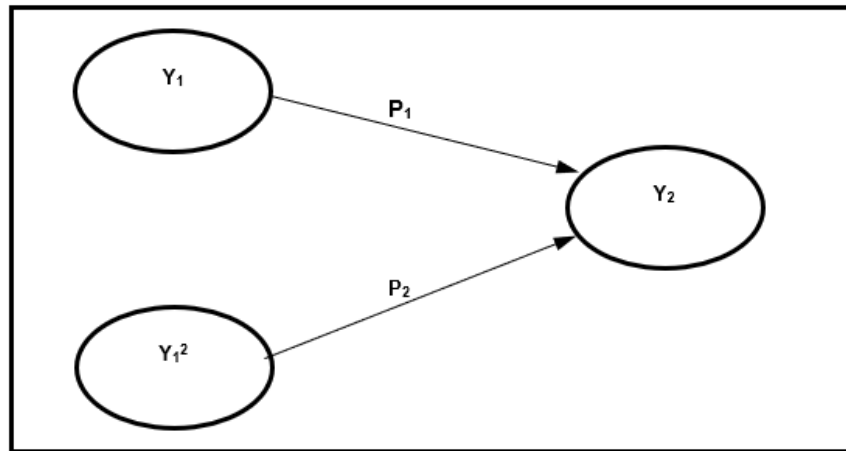


Figure 3.9. Self-Interaction Quadratic Effects Model

To create the quadratic term, the two-stage approach was used (Hair et al., 2018b). As per Hair et al. (2018b), this approach involved (1) estimation of the model without the interaction term to obtain the latent variable scores, and (2), the use of latent variable scores as indicators of the latent variables in the non-linear model. This approach was preferred due to its applicability to both formative and reflective predictor variable specifications (Hair et al., 2018b). Moreover, given that the aim of this post hoc test was to establish the significance of the non-linear effects, the two-stage approach is often recommended (Hair et al., 2018b). Furthermore, the two-stage approach has mainly been considered as the most preferred approach in testing for non-linear effects (Hair et al., 2018b). The two-stage approach for obtaining the quadratic term is depicted in Figure 3.10.

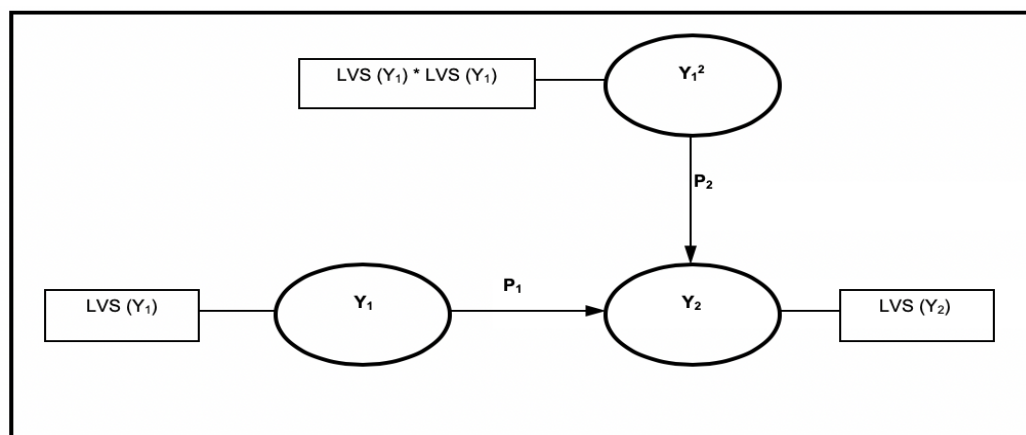


Figure 3.10. Two-Stage Approach to Obtain the Quadratic Term in PLS-SEM.

(i) Evaluation of the Non-Linear (Quadratic) Effects

To evaluate the non-linear (quadratic) effects, the standard measurement and structural path model evaluating criteria is applied to non-linear model testing (see Section 4.8 of Chapter 4 for CFA results). Hair et al. (2018) postulates that the reflective measurement predictors must conform with all relevant parameters, that is, convergent validity, discriminant validity, and internal consistency reliability. However, they note that these parameters are not required for the quadratic term as it serves as a supporting measure created to model the non-linear (quadratic) effect. Of note, in implementing the two-stage approach, the criteria for evaluation is only applicable to the first and not the second stage, which utilizes single item scores (Hair et al., 2018).

Subsequent to the measurement model analysis, the significance of the quadratic effect was examined. The significance of the quadratic effect is tested using a bootstrapping procedure with 5000 sub samples (Hair et al., 2017; Hair et al., 2018b). If the 95% confidence interval of the non-linear effect does not include zero, then the non-linear effect is considered to significantly differ from zero at the 5% critical level. As such, it can be inferred that the variable has a significant non-linear effect (Hair et al., 2018b). In addition to evaluating the confidence interval, the p and t values were assessed to confirm whether the non-linear effect was significant. While a non-linear effect can be significant, Hair et al. (2018b) argues that it does not necessarily denote its practical relevance. This is especially the case with large sample sizes where minute effects can be significant, with no implications for relevance. Thus, the non-linear effects strength was assessed using the f^2 size effect. The f^2 effect is used to assess the change in the predictor's R^2 value of the criterion variable Y_2 , when the quadratic term Y_1^2 is excluded from the model as per the formula:

$$f^2 = \frac{R^2_{\text{model with quadratic effect}} - R^2_{\text{model without quadratic effect}}}{1 - R^2_{\text{model with quadratic effect}}}$$

Thus, the f^2 effect size is an indicator of how much the non-linear effect contributes to explaining the criterion latent variable. To interpret the f^2 effect size, Cohen's (1988) thresholds of 0.02, 0.15, and 0.35, representing small, medium and large effect sizes respectively, are considered. However, when testing moderation effects, Aguinis, Beaty, Boik and Pierce (2005) observed that the average effect size for moderation tests is only 0.009.

Against this backdrop, Kenny (2015) proposed that the thresholds of 0.005, 0.01, and 0.025 signify more realistic, small, medium, and large effect size values. Kenny's (2015) thresholds were therefore adopted for the study.

It is noteworthy that typically, linear effects are often deemed sufficient, but researchers can extend testing to examine whether including a quadratic term to test for non-linear effects adds explanatory value.

3.12 Ethical Considerations

Ethics in research refers to the individual and communal codes of behaviour that relate to how a study is conducted (Frechette, 1994). As such, researchers have an obligation to anticipate and addresses ethical issues that may arise during the research process (Creswell, 2009). Following the ethical rules and regulations on conducting research as prescribed by the University of the Witwatersrand (WITS), data collection commenced upon satisfying institutional requirements in obtaining ethical clearance from the Human Research Ethics Committee (HREC) of the University (refer Appendix B), and securing permission to collect data from participants working in the targeted hotels.

In the study, the researcher confirmed that data collection was effected in a manner that protected respondents as well as the participating institutions by ensuring their anonymity and confidentiality (Creswell, 2009). This was achieved by ensuring that no identifying information, that is name, employee identification number, addresses or personal identification number, were solicited from respondents. In addition, the researcher had no identifying factors to associate an individual with a questionnaire response. Managers of participating hotels also requested that their anonymity be preserved and that data collected be kept confidential. Thus, the identities and addresses of participating institutions were not revealed. In the accompanying invitation (cover) letter, participants were provided with contact information for the researcher and the university's research ethics office in the event they had questions concerning the study.

Informed consent was obtained from all participants, and their role within the study clearly explained in simple language. This was effected to prevent invasion of individual integrity. The nature of the study did not pose any potential physical or emotional risks to the participants. No participant was marginalized nor disempowered throughout the research process. Participant-rights were also protected throughout the data collection process. During

the data collection process, the study's purpose was succinctly conveyed to participants, with the researcher also emphasizing that their involvement in the study would not in any way lead to any risk, penalty, or loss of benefits on their part. Furthermore, study participants were afforded the choice of whether to participate in the data collection phase or voluntarily abstain from the research exercise. Participants were not coerced or influenced to take part in the study. Prior to completing the survey instrument, participants were advised that they were free to stop participating at any point in time.

The appropriate ethical procedures in data collection were also adhered to during the data collection phase as the researcher sought permission from the relevant authorities to access participants at specified research sites. In addition, the researcher ensured that the integrity of the research sites visited was respected and left intact and undisturbed after the research study exercise was concluded. Electronic data were maintained on the researcher's computer and encrypted with a passcode. Hard copies of the questionnaires were locked in storage. Data integrity was maintained as no information was suppressed, falsified, or misrepresented, in the thesis report. Only summarized results were reported in the thesis and no raw data collected was shared with any third party. Finally, the researcher had no financial interest in the study, and no monetary incentives were offered to participants.

3.13 Summary of Chapter

The purpose of this chapter was to provide an overview of the methodological approach and research design used to investigate the relationship between determinant high-performance work practices and consequent job outcomes creative performance, extra-role customer service, and turnover intention, through work engagement as an intervening mechanism.

The research methodology, research strategy and design, and delineation of the study were described. The sampling procedure, instrumentation, data collection, data analysis, and ethical considerations, were also described. The assessment of the measurement model through Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA) and Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA), was presented.

The structural path model estimation of hypothesized conceptual model relationships using PLS-SEM analyses was described, and an overview of post-hoc tests, was presented.

The results of data analyses are reported in the following chapter.

Chapter 4

Data Analyses and Presentation of Results

4.1 Introduction

The aim of this chapter is to present results of analyses of data obtained for this study. First, results of the data screening process which captures the response rate, and involves reverse scoring, treatment of missing values, outlier detection, and examination of the data distribution, are presented. Second, descriptive statistics of sample demographics of data collected for this study are presented. Third, results of testing for construct reliability and validity through Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA), are presented. Fourth, results of evaluation of the measurement model of the study to further establish construct validity and reliability through Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA), are presented. Fifth, results of evaluation of the structural path model of the study to empirically test hypothesized conceptual model relationships using Partial Least Squares – Structural Equation Modeling (PLS-SEM), are presented. Sixth, results of post-hoc analyses conducted to extend and enrich empirical findings of the study, are presented.

4.2 Data Screening

4.2.1 Response Rate and Excluded Responses

Structured questionnaires were distributed to 485 respondents, from which 435 acceptable responses were obtained for a response rate of 89.7% as indicated in Table 4.1. This high response rate is not per se unprecedented and is analogous to those obtained in some previous empirical studies in the extant literature (e.g. Karatepe, 2013b; Karatepe et al., 2014a; Karatepe and Olugbade, 2016). These empirical studies have yielded response rates of 89.4%, 82.5%, and 96.3%, respectively. The solid response rate attained in the present study is attributable to strong management support, co-ordination, and co-operation.

Table 4.1. Response Rate		
Distributed Questionnaires	Responses Obtained	Response Rate (%)
485	435	89.7%

The difference of 50 questionnaires were received but classified as non-responses and excluded. In terms of the definition of levels of non-response by the American Association for Public Opinion Research (2006), 29 non-responses were classified as ‘complete refusal’

non-responses, where none of the questions were answered. A further 9 were classified as ‘break-off’ non-responses, where less than 50% of all questions were answered other than by refusal or no answer, and 12 as ‘partial response’ non-responses, where over 50% but not more than 80% of all questions were answered other than by refusal or no answer. Some non-responses can also be occasioned by an ‘ineligibility to respond’, which occurs when some selected respondents may not meet the research requirements of the researcher. These respondents are thus classified as ineligible (Saunders et al., 2012).

In the study, 21 non-responses were classified as ineligible. Specifically, 3 responses were received from a hotel department (job category) that was not targeted for the study i.e. the human resources department and kitchen department, respectively. Further, 9 of the other responses were received from a hotel employment (type) category that was not targeted for the study as 5 respondents were found to be part-time employees and 4 were classified as interns.

4.2.2 Reverse Scoring

To ensure that all correlations were uniformly aligned for the same factor, questionnaire item 22 (“Frontline employees have very little future within this organization”) of the variable “Career Opportunities” was reverse-scored. Following the reverse-scoring of questionnaire item 22 of the variable “Career Opportunities” which was phrased in the negative, all four items of the same factor were aligned as positive. Reverse scoring of questionnaire item 22 is also evident in prior empirical studies (e.g. Karatepe and Vatankhah, 2014a; Karatepe and Vatankhah, 2014b; Karatepe and Vatankhah, 2015).

The formula below was applied to reverse-score this questionnaire item, measured using a 5-point Likert scale oscillating from 5 (strongly agree) to 1 (strongly disagree). This formula can be applied to any possible scale minimum or maximum, including scales with values less than zero (DeCoster and Claypool, 2004, p.8).

$$\text{new value} = (\text{scale minimum} + \text{scale maximum}) - \text{old value}$$

Therefore, for a 5-point Likert scale:

$$\text{new value} = (1 + 5) - \text{old value}$$

Using this formula, the reverse-scores that would be calculated for a 5-point Likert scale are shown in Table 4.2.

Table 4.2. Reverse-Scores	
Old Value	New Value
1	5
2	4
3	3
4	2
5	1

4.2.3 Missing Values

For the present study, data were screened by observing first, variables with missing values for each case or observation (missing data by variable), and second, cases or observations with missing values for each variable (missing data by case). A rule of thumb as prescribed by Hair et al. (2018a) is that less than 10% of cases should contain missing data. Therefore, exclusion of offending cases or variables containing an excessive number of missing values are considered for elimination so as to significantly minimize the extent of missing values in the dataset.

A threshold of 5 or more missing values in an individual case or observation was established (i.e. 10% of 55 item variables per individual case or observation) for the study. As such, 23 cases with amounts of data exceeding this threshold were classified as extreme response sets and excluded.

A summary of missing values per case is presented in Table 4.3.

Table 4.3. Missing Values Per Case	
Number of Missing Item Variables in a Case	Number of Cases with Missing Item Variables
1	-
2	1
3	4
4	1
5+ (5 or more)	23

The process of screening data for missing values is typically classified as Missing Completely at Random (MCAR). This was true for the 23 observed cases that were classified as extreme response sets and excluded.

It is noteworthy that no missing data handling process can be expected to be full-proof unless there are restrictions on reasons as to how the data came to be missing, otherwise referred to as its “missingness mechanism” (Hughes, Heron, Sterne and Tilling, 2019). The assumptions needed to justify missing data mechanisms are quite strong and usually untestable. No systematic missing data process exists per se. Typically, the most plausible assumption made is that data are MCAR (Allison, 2001; Hughes et al., 2019). If missing data are not dependent

on any values, or potential values, for any particular variable, then the data are observed to be MCAR (Rubin, 1976). For MCAR, the probability of missingness for all units is constant, such that any observation on a variable is as likely to be a missing value as any other variable. This represents an ideal scenario because treating existing data would not result in biased parameter estimates (Pickles, 2005; Howell, 2008).

Rubin (1976) posited that MCAR denotes data whereby complete cases are a random sample of the original cases observed in a dataset. Since complete cases are representative of the original sample, inference based on the complete cases can be applied to the larger sample. Therefore, this scenario, described as complete-case analysis, when applied to MCAR data, will yield results that are generalizable to the target population (Pigott, 2001).

Thus, the missing data is assumed to be MCAR. This is advantageous to the researcher in two ways. First, it does not involve any hidden impact that must be considered when interpreting the results. Second, any type of imputation method can be applied to remedy the missing data (Hair et al., 2014a). Of note, imputation is advisable and most logical as a remedy for the treatment of missing data. As such, some form of imputation is required to maintain an adequate sample size for any multivariate analysis (p. 62).

An additional 6 cases were further excluded, due to an extreme response pattern occasioned by the presence of missing values on a criterion (dependent) variable, turnover intention. The deletion of cases with missing data on the dependent variable is recommended so as to prevent any synthetic increases in relations with independent (predictor) variables (Hair et al., 2018a). Therefore, a total of 406 responses were retained for further testing.

For the remaining 406 cases in the dataset, the substitution imputation procedure was employed to replace the missing values with the series mean for each set of predictor (independent) and criteria (dependent) variables, thus ensuring a complete dataset with integrity (Hair et al., 2014a).

The missing data replaced with the series mean for all predictor (independent) and criterion (dependent) variables is presented in Table 4.4.

Variable	Measurement Item	Number of Missing Values	Replaced with Series Mean
Training	TR 1	0	-
	TR 2	0	-
	TR 3	7	Yes
	TR 4	1	Yes
	TR 5	2	Yes

	TR 6	1	Yes
Empowerment	EMP 1	1	Yes
	EMP 2	0	-
	EMP 3	2	Yes
	EMP 4	4	Yes
	EMP 5	1	Yes
Rewards	RW 1	0	-
	RW 2	0	-
	RW 3	1	Yes
	RW 4	2	Yes
	RW 5	4	Yes
Job Security	JS 1	2	Yes
	JS 2	0	-
	JS 3	0	-
	JS 4	0	-
Career Opportunities	CO 1	1	Yes
	CO 2 (RS)	0	-
	CO 3	1	Yes
	CO 4	1	Yes
Vigour	VI 1	0	-
	VI 2	2	Yes
	VI 3	2	Yes
	VI 4	3	Yes
	VI 5	8	Yes
	VI 6	1	Yes
Dedication	DE 1	0	-
	DE 2	1	Yes
	DE 3	0	-
	DE 4	0	-
	DE 5	2	Yes
Absorption	ABS 1	6	Yes
	ABS 2	5	Yes
	ABS 3	5	Yes
	ABS 4	3	Yes
	ABS 5	6	Yes
	ABS 6	3	Yes
Creative Performance	CRP 1	0	-
	CRP 2	1	Yes
	CRP 3	5	Yes
	CRP 4	5	Yes
	CRP 5	2	Yes
	CRP 6	4	Yes
Extra-Role Customer Service	ERCS 1	0	-
	ERCS 2	0	-
	ERCS 3	0	-
	ERCS 4	0	-
	ERCS 5	0	-
Turnover Intention	TI 1	1	Yes
	TI 2	0	-
	TI 3	1	Yes
Total		97	

In the entire dataset, only 333 of 23,925 variables (1.39%) contained missing values. Therefore, the mean substitution imputation method was deemed appropriate given that less than 10% of the entire data set comprised missing values (Hair et al., 2018a). Due to this relatively low number of missing values for each variable in the entire dataset, missing data would not pose a considerable risk (Hair et al., 2018a).

Overall, 406 of the 435 original cases, with observations on all items included, were retained for further analysis.

4.2.4 Outliers

To identify outliers, data were screened for the detection of potential outliers using the univariate method. As prescribed by Hair et al. (2018a), for sample sizes of 80 or more cases or observations, a standardized (z) score threshold of up to 4 should be established to ensure the identification of unusually high or low values on each item in comparison to other cases or observations in the dataset. As the sample size comprised 406 responses (cases or observations), a threshold of 4 was used to identify and designate potential outliers in the dataset.

Observations 260 and 283 were identified as exceeding the established threshold value (4) of standardized (z) scores. The standardized (z) scores for observation 260 were not sufficiently extreme as to be detrimental to the generalizability of the population and was thus retained in the dataset. However, for observation 283, there were observed extremities on an adequate number of variables thus considered to be unrepresentative of the sample population (i.e. 7 variables with standardized (z) scores of ± 4 observed for this case), in addition to unusual response patterns upon visual inspection. Subsequently, observation 283 was deleted from the dataset. Therefore, 405 responses were retained for further analysis.

4.2.5 Normality

To assess the shape of the distribution of data in comparison to the normal distribution, kurtosis and skewness values were used and evaluated to describe the relative shape of the data distribution (Field, 2009; Gravetter and Wallnau, 2014).

Specific to the present study, a minor indication of kurtosis (3.095) for the questionnaire item 51 (“I willingly go out of my way to make a customer satisfied”) of the variable extra-role customer service was observed. However, given the large sample size of 405 respondents (comprising 200 or more observations), the effects of kurtosis and skewness were considered negligible (Hair et al., 2018a). All other variables exhibited skewness and kurtosis values within the prescribed ranges of -2 to +2 for skewness (Field, 2009, Gravetter and Wallnau, 2014) and -3 to +3 for kurtosis (Hair et al., 2018a), as depicted in Table 4.5. Therefore, after outlier detection, 405 responses were retained for further analysis.

Descriptive statistics for predictor (independent) and criteria (dependent) variables are summarized in Table 4.5.

Table 4.5. Descriptive Statistics							
Variable	Measurement Item	Cases (Valid)	Missing	Mean	Standard Deviation	Skewness	Kurtosis
Training	TR 1	405	0	4.27	0.777	-1.086	1.453
	TR 2	405	0	4.17	0.817	-1.011	1.249
	TR 3	405	0	4.34	0.696	-1.036	1.646
	TR 4	405	0	4.14	0.826	-0.948	1.045
	TR 5	405	0	4.15	0.825	-0.975	1.109
	TR 6	405	0	4.14	0.844	-0.909	0.660
Empowerment	EMP 1	405	0	3.76	1.078	-0.732	-0.61
	EMP 2	405	0	3.25	1.251	-0.252	-0.959
	EMP 3	405	0	3.08	1.237	0.001	-1.019
	EMP 4	405	0	3.54	1.061	-0.465	-0.332
	EMP 5	405	0	3.71	1.075	-0.687	-0.096
Rewards	RW 1	405	0	3.51	1.155	-0.551	-0.537
	RW 2	405	0	3.52	1.129	-0.570	-0.421
	RW 3	405	0	3.44	1.119	-0.438	-0.537
	RW 4	405	0	3.35	1.105	-0.295	-0.595
	RW 5	405	0	3.26	1.133	-0.262	-0.711
Job Security	JS 1	405	0	2.99	1.217	0.012	-0.960
	JS 2	405	0	2.55	1.161	0.402	-0.603
	JS 3	405	0	2.94	1.271	-0.029	-1.100
	JS 4	405	0	3.02	1.252	-0.025	-0.912
Career Opportunities	CO 1	405	0	3.66	0.962	-0.655	0.106
	CO 2 (RS)	405	0	3.60	1.116	-0.621	-0.317
	CO 3	405	0	3.42	1.095	-0.415	-0.573
	CO 4	405	0	3.38	1.093	-0.452	-0.413
Vigour	VI 1	405	0	4.02	0.949	-1.098	1.266
	VI 2	405	0	4.05	0.853	-0.787	0.524
	VI 3	405	0	4.11	0.867	-1.088	1.476
	VI 4	405	0	3.94	0.965	-0.965	0.910
	VI 5	405	0	4.04	0.793	-0.825	1.116
	VI 6	405	0	4.06	0.845	-0.767	0.503
Dedication	DE 1	405	0	4.27	0.793	-1.183	1.822
	DE 2	405	0	4.29	0.699	-0.862	1.175
	DE 3	405	0	4.28	0.765	-1.065	1.277
	DE 4	405	0	4.40	0.736	-1.225	1.855
	DE 5	405	0	3.56	1.123	-0.432	-0.602
Absorption	ABS 1	405	0	4.05	0.788	-0.801	0.773
	ABS 2	405	0	3.54	1.054	-0.482	-0.390
	ABS 3	405	0	3.97	0.832	-0.677	0.369
	ABS 4	405	0	4.19	0.715	-0.629	0.272
	ABS 5	405	0	3.19	1.124	-0.114	-0.708
	ABS 6	405	0	3.36	1.058	-0.133	-0.632
Creative Performance	CRP 1	405	0	1.89	1.228	1.224	0.299
	CRP 2	405	0	2.17	1.166	0.906	-0.056
	CRP 3	405	0	2.30	1.161	0.677	-0.444
	CRP 4	405	0	2.29	1.191	0.849	-0.088
	CRP 5	405	0	2.25	1.217	0.805	-0.320
	CRP 6	405	0	2.12	1.240	0.972	-0.094
Extra-Role Customer Service	ERCS 1	405	0	4.12	1.003	-1.423	1.993
	ERCS 2	405	0	3.93	0.976	-1.197	1.502
	ERCS 3	405	0	4.05	0.929	-1.318	2.209
	ERCS 4	405	0	4.16	0.935	-1.593	3.095
	ERCS 5	405	0	4.08	0.973	-1.287	1.721
Turnover Intention	TI 1	405	0	2.30	1.149	0.564	-0.471
	TI 2	405	0	2.44	1.210	0.456	-0.720
	TI 3	405	0	2.53	1.275	0.501	-0.673

4.3 Demographic Profile of Respondents

To observe emergent patterns among respondent millennial frontline employees sampled in the study, a demographic profile was obtained from the dataset.

The respondent demographic profile (n = 405) for the study is presented in Table 4.6.

Table 4.6. Respondent Demographic Profile (n = 405)		
Demographic Variable(s)	Frequency	Percent (%)
Gender		
Male	191	47.2%
Female	211	52.1%
Total	402	99.3%
Missing	3	0.7%
Age		
18-21 years	19	4.7%
22-26 years	108	26.7%
27-31 years	123	30.4%
32-38 years	151	37.3%
Total	401	99.0%
Missing	4	1.0%
Marital Status		
Single	173	42.7%
Married	218	53.8%
Divorced	3	0.7%
Separated	6	1.5%
Widowed	3	0.7%
Total	403	99.5%
Missing	2	0.5%
Number of Children (Family Size)		
None	147	36.3%
1-2 children	198	48.69%
3-4 children	56	13.8%
5 or more children	2	0.5%
Total	403	99.5%
Missing	2	0.5%
Education		
Secondary School	55	13.6%
Professional Diploma	258	63.7%
Bachelor's Degree	67	16.5%
Master's Degree	12	3.0%
Doctorate Degree	1	0.2%
Other	11	2.7%
Total	404	99.8%
Missing	1	0.2%
Tenure		
Less than 1 year	72	17.8%
1-3 years	137	33.8%
4 or more years	192	47.4%
Total	401	99.0%
Missing	4	1.0%
Department (Job Category)		
Front Office	106	26.2%
Waiter/Waitress	73	18.0%
Guest Relations Representative	18	4.4%
Bell Attendant (Porter)	14	3.5%
Door Attendant	9	2.2%
Spa Attendant	23	5.7%
Concierge	19	4.7%
Housekeeping	77	19.0%
Bar Attendant	27	6.7%

Other	37	9.1%
Total	403	99.5%
Missing	2	0.5%
Years of Work in Hospitality Industry		
Less than 1 year	31	7.7%
1 to 2 years	52	12.8%
3 to 4 years	88	21.7%
5 or more years	233	57.5%
Total	404	99.8%
Missing	1	0.2%
Position		
Employee (Only)	298	73.6%
Supervisor (Also)	102	25.2%
Other	5	1.2%
Total	405	100.0%
Missing	0	0.0%
Type of Employment		
Full-Time	405	100.0%
Part-Time	0	0.0%
Total	405	100.0%
Missing	0	0.0%

Table 4.6 shows that female millennial frontline employees relatively outnumber their male counterparts, with representation at 52.1% compared to 47.2%. The frontline employees targeted for the study are representative of the millennial generational cohort (born between the years 1980 and 2000). This comprises frontline employees aged between 18 and 38 years (Gursoy et al., 2008; Pew Research Center, 2014).

Table 4.6 shows that most millennial frontline employees were aged between 32 and 38 years with representation at 37.3%. This is followed by millennial frontline employees aged between 27-31 years and 22-26 years at 30.4% and 26.7%, respectively. Millennial frontline employees aged between 18 and 21 years represented 4.7% of the sample population.

For the distribution of respondents by marital status, Table 4.6 shows that most millennial frontline employees are married, with representation at 53.8%. This is followed by those who are single, at 42.7%. A small proportion, about 3%, of millennial frontline employees are separated, divorced, or widowed.

Table 4.6 also shows that most millennial frontline employees are educated beyond secondary school level and hold a professional diploma, with representation at 63.7%. This is followed by millennial frontline employees who hold a Bachelor's degree and secondary school level qualification, with representation at 16.5% and 13.6%, respectively. Only 3%, of millennial frontline employees were observed to hold a Master's degree.

As shown in Table 4.6, most millennial frontline employees, 47.4%, had tenures of four or more years, followed by 33.8% who had tenures for one to three years. The remaining millennial frontline employees, 17.8%, had tenures for under a year.

The elicited data represented at least 9 different departments (job categories). As shown in Table 4.6, most millennial frontline employees were working in the front office with representation at 26.2%, followed by those who were working in housekeeping and as waiters/waitresses at 19% and 18%, respectively. The rest were working as guest relations representatives (4.4%), bell attendants (3.5%), door attendants (2.2%), spa attendants (5.7%), concierge/guest transfer at 4.7%, and bar attendants (6.7%). A further 9.1% reported working in other departments (job categories) as conference facility representatives, cashiers and front office salespersons. Table 4.6 also shows that while most millennials work exclusively as frontline employees with representation at 74%, only 25% reported additional responsibilities, i.e. also working as supervisors. In addition, the type of employment for all millennial frontline employees (100%), was reported as 'Full-Time'.

For supplementary insights, demographic variables such as number of children (family size), number of years of experience in the hospitality industry, and position within organization, were used to elicit additional data. Table 4.6 shows that most millennial frontline employees have 1-2 children, with representation at 49%, followed by 36.3% representing millennial frontline employees who reported that they did not have children. An even smaller proportion of millennial frontline employees, 14%, reported that they have 3-4 children.

Further, Table 4.6 shows that 57.5% of millennial frontline employees have been employed in the hospitality industry for 5 or more years, followed by those who have work experience of 3-4 years with representation at 22%. Lastly, millennial frontline employees who reported that they have worked in the industry for less than 1 year or 1-2 years represented 21% of all sampled respondents.

4.4 Preparation for Factor Analysis

4.4.1 Factorability

To evaluate the adequacy of the construct items for factor analysis, all independent (predictor) variables were inter-correlated (Hair et al., 2014a, 2018a). As a rule of thumb, an independent (predictor) variable item found to inter-correlate with a score below 0.300 with any other item

within the same construct must be excluded prior to factor analysis as it would reduce the factorability of the data (Hair et al., 1998; Hair et al., 2014a, 2018a).

Correlation matrices of (1) the 24 items for the dimensions of High-Performance Work Practices (HPWPs), i.e. 6 items for Training (TR), 5 items for Empowerment (EMP), 5 items for Rewards (RW), 4 items for Job Security (JS), and 4 items for Career Opportunities (CO), and (2) the 17 items for the dimensions of Work Engagement, i.e. 6 items for Vigour (VI), 5 items for Dedication (DE), and 6 items for Absorption (ABS), were obtained and used to assess whether these variables were appropriate for factor analysis. The instrument items CO2, DE5, ABS5 and ABS6, did not adequately inter-correlate with construct items, with each inter-correlating with a score below 0.300, and were therefore excluded from further analyses.

The inter-correlation matrix tabulated outputs of tests for item factorability are presented in Appendix D.

4.4.2 Test for Common Method Bias

The Harman's (1976) Single-Factor Test (Podsakoff and Organ, 1986) was employed to assess the common method variance of variables using an Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA). According to Podsakoff et al. (2003) common method bias is detected if a single factor explains over 50% of the variance for all variables.

In total, 51 variables for the construct dimensions of High-Performance Work Practices (HPWPs), work engagement, and job outcomes i.e. creative performance, extra-role customer service and turnover intention, were submitted to a Principal Component Analysis (PCA) with an unrotated factor solution. This solution to the PCA showed 11 emergent factors with Eigen values i.e. variance per factor (Hair et al., 2014a, 2018a), exceeding 1.000 and accounting for 70.904% of the combined variance in variables. The first and last factors explained 22.738% and 2.042% of the variance in variables. Consequently, no single factor explained over 50% of the variance for all variables, therefore common method bias was not detected.

The result of Harman's (1976) Single-Factor Test is shown in Table 4.7.

Table 4.7. Results of Harman's (1976) Single-Factor Test						
Component	Initial Eigen Values			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	11.596	22.738	22.738	11.596	22.738	22.738
2	5.201	10.199	32.937	5.201	10.199	32.937
3	4.042	7.926	40.863	4.042	7.926	40.863
4	3.506	6.875	47.738	3.506	6.875	47.738
5	2.661	5.217	52.955	2.661	5.217	52.955

6	2.304	4.517	57.427	2.304	4.517	57.427
7	1.844	3.616	61.087	1.844	3.616	61.087
8	1.524	2.989	64.076	1.524	2.989	64.076
9	1.310	2.568	66.644	1.310	2.568	66.644
10	1.131	2.217	68.861	1.131	2.217	68.861
11	1.042	2.042	70.904	1.042	2.042	70.904

4.5 Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA)

Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA) was applied to establish the unidimensionality of each variable (Urbach and Ahlemann, 2010). EFA involves two approaches, i.e. (1) extraction, and (2) rotation.

First, extraction was mainly used to summarize (compact) the information within a number of variables into fewer variates (factors) or composite dimensions with minimal loss of data. Second, rotation was used to re-distribute factor variance to attain a simpler, more theoretically meaningful configuration (Hair et al., 2018a).

PCA was selected as the factor extraction method for the study. Promax, was selected as the factor rotation method for the study. Therefore, PCA factor extraction with Promax rotation were selected for EFA.

To establish practical significance, factor loadings were assessed and interpreted based on three conditions. First, items should have high loadings on any single factor. Factor loadings exceeding 0.300 are considered high loadings for a sample size of greater than 350 (Hair et al., 2018a). Second, instrument items that cross-load (have high loadings on two or more factors) are excluded except where theoretically justified (Hair et al., 2014a, 2018a). Third, items should generally have communalities exceeding 0.500 (Hair et al., 2014a, 2018a).

Bartlett's Test of Sphericity (Bartlett, 1954) and the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) Measure of Sampling Adequacy (Kaiser, 1970), were also applied. For present study, a KMO Measure of Sampling Adequacy exceeding 0.600 and a significant Bartlett's Test of Sphericity ($p < 0.05$) were used to further confirm that factor analysis was appropriate (Pallant, 2010). The Kaiser's Criterion or Eigen value rule was also considered. Factors with an Eigen value of 1.000 or more were preserved, while those with Eigen values of less than 1.000 were excluded (Pallant, 2010).

The construct dimensions of (1) High-Performance Work Practices (HPWPs) i.e. 5 dimensions (variables), (2) work engagement i.e. 3 dimensions (variables) and (3) job

outcomes i.e. 3 dimensions (variables), were in sequence submitted to a Principal Component Analysis (PCA) with Promax rotation (Hair et al., 2014a, 2018a).

First, PCA results for the dimensions (variables) of High-Performance Work Practices (HPWPs) are presented in Table 4.8.

Dimension (Variable)	Item	Component (Factor)				
		1	2	3	4	5
Training	TR1	0.767				
	TR2	0.729				
	TR3	0.854				
	TR4	0.865				
	TR5	0.835				
	TR6	0.798				
Empowerment	EMP1			0.723		
	EMP2			0.868		
	EMP3			0.804		
	EMP4			0.843		
	EMP5			0.765		
Rewards	RW1		0.866			
	RW2		0.838			
	RW3		0.939			
	RW4		0.859			
	RW5		0.853			
Job Security	JS1				0.677	
	JS2				0.824	
	JS3				0.822	
	JS4				0.847	
Career Opportunities	CO1					0.643
	CO3					0.909
	CO4					0.809

Note: Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis, Rotation Method: Promax with Kaiser Normalization, 5 components extracted and Rotation converged in 6 iterations, Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy: 0.899, Bartlett's Test of Sphericity: $\chi^2 = 5480.876$; $df = 253$; $p = 0.000$, Factor Loadings with absolute values <0.30 are suppressed.

A clean factor structure pattern and optimal solution of factor loadings was obtained as only a single-instance PCA-run was applied to the dimensions (variables) of High-Performance Work Practices (HPWPs). All items had communalities of greater than the accepted threshold of 0.500, no item cross-loadings were observed, and all items had loadings of greater than 0.300. The lowest factor loading was 0.643 for item CO1 and the highest was 0.939 for item RW3. For each dimension (variable), all items were observed to load on a single distinct factor.

The dimensions (variables) of HPWPs consisted of 23 items and 5 emergent factors. Their Eigen values were higher than 1.000, accounting for 68.547% of the variance. Factor 1 had an Eigen value of 7.971 and accounted for 34.658% of the variance. Factor 2 had an Eigen value of 2.604 and accounted for 11.324% of the variance. Factor 3 had an Eigen value of 2.125 and explained 9.240% of the variance. Factor 4 had an Eigen value of 1.991 and accounted for

8.656% of the variance. Factor 5 had an Eigen value of 1.074 and accounted for 4.669% of the variance.

Results of the Total Variance Explained by the dimensions (variables) of High-Performance Work Practices (HPWPs), are presented in Table 4.9.

Table 4.9. Total Variance Explained: High-Performance Work Practices (HPWPs)						
Component	Initial Eigen Values			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	7.971	34.658	34.658	7.971	34.658	34.658
2	2.604	11.324	45.981	2.604	11.324	45.981
3	2.125	9.240	55.222	2.125	9.240	55.222
4	1.991	8.656	63.878	1.991	8.656	63.878
5	1.074	4.669	68.547	1.074	4.669	68.547
6	0.752	3.271	71.819			
7	0.674	2.931	74.750			
8	0.619	2.690	77.440			
9	0.595	2.589	80.029			
10	0.547	2.379	82.408			
11	0.491	2.135	84.543			
12	0.466	2.026	86.568			
13	0.403	1.753	88.321			
14	0.382	1.663	89.984			
15	0.356	1.546	91.530			
16	0.343	1.490	93.021			
17	0.324	1.411	94.431			
18	0.308	1.341	95.773			
19	0.274	1.191	96.964			
20	0.225	0.978	97.942			
21	0.199	0.865	98.807			
22	0.139	0.605	99.412			
23	0.135	0.588	100.000			

In addition to the optimal solutions of factor loadings obtained for each dimension (variable) of High-Performance Work Practices (HPWPs), the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) Measure of Sampling Adequacy and the Bartlett's Test of Sphericity were applied. KMO values of 0.899 (> 0.600) and a significant Bartlett's Test of Sphericity ($p < 0.05$) were obtained. The minimum recommended KMO threshold value is 0.600 (Pallant, 2010; Brace et al., 2012). Thus, any obtained value greater than 0.800 was considered exemplary (Hair et al., 2018a).

Results of the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) Measure of Sampling Adequacy and Bartlett's Test of Sphericity for the dimensions (variables) of High-Performance Work Practices (HPWPs), are presented in Table 4.10.

Table 4.10. KMO and Bartlett's Test Results: High-Performance Work Practices (HPWPs)		
Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) Measure of Sampling Adequacy		0.899
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	5480.876
	df	253
	Sig,	.000

Second, PCA results for the dimension measures (variables) of work engagement are presented in Table 4.11.

Table 4.11. Principal Component Analysis (PCA) Result: Work Engagement				
Dimension (Variable)	Item	Component (Factor)		
		1	2	3
Vigour	VI2	0.674		
	VI3	0.759		
	VI4	0.899		
	VI5	0.875		
	VI6	0.656		
Dedication	DE1		0.837	
	DE2		0.822	
	DE3		0.889	
	DE4		0.882	
Absorption	ABS1			0.644
	ABS2			0.898
	ABS3			0.734
	ABS4			0.659

Note: Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis, Rotation Method: Promax with Kaiser Normalization, 3 components extracted and Rotation converged in 5 iterations, Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy: 0.911, Bartlett's Test of Sphericity: $\chi^2 = 2610.370$; df = 78; $p = 0.000$, Factor Loadings with absolute values <0.30 are suppressed.

A clean factor structure for the dimensions (variables) of work engagement was not obtained upon first instance. Item VI1 cross-loaded on two factors (1 and 2) with a high loading, i.e. greater than 0.300 and was excluded. Following the exclusion of item VI1, a second PCA was run, after which an optimal factor structure pattern and solution was obtained. All items had communalities of greater than the accepted threshold of 0.500, no item cross-loadings were observed after the second PCA-run, and all items had loadings of greater than 0.300. The lowest factor loading was 0.644 for item ABS1, and the highest was 0.899 for item VI4. For each dimension (variable), all items were observed to load on a single distinct factor.

The dimensions (variables) of work engagement consisted of 13 items and 3 emergent factors. Their Eigen values were higher than 1.000, accounting for 66.267% of the variance. Factor 1 had an Eigen value of 6.152 and accounted for 47.327% of the variance. Factor 2 had an Eigen value of 1.301 and explained 10.005% of the variance. Factor 3 had an Eigen value of 1.162 and accounted for 8.935% of the variance.

Results of the Total Variance Explained by the dimensions (variables) of work engagement, are presented in Table 4.12.

Table 4.12. Total Variance Explained: Work Engagement						
Component	Initial Eigen Values			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	6.152	47.327	47.327	6.152	47.327	47.327
2	1.301	10.005	57.332	1.301	10.005	57.332
3	1.161	8.935	66.267	1.161	8.935	66.267
4	0.659	5.073	71.339			
5	0.626	4.816	76.155			
6	0.583	4.487	80.642			
7	0.497	3.824	84.466			
8	0.459	3.527	87.993			
9	0.407	3.129	91.123			
10	0.344	2.648	93.771			
11	0.292	2.248	96.019			
12	0.262	2.017	98.036			
13	0.255	1.964	100.000			

In addition to the optimal solutions of factor loadings obtained for each dimension (variable) of work engagement, the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) Measure of Sampling Adequacy and the Bartlett's Test of Sphericity were applied. KMO values of 0.911 (> 0.600) and a significant Bartlett's Test of Sphericity ($p < 0.05$) were obtained.

Results of the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) Measure of Sampling Adequacy and Bartlett's Test of Sphericity for the dimensions (variables) of work engagement, are presented in Table 4.13.

Table 4.13. KMO and Bartlett's Test Results: Work Engagement		
Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) Measure of Sampling Adequacy		0.911
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	2621.370
	df	78
	Sig.	.000

Third, PCA results for the dimensions (variables) of job outcomes i.e. creative performance, extra-role customer service, and turnover intention, are presented in Table 4.14.

Table 4.14. Principal Component Analysis (PCA) Result: Job Outcomes				
Dimension (Variable)	Item	Component (Factor)		
		1	2	3
Creative Performance	CRP1	0.854		
	CRP2	0.899		
	CRP3	0.844		
	CRP4	0.817		
	CRP5	0.885		
	CRP6	0.896		
Extra-Role Customer Service	ERCS1		0.849	
	ERCS2		0.807	
	ERCS3		0.868	
	ERCS4		0.897	
	ERCS5		0.874	
Turnover Intention	TI1			0.896
	TI2			0.871
	TI3			0.926

Note: Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis, Rotation Method: Promax with Kaiser Normalization, 3 components extracted and Rotation converged in 4 iterations, Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy: 0.859, Bartlett's Test of Sphericity: $\chi^2 = 4030.839$; df = 91; $p = 0.000$, Factor Loadings with absolute values <0.30 are suppressed.

A clean factor structure pattern and optimal solutions of factor loadings was obtained as only a single-instance PCA-run was applied to the dimensions (variables) of job outcomes. All items had communalities of greater than the accepted threshold of 0.500, no item cross-loadings were observed, and all items had loadings of greater than 0.300. The lowest factor loading was 0.807 for the item ERCS2, and the highest was 0.926 for item TI3. For each dimension (variable), all items were observed to load on a single distinct factor.

The dimensions (variables) of job outcomes consisted of 14 items and 3 emergent factors. Their Eigen values were higher than 1.000, accounting for 76.039% of the variance. Factor 1 had an Eigen value of 4.559 and accounted for 32.565% of the variance. Factor 2 had an Eigen value of 3.687 and accounted for 26.337% of the variance. Factor 3 had an Eigen value of 2.399 and accounted for 17.137% of the variance.

Results of the Total Variance Explained by the dimensions (variables) of job outcomes, are presented in Table 4.15.

Table 4.15. Total Variance Explained: Job Outcomes						
Component	Initial Eigen Values			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	4.559	32.565	32.565	4.559	32.565	32.565
2	3.687	26.337	58.901	3.687	26.337	58.901
3	2.399	17.137	76.039	2.399	17.137	76.039
4	0.505	3.610	79.648			
5	0.425	3.037	82.685			
6	0.409	2.922	85.608			
7	0.365	2.604	88.212			
8	0.324	2.314	90.526			
9	0.297	2.123	92.648			
10	0.282	2.012	94.660			
11	0.218	1.558	96.218			
12	0.215	1.534	97.752			
13	0.168	1.199	98.951			
14	0.147	1.049	100.000			

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis

To supplement the optimal solutions of factor loadings obtained for each dimension (variable) of job outcomes, the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) Measure of Sampling Adequacy and the Bartlett's Test of Sphericity were applied. KMO values of 0.859 (> 0.600) and a significant Bartlett's Test of Sphericity ($p < 0.05$) were obtained.

Results of the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) Measure of Sampling Adequacy and Bartlett's Test of Sphericity for the dimensions (variables) of job outcomes, are presented in Table 4.16.

Table 4.16. KMO and Bartlett's Test Results: Job Outcomes		
Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) Measure of Sampling Adequacy		0.859
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	4030.839
	df	91
	Sig.	.000

4.5.1 Instrument (Construct) Validity and Reliability

In line with PCA, for which the optimal solutions of factor loadings were obtained for the study variable dimensions (i.e. all factors exhibited loadings greater than 0.300), Cronbach's Coefficient Alpha (α) scores were computed to establish the reliabilities of the refined scales to test their internal consistencies. For variable (dimensions) items deemed to be reliable, a cut-off threshold value of at least 0.700 is considered appropriate (Cronbach, 1951; Nunnally and Bernstein, 1994).

The refined scales for each dimension (variable) of HPWPs, work engagement, and job outcomes, had acceptable Cronbach's Coefficient Alpha (α) reliability scores, and were retained for further analyses. In addition, these dimensions (variables) exhibited acceptable discriminant and convergent validities. To establish the convergent validity of all dimensions (variables), their Average Variance Extracted (AVE) values were measured as per the formula (Fornell and Larcker, 1981):

$$AVE = \frac{\sum[\lambda_i^2]Var(X)}{\sum[\lambda_i^2]Var(X) + \sum[Var(\varepsilon_i)]}$$

where:

λ_i = The Loading of x_i on X

Var = Variance

ε_i = The Measurement Error of x_i

Σ = Denotes a Sum

A cut-off threshold value of at least 0.500 is acceptable for convergent validity to be established (Fornell and Larker, 1981).

The square root of the calculated AVE (SQRT AVE) was obtained to establish discriminant validity.

Overall, the revised scales exhibited acceptable reliabilities, and convergent and discriminant validities.

The construct validities and reliabilities of all dimensions (variables) of HPWPs, work engagement, and job outcomes, are presented in Table 4.17.

Variable (Dimension)	Scale Items	No. of Items	Factor Loading	Cronbach's Alpha (α)	AVE	SQRT AVE
Training	TR1	6	0.767	0.895	0.655	0.809
	TR2		0.729			
	TR3		0.854			
	TR4		0.865			
	TR5		0.835			
	TR6		0.798			
Empowerment	EMP1	5	0.723	0.859	0.644	0.802
	EMP2		0.868			
	EMP3		0.804			
	EMP4		0.843			
	EMP5		0.765			
Rewards	RW1	5	0.866	0.923	0.760	0.872
	RW2		0.838			
	RW3		0.939			
	RW4		0.859			
	RW5		0.853			
Job Security	JS1	4	0.677	0.820	0.633	0.796
	JS2		0.824			
	JS3		0.822			
	JS4		0.847			
Career Opportunities	CO1	3	0.643	0.721	0.631	0.794
	CO3		0.909			
	CO4		0.809			
Vigour	VI2	5	0.674	0.862	0.607	0.779
	VI3		0.759			
	VI4		0.899			
	VI5		0.875			
	VI6		0.656			
Dedication	DE1	4	0.837	0.876	0.736	0.858
	DE2		0.822			
	DE3		0.889			
	DE4		0.882			
Absorption	ABS1	4	0.644	0.743	0.549	0.741
	ABS2		0.898			
	ABS3		0.734			
	ABS4		0.659			
Creative Performance	CRP1	6	0.854	0.933	0.751	0.867
	CRP2		0.899			
	CRP3		0.844			
	CRP4		0.817			
	CRP5		0.885			
	CRP6		0.896			
Extra-Role Customer Service	ERCS1	5	0.849	0.911	0.739	0.860
	ERCS2		0.807			
	ERCS3		0.868			
	ERCS4		0.897			
	ERCS5		0.874			
Turnover Intention	TI1	3	0.896	0.880	0.806	0.898
	TI2		0.871			
	TI3		0.926			

4.6 Item Analysis

Item analyses of all the study variables were carried out to determine the internal reliability of all the measurement items. Cronbach's Coefficient Alpha (α) values for each measurement item were obtained as an indicator of scale reliability. Values between 0.600 and 0.700 and above are considered acceptable measures that indicate the reliability of a scale (Brace et al., 2012; Hair et al., 2014a). The item measures exhibited reliabilities well above the thresholds.

Correlated item-total correlation was also evaluated. Measurement items with values lower than 0.200 are indicative of an item's inadequacy to measure a specific variable satisfactorily (Nunnally, 1978). Thus, items with values below the acceptable threshold of 0.200 were recommended for deletion as this would result in a higher overall Cronbach's Coefficient Alpha (α) value for the measurement scale. Measurement items for the present study exhibited values well above the recommended threshold and therefore, none were deleted from the overall variable scales.

Reliability results of the measurement items associated with training, empowerment, rewards, job security, career opportunities as indicators of HPWPs, vigour, dedication and absorption as dimensions of work engagement, and the three variables creative performance, extra-role customer service, and turnover intention as job outcomes, are presented in Table 4.18.

Table 4.18. Item Analysis: Reliability and Item Statistics for all Scale Measurement Items

Variable (Dimension)	Scale Items	Scale Mean If Item Deleted	Scale Variance If Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlations	Squared Multiple Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha (α) If Item Deleted	Cronbach's Alpha (α) Standardized	Cronbach's Alpha (α)	No. of Items
Training	TR1	20.936	11.111	0.650	0.441	0.887	0.896	0.895	6
	TR2	21.034	11.188	0.590	0.374	0.897			
	TR3	20.866	11.266	0.714	0.520	0.879			
	TR4	21.071	10.221	0.792	0.671	0.865			
	TR5	21.058	10.159	0.807	0.764	0.862			
	TR6	21.071	10.218	0.770	0.709	0.868			
Empowerment	EMP1	13.590	14.722	0.606	0.370	0.846	0.860	0.859	5
	EMP2	14.103	13.450	0.641	0.440	0.840			
	EMP3	14.271	12.849	0.734	0.554	0.814			
	EMP4	13.804	14.067	0.716	0.549	0.820			
	EMP5	13.642	14.131	0.694	0.528	0.825			
Rewards	RW1	13.568	15.938	0.770	0.594	0.912	0.924	0.923	5
	RW2	13.563	16.469	0.723	0.538	0.921			
	RW3	13.639	15.698	0.838	0.705	0.899			
	RW4	13.732	15.737	0.846	0.756	0.897			
	RW5	13.825	15.649	0.830	0.744	0.900			
Job Security	JS1	8.506	9.622	0.596	0.387	0.794	0.820	0.820	4
	JS2	8.941	9.447	0.674	0.466	0.759			
	JS3	8.553	8.525	0.735	0.542	0.727			
	JS4	8.474	9.621	0.569	0.358	0.807			
Career Opportunities	CO1	6.7945	3.521	0.540	0.293	0.640	0.723	0.721	3
	CO3	7.042	3.143	0.529	0.280	0.650			
	CO4	7.079	3.052	0.562	0.317	0.608			
Vigour	VI2	16.164	8.012	0.666	0.488	0.836	0.863	0.862	5
	VI3	16.100	7.837	0.694	0.484	0.829			
	VI4	16.266	7.721	0.637	0.421	0.846			
	VI5	16.169	8.214	0.685	0.489	0.832			
	VI6	16.147	7.809	0.728	0.566	0.821			
Dedication	DE1	12.9689	3.860	0.658	0.465	0.873	0.878	0.876	4
	DE2	12.9501	3.889	0.785	0.618	0.823			
	DE3	12.956	3.726	0.755	0.604	0.832			
	DE4	12.845	3.850	0.744	0.587	0.837			
Absorption	ABS1	11.711	4.324	0.515	0.302	0.697	0.759	0.743	4
	ABS2	12.221	3.572	0.489	0.244	0.734			
	ABS3	11.792	4.021	0.575	0.392	0.663			
	ABS4	11.575	4.282	0.622	0.447	0.650			
Creative Performance	CRP1	11.136	27.274	0.789	0.666	0.923	0.933	0.933	6
	CRP2	10.857	27.177	0.853	0.757	0.915			
	CRP3	10.725	28.044	0.774	0.630	0.924			
	CRP4	10.735	28.141	0.740	0.555	0.929			
	CRP5	10.774	27.024	0.822	0.690	0.918			
	CRP6	10.910	26.599	0.841	0.730	0.916			
Extra-Role Customer Service	ERCS1	16.220	11.043	0.760	0.583	0.894	0.911	0.911	5
	ERCS2	16.405	11.484	0.707	0.525	0.905			
	ERCS3	16.284	11.333	0.786	0.620	0.889			
	ERCS4	16.183	11.090	0.827	0.744	0.880			
	ERCS5	16.262	11.040	0.793	0.717	0.887			
Turnover Intention	TI1	4.969	5.304	0.764	0.605	0.835	0.880	0.880	3
	TI2	4.832	5.186	0.729	0.538	0.864			
	TI3	4.746	4.589	0.815	0.669	0.786			

4.7 Reliability Results for Variables (Dimensions) of High-Performance Work Practices (HPWPs), Work Engagement, and Job Outcomes

Results of reliability analysis presented in Table 4.18 show that for the manifest HPWPs indicators, the dimension (variable) training, consisting of six (6) items, exhibited an overall Cronbach's Coefficient Alpha (α) reliability score of 0.895. The dimensions (variables) empowerment and rewards, each comprising five (5) items, exhibited overall Cronbach's Coefficient Alpha (α) reliability scores of 0.859 and 0.923, respectively. The dimensions (variables) job security and career opportunities, each consisting of four (4) and three (3) items, exhibited Cronbach's Coefficient Alpha (α) reliability scores of 0.820 and 0.721, respectively.

Further, the results shown in Table 4.18 indicate that for work engagement, the dimension (variable) vigour, comprising five (5) items, had an overall Cronbach's Coefficient Alpha (α) reliability score of 0.862. The dimensions (variables) dedication and absorption, each comprising four (4) items each, had overall Cronbach's Coefficient Alpha (α) reliability scores of 0.876 and 0.743, respectively.

Results in Table 4.18 also show that for job outcomes, the dimension (variable) creative performance, consisting of six (6) items, exhibited an overall Cronbach's Coefficient Alpha (α) reliability score of 0.933. The dimensions (variables) extra-role customer service and turnover intention, comprising five (5) and three (3) items each, exhibited overall Cronbach's Coefficient Alpha (α) reliability scores of 0.911 and 0.880, respectively.

The Cronbach's Coefficient Alpha (α) reliability scores of variables (dimension) of HPWPs manifest indicators training, empowerment, rewards, job security and career opportunities, work engagement variables (dimensions) vigour, dedication, and absorption, and job outcomes variables (dimensions) creative performance, extra-role customer service, and turnover intention, were all observed to surpass the recommended cut-off threshold value of 0.700 (Brace et al., 2012; Hair et al., 2014a), thus confirming the reliability of their respective measurement scale items.

Further, reliability analysis of these measurement scale items of HPWPs indicator variables (dimensions) training, empowerment, rewards, job security and career opportunities, work engagement variables (dimensions) vigour, dedication, and absorption, and job outcomes variables (dimensions) creative performance, extra-role customer service, and turnover

intention, were observed to have item-total correlation values exceeding the recommended acceptable threshold of 0.200, thus denoting excellent item reliabilities (Nunnally, 1978).

In summary, reliability results of the measurement items as presented in Table 4.18 clearly indicate that all dimensions (variables) were found to have a Cronbach's Coefficient Alpha (α) reliability score above the recommended threshold value of 0.700 (Brace et al., 2012; Hair et al., 2014a), with high item-total correlations on each measurement item. Therefore, each measurement scale was considered to be reliable and internally consistent.

4.8 Evaluation of the Measurement Model: Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA)

Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) was applied to evaluate measurement model constructs for internal consistency reliability, convergent validity, and discriminant validity.

To estimate the parameters of constructs in the measurement model, a Partial Least Squares – Structural Equation Modeling (PLS-SEM) algorithm was run using a path weighting scheme, which estimates the latent variable using regression and correlations. Specifically, the loadings of the measurement items on each latent variable are specified in the model and their correlations determined (Gefen and Straub, 2004; Hair et al., 2017).

The results from Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) were used to validate (check) the properties of measurement (outer) model constructs (to ensure convergent and discriminant validities), prior to testing of hypotheses via the structural path (inner) model.

CFA can be used to provide inter-alia, a confirmatory test of measurement theory. A measurement theory is used to specify how variables that are measured systematically and logically represent constructs in a theoretical model. In other words, measurement theory is used to specify relationships that depict how measured variables represent a latent construct, i.e. not directly measured. The measurement theory can then be used in conjunction with a structural theory to fully specify a SEM model (Hair et al., 2014a.).

Thus, the measurement model is empirically evaluated following EFA. Notably, compared to the prior EFA, CFA negates the need to summate scales from data because in SEM, latent variable scores are computed, thus allowing inter-construct relationships to be auto-corrected for the amount of error variance inherent in construct measures. Moreover, a core objective

of CFA in concert with SEM is to evaluate the construct validity in a measurement model (Hair et al., 2014a).

As evidenced in Table 4.19, results of the CFA are not substantively different from, and corroborate, values of the EFA reported in Table 4.17, therefore confirming construct reliabilities and validities.

Results of the reflective measurement model evaluation, are presented in Table 4.19.

Table 4.19. Reflective Measurement Model								
Latent Variable		Indicators	No. of Items	Internal Consistency Reliability		Convergent Validity		
				Composite Reliability (ρ_c)	Cronbach's Alpha (α)	Outer Loadings	Indicator Reliability	AVE
High-Performance Work Practices	Training	TR1	6	0.921	0.896	0.756	0.572	0.660
		TR2				0.688	0.473	
		TR3				0.814	0.663	
		TR4				0.869	0.755	
		TR5				0.877	0.769	
		TR6				0.854	0.729	
	Empowerment	EMP1	5	0.898	0.860	0.717	0.514	0.639
		EMP2				0.715	0.511	
		EMP3				0.842	0.709	
		EMP4				0.862	0.743	
		EMP5				0.846	0.716	
	Rewards	RW1	5	0.943	0.924	0.853	0.728	0.767
		RW2				0.828	0.686	
		RW3				0.900	0.810	
		RW4				0.904	0.817	
		RW5				0.892	0.796	
	Job Security	JS1	4	0.881	0.820	0.805	0.648	0.650
		JS2				0.811	0.658	
		JS3				0.865	0.748	
		JS4				0.738	0.545	
	Career Opportunities	CO1	3	0.844	0.723	0.821	0.674	0.643
		CO3				0.793	0.629	
		CO4				0.791	0.626	
Work Engagement	Vigour	VI2	5	0.901	0.863	0.816	0.666	0.646
		VI3				0.804	0.646	
		VI4				0.761	0.579	
		VI5				0.790	0.624	
		VI6				0.846	0.716	
	Dedication	DE1	4	0.916	0.878	0.808	0.653	0.733
		DE2				0.888	0.789	
		DE3				0.868	0.753	
		DE4				0.858	0.736	
	Absorption	ABS1	4	0.846	0.759	0.702	0.493	0.580
		ABS2				0.668	0.446	
		ABS3				0.822	0.676	
		ABS4				0.840	0.706	
Job Outcomes	Creative Performance	CRP1	6	0.946	0.933	0.826	0.682	0.746
		CRP2				0.889	0.790	
		CRP3				0.866	0.750	
		CRP4				0.840	0.706	
		CRP5				0.887	0.787	
		CRP6				0.873	0.762	

	Extra-Role Customer Service	ERCS1	5	0.934	0.911	0.840	0.706	0.739
		ERCS2				0.791	0.626	
		ERCS3				0.867	0.752	
		ERCS4				0.908	0.824	
		ERCS5				0.886	0.785	
	Turnover Intention	TI1	3	0.926	0.880	0.908	0.824	0.806
		TI2				0.865	0.748	
		TI3				0.920	0.846	

4.8.1 Convergent Validity

Individual indicator reliability was used to evaluate convergent validity.

To establish indicator reliability, outer loadings of the indicators were considered. Hair et al. (2017) postulated that on a construct, high outer-loadings demonstrate that its related indicators possess similar aspects to each other and are captured by the construct. As per Hair et al.'s (2017) general rule of thumb, construct indicators which have outer loadings of 0.708 or above are preserved, whereas typically, those below 0.708 but above 0.400 are considered for elimination.

The results presented in Table 4.19 show that all outer loadings of indicator items scored above the recommend cut-off value of 0.708, with the exception of one training indicator TR2 with an outer loading of 0.688, and two absorption indicators ABS1 and ABS2 with outer loadings of 0.702 and 0.668, respectively. These three indicators were, however, retained because their overall construct composite reliability and Cronbach's Alpha scores were above the cut-off value of 0.700 (Hair et al., 2014a). Consequently, the convergent validity of the reflective measurement model was established, as all construct indicators had significant loadings on their respective latent variables (Anderson and Gerbing, 1988).

In addition, the results presented in Table 4.19 indicate that the Average Variance Extracted (AVE) values for each of the reflective measurement model's latent variables (constructs) was greater than the prescribed threshold value of 0.500 (Hair et al., 2017). Thus, in addition to assessing construct outer loadings, the reflective measurement model's convergent validity was further established.

Overall, results of the reflective measurement model evaluation indicated satisfactory convergent validity.

4.8.2 Discriminant Validity

To evaluate discriminant validity, three approaches were employed.

First, discriminant validity was evaluated by assessing indicator cross-loadings. That is, the outer loadings of an indicator on the associated construct should score higher than any of its cross-loadings (correlations) on other model constructs (Chin 1998; Hair et al., 2017).

The results of indicator cross-loadings are presented in Table 4.20.

	ABS	CO	CRP	DE	EMP	ERCS	JS	RW	TR	TI	VI
ABS 1	0.702	0.153	0.027	0.401	0.213	0.138	0.134	0.182	0.213	-0.179	0.441
ABS 2	0.668	0.229	0.000	0.272	0.209	0.177	0.188	0.148	0.140	-0.098	0.270
ABS 3	0.822	0.233	-0.101	0.439	0.285	0.279	0.186	0.204	0.249	-0.212	0.410
ABS 4	0.840	0.173	-0.087	0.535	0.301	0.192	0.193	0.148	0.302	-0.211	0.481
CO 1	0.224	0.821	0.116	0.278	0.362	0.100	0.398	0.442	0.364	-0.251	0.235
CO 3	0.193	0.793	0.021	0.210	0.276	0.087	0.313	0.365	0.270	-0.175	0.263
CO 4	0.200	0.791	0.093	0.157	0.286	0.107	0.366	0.424	0.225	-0.207	0.241
CRP 1	-0.010	0.155	0.826	-0.066	0.143	0.077	0.085	0.221	0.028	0.059	-0.082
CRP 2	-0.080	0.088	0.889	-0.060	0.029	0.078	0.070	0.142	0.036	0.077	-0.094
CRP 3	-0.071	0.042	0.866	-0.045	-0.116	0.009	-0.011	0.048	-0.059	0.070	-0.114
CRP 4	-0.023	0.059	0.840	0.014	0.040	-0.016	0.017	0.165	0.034	0.068	-0.096
CRP 5	-0.073	0.105	0.887	-0.030	-0.068	-0.021	0.042	0.172	-0.039	0.019	-0.099
CRP 6	-0.072	0.096	0.873	-0.060	-0.014	0.060	-0.003	0.136	-0.009	0.023	-0.071
DE 1	0.413	0.247	-0.013	0.808	0.277	0.151	0.222	0.249	0.353	-0.324	0.493
DE 2	0.527	0.251	-0.040	0.888	0.313	0.195	0.166	0.250	0.380	-0.339	0.579
DE 3	0.481	0.234	-0.024	0.868	0.262	0.089	0.243	0.255	0.318	-0.387	0.549
DE 4	0.465	0.201	-0.067	0.858	0.231	0.101	0.169	0.187	0.343	-0.374	0.558
EMP 1	0.223	0.265	0.030	0.186	0.717	0.245	0.128	0.318	0.373	-0.123	0.109
EMP 2	0.197	0.208	0.002	0.125	0.715	0.238	0.163	0.221	0.256	-0.040	0.058
EMP 3	0.300	0.395	-0.015	0.254	0.842	0.238	0.280	0.384	0.329	-0.187	0.181
EMP 4	0.306	0.282	-0.039	0.321	0.862	0.202	0.230	0.306	0.337	-0.076	0.222
EMP 5	0.285	0.360	-0.008	0.306	0.846	0.229	0.280	0.310	0.396	-0.137	0.220
ERCS 1	0.204	0.099	-0.013	0.155	0.224	0.840	-0.028	0.171	0.171	0.045	0.118
ERCS 2	0.182	0.133	0.025	0.100	0.240	0.791	0.000	0.168	0.104	0.032	0.102
ERCS 3	0.229	0.126	0.039	0.127	0.241	0.867	-0.012	0.207	0.156	-0.008	0.112
ERCS 4	0.266	0.090	0.018	0.173	0.232	0.908	0.019	0.139	0.130	0.048	0.140
ERCS 5	0.244	0.086	0.039	0.113	0.270	0.886	-0.018	0.113	0.133	0.067	0.116
JS 1	0.209	0.409	0.034	0.212	0.251	0.088	0.805	0.333	0.223	-0.163	0.211
JS 2	0.162	0.331	0.043	0.156	0.264	-0.063	0.811	0.277	0.180	-0.186	0.161
JS 3	0.159	0.431	0.012	0.203	0.250	-0.073	0.865	0.298	0.255	-0.215	0.217
JS 4	0.209	0.252	0.024	0.173	0.135	0.005	0.738	0.111	0.102	-0.092	0.105
RW 1	0.182	0.438	0.119	0.238	0.314	0.173	0.271	0.853	0.331	-0.332	0.237
RW 2	0.234	0.388	0.099	0.258	0.323	0.176	0.231	0.828	0.373	-0.299	0.219
RW 3	0.209	0.426	0.166	0.233	0.299	0.144	0.290	0.900	0.346	-0.310	0.241
RW 4	0.191	0.506	0.166	0.246	0.378	0.157	0.281	0.904	0.398	-0.326	0.239
RW 5	0.155	0.486	0.163	0.227	0.389	0.149	0.350	0.892	0.345	-0.294	0.255
TI 1	-0.238	-0.265	0.033	-0.423	-0.155	0.052	-0.201	-0.356	-0.218	0.908	-0.387
TI 2	-0.154	-0.203	0.107	-0.322	-0.110	0.036	-0.149	-0.272	-0.105	0.865	-0.336
TI 3	-0.238	-0.240	0.036	-0.365	-0.125	0.026	-0.200	-0.326	-0.169	0.920	-0.356
TR 1	0.239	0.277	0.024	0.329	0.287	0.140	0.255	0.330	0.756	-0.141	0.187
TR 2	0.199	0.256	0.035	0.248	0.272	0.123	0.183	0.268	0.688	-0.095	0.133
TR 3	0.287	0.246	-0.001	0.361	0.281	0.108	0.155	0.331	0.814	-0.135	0.219
TR 4	0.269	0.306	-0.026	0.337	0.383	0.139	0.193	0.330	0.869	-0.141	0.232
TR 5	0.243	0.354	-0.010	0.347	0.418	0.131	0.209	0.366	0.877	-0.201	0.221
TR 6	0.239	0.329	-0.038	0.349	0.418	0.149	0.189	0.366	0.854	-0.188	0.247
VI 2	0.396	0.290	-0.099	0.544	0.194	0.081	0.218	0.229	0.249	-0.392	0.816
VI 3	0.440	0.240	-0.111	0.529	0.143	0.129	0.152	0.179	0.185	-0.300	0.804

VI 4	0.361	0.264	-0.085	0.418	0.143	0.115	0.171	0.240	0.187	-0.272	0.761
VI 5	0.423	0.172	-0.081	0.455	0.138	0.125	0.156	0.202	0.175	-0.284	0.790
VI 6	0.510	0.253	-0.069	0.596	0.230	0.113	0.178	0.237	0.228	-0.348	0.846

ABS = Absorption, CO = Career Opportunity, CRP = Creative Performance DE = Dedication, EMP = Empowerment, ERC = Extra-Role Customer Service, JS = Job Security, RW = Rewards, TR = Training, TI = Turnover Intention, VI = Vigour.

As illustrated in Table 4.20, the outer loadings of all indicators on the associated construct did not score higher than any of its cross-loadings (correlations) on other constructs. Thus, discriminant validity was established.

Second, the Fornell-Larcker criterion was also applied to further ascertain discriminant validity. This criterion is used to compare the square roots of the AVE scores of each construct, with correlations of the latent variables. Hair et al.'s (2017) recommendation was adapted, whereby the square root of the AVE per construct ought to be higher than its highest correlation with any other construct.

Results of the Fornell-Larcker criterion valuation with the square root of the reflective constructs' AVE on the diagonal, the means (average) and standard deviations of study constructs, and inter-construct correlations in the off-diagonal positions, are presented in Table 4.21.

Table 4.21. Fornell-Larcker Criterion Results

	Mean (SD)	ABS	CO	CRP	DE	EMP	ERCS	JS	RW	TR	TI	VI
Absorption	3.94 (0.64)	0.762										
Career Opportunities	3.48 (0.84)	0.257	0.802									
Creative Performance	2.17 (1.04)	-0.065	0.097	0.864								
Dedication	4.31 (0.64)	0.552	0.273	-0.042	0.856							
Empowerment	3.47 (0.91)	0.336	0.387	-0.013	0.317	0.799						
Extra-Role Customer Service	4.07 (0.83)	0.265	0.122	0.026	0.157	0.280	0.859					
Job Security	2.87 (0.99)	0.230	0.449	0.035	0.234	0.282	-0.008	0.806				
Rewards	3.41 (0.99)	0.223	0.512	0.163	0.275	0.389	0.183	0.324	0.876			
Training	4.20 (0.65)	0.305	0.363	-0.006	0.408	0.425	0.161	0.241	0.410	0.813		
Turnover Intention	2.42 (1.09)	-0.236	-0.264	0.063	-0.416	-0.146	0.043	-0.206	-0.357	-0.187	0.898	
Vigour	4.04 (0.69)	0.530	0.307	-0.111	0.637	0.215	0.138	0.220	0.272	0.258	-0.402	0.804

Diagonal values (in **bold**) represents the square root of the AVE of each construct.

ABS = Absorption, CO = Career Opportunity, CRP = Creative Performance DE = Dedication, EMP = Empowerment, ERC = Extra-Role Customer Service, JS = Job Security, RW = Rewards, TR = Training, TI = Turnover Intention, VI = Vigour

As illustrated in Table 4.21, the square root of the AVE for each latent variable is higher than the correlations between these constructs and other latent variables, thus discriminant validity was further established.

Third, discriminant validity was further evaluated using the Heterotrait-Monotrait (HTMT) ratio of correlations. To assess the HTMT, two approaches were considered that is, HTMT as

a (i) criterion, and (ii) statistical test. Using the HTMT criterion involves the comparison of the HTMT value to the predefined threshold. According to Henseler et al. (2015), HTMT values greater than 0.85 (a more conservative measure) or 0.90, indicate a lack of discriminant validity. Conversely, HTMT as a statistical test involves the use of the bootstrapping procedure, which allows for the construction of the confidence intervals for the HTMT. Therefore, a confidence interval comprising the value 1.000, denotes an absence of discriminant validity. On the contrary, if the value 1.000 lies beyond the range of the interval, then discriminant validity is established (Henseler et al., 2015). Following Henseler et al.'s (2015) recommendations, the aforementioned HTMT parameters were adopted for the study to establish discriminant validity.

Results of the HTMT ratio values for all pairs of the measurement model constructs are presented in Table 4.22.

Table 4.22. Heterotrait-Monotrait (HTMT) Ratio of Correlations											
	ABS	CO	CRP	DE	EMP	ERC	JS	RW	TR	TI	VI
Absorption											
Career Opportunities	0.349										
Creative Performance	0.096	0.131									
Dedication	0.661	0.336	0.060								
Empowerment	0.398	0.474	0.099	0.342							
Extra-Role Customer Service	0.306	0.153	0.060	0.173	0.326						
Job Security	0.291	0.572	0.060	0.273	0.319	0.089					
Rewards	0.266	0.627	0.187	0.305	0.431	0.202	0.365				
Training	0.358	0.445	0.053	0.457	0.479	0.180	0.278	0.449			
Turnover Intention	0.278	0.327	0.072	0.469	0.160	0.052	0.238	0.393	0.204		
Vigour	0.649	0.384	0.119	0.726	0.225	0.157	0.253	0.303	0.286	0.454	

ABS = Absorption, CO = Career Opportunity, CRP = Creative Performance DE = Dedication, EMP = Empowerment, ERC = Extra-Role Customer Service, JS = Job Security, RW = Rewards, TR = Training, TI = Turnover Intention, VI = Vigour

As shown in Table 4.22, all HTMT ratios were lower than the conservative threshold value of 0.85, thereby confirming discriminant validity.

In addition to evaluating the HTMT ratios, the HTMT values were examined to ascertain whether they significantly differed from 1.000. Given that PLS-SEM is not reliant on any distributional assumptions, the parametric significant tests do not apply to the empirical assessment of whether the HTMT statistic is significantly different from 1.000 (Hair et al., 2017). As such, a technique known as bootstrapping was used to obtain a distribution of the HTMT parameter (statistic). In bootstrapping, sub-samples were drawn randomly (with replacement) from the original data set (Hair et al., 2017). Each sub-sample was then utilized to approximate the measurement model. This procedure repeats such that a large number, typically about 5000 (Hair et al., 2017), of random sub-samples, have been created.

The HTMT statistic, is the estimated parameter from these sub-samples, from which standard errors of the estimates are derived. Using these data, a bootstrap confidence interval is obtained. The interval represents the range within which the true HTMT value of the population lies, with the assumption of a specific confidence level, that is, 95% (Hair et al., 2017). As a general rule, a confidence interval which contains the value 1.000 shows an absence of discriminant validity. On the contrary, if the value of 1.000 falls outside the range of the interval, this indicates that the two constructs under observation are distinct empirically (Hair et al., 2017).

As a HTMT statistic, using a confidence interval is contingent upon inference, and the researcher should rely on this criterion, especially given the limitations of (i) Cross-loadings and (ii) the Fornell-Larcker criterion (Hair et al., 2017). However, these two measures nevertheless still represent the standard, traditional approaches to the assessment of construct discriminant validity.

Results of the bootstrap confidence interval for the HTMT criterion are shown in Table 4.23.

	Original Sample (O)	Sample Mean (M)	Bias	95% Confidence Interval	
				2.5%	97.5%
<i>Absorption → Creative Performance</i>	-0.026	-0.026	0.000	-0.167	0.142
<i>Absorption → Extra-Role Customer Service</i>	0.260	0.268	0.008	0.147	0.368
<i>Absorption → Turnover Intention</i>	0.054	0.053	-0.001	-0.059	0.173
<i>Career Opportunities → Absorption</i>	0.069	0.070	0.001	-0.055	0.190
<i>Career Opportunities → Dedication</i>	0.053	0.056	0.003	-0.071	0.171
<i>Career Opportunities → Vigour</i>	0.163	0.166	0.003	0.033	0.283
<i>Dedication → Creative Performance</i>	0.058	0.054	-0.003	-0.177	0.195
<i>Dedication → Extra-Role Customer Service</i>	0.023	0.018	-0.005	-0.119	0.171
<i>Dedication → Turnover Intention</i>	-0.287	-0.286	0.002	-0.419	-0.154
<i>Empowerment → Absorption</i>	0.209	0.213	0.004	0.093	0.315
<i>Empowerment → Dedication</i>	0.128	0.131	0.003	0.010	0.246
<i>Empowerment → Vigour</i>	0.040	0.044	0.004	-0.087	0.167
<i>Job Security → Absorption</i>	0.098	0.099	0.001	-0.002	0.195
<i>Job Security → Dedication</i>	0.087	0.087	0.000	-0.013	0.186
<i>Job Security → Vigour</i>	0.074	0.076	0.001	-0.035	0.183
<i>Rewards → Absorption</i>	0.007	0.007	0.000	-0.111	0.130
<i>Rewards → Dedication</i>	0.050	0.049	-0.001	-0.076	0.181
<i>Rewards → Vigour</i>	0.098	0.097	-0.001	-0.030	0.226
<i>Training → Absorption</i>	0.164	0.166	0.002	0.051	0.272
<i>Training → Dedication</i>	0.293	0.294	0.001	0.184	0.392
<i>Training → Vigour</i>	0.124	0.126	0.002	-0.009	0.253
<i>Vigour → Creative Performance</i>	-0.134	-0.134	0.000	-0.254	0.099
<i>Vigour → Extra-Role Customer Service</i>	-0.015	-0.013	0.002	-0.132	0.121
<i>Vigour → Turnover Intention</i>	-0.248	-0.251	-0.003	-0.380	-0.110

As shown in Table 4.23, bootstrap confidence intervals did not contain the value 1.000, thus confirming discriminant validity.

4.8.3 Internal Consistency Reliability

The Composite Reliability (p_c) value, was applied to evaluate the internal consistency (reliability) of the variables (dimensions).

Composite Reliability (p_c) oscillates from 0.000 to 1.000, with higher values indicating increasing levels of reliability (Hair et al., 2017). As such, it is typically interpreted in a manner similar to the Cronbach's Alpha (α) coefficient. Composite Reliability (p_c) scores between 0.600 and 0.700 are deemed satisfactory in exploratory research. However, in more nuanced research, scores between 0.700 and 0.900 are generally considered as satisfactory (Nunnally and Bernstein, 1994; Hair et al., 2017). Whereas Cronbach's Alpha¹ is the more conservative reliability measure resulting in a relatively low reliability value, the Composite Reliability (p_c) instead overestimates the internal consistency reliability, thereby leading to a higher estimated reliability score (Hair et al., 2017).

As shown in Table 4.19, it was found that the composite reliability values for each latent variable were higher than 0.700. Thus, internal consistent reliability was established.

4.9 Pearson's Test of Correlation

Pearson's product-moment correlation was computed to show the correlations between the variables of the study. These correlations are displayed in Table 4.24.

Table 4.24. Correlation Matrix

	TR	EMP	RW	JS	CO	VI	DE	ABS	CRP	ERCS	TI
Training	1.000	.420**	.408**	.239**	.355**	.251**	.403**	.284**	.000	.164**	-.181**
Empowerment	.420**	1.000	.384**	.267**	.370**	.191**	.292**	.317**	.010	.289**	-.138**
Rewards	.408**	.384**	1.000	.316**	.510**	.272**	.275**	.222**	.171**	.186**	-.353**
Job Security	.239**	.267**	.316**	1.000	0.438**	.213**	.234**	.232**	.038	-.014	-.202**
Career Opportunities	.355**	.370**	.510**	.438**	1.000	.306**	.265**	.263**	.103*	.124*	-.258**
Vigour	.251**	.191**	.272**	.213**	.306**	1.000	.630**	.510**	-.107**	.139**	-.394**
Dedication	.403**	.292**	.275**	.234**	.265**	.630**	1.000	.522**	-.047	.154**	-.412**
Absorption	.284**	.317**	.222**	.232**	.263**	.510**	.522**	1.000	-.405	.255**	-.220**
Creative Performance	.000	0.10	.171**	.038	.103*	-.107*	-.047	-.405	1.000	.036	.063
Extra-Role Customer Service	.164**	.289**	.186**	-.014	.124*	.139**	.154**	.255**	.036	1.000	.042
Turnover Intention	-.181**	-.138**	-.353**	-.202**	-.258**	-.394**	-.412**	-.220**	0.63	0.42	1.000

Note: Composite scores for each measure were calculated by averaging scores across the items representing that measure * Correlations were found to be significant at the 0.05 level (Two-tailed). **

¹ Cronbach Alpha scores were also obtained by running a CFA using the PLS-SEM algorithm. Results confirm the reliability of the constructs thereby corroborating EFA results in Table 4.17.

Correlations were found to be significant at the 0.01 level (Two-tailed). Correlations without an asterisk (*) were not found to be significant.

ABS = Absorption, CO = Career Opportunity, CRP = Creative Performance, DE = Dedication, EMP = Empowerment, ERC = Extra-Role Customer Service, JS = Job Security, RW = Rewards, TR = Training, TI = Turnover Intention, VI = Vigour

The results from the correlation matrix presented in Table 4.24 indicate that there are significant inter-correlations between the variables in the study. However, some of the bi-variate associations were inter-correlated but not found to be significant.

Of note, the latent variables Training (TR), Empowerment (EMP), Rewards (RW), Job Security (JS), and Career Opportunities (CO), were modelled as Lower Order Construct (LOC) indicators of a High-Performance Work Practices (HPWPs) Higher Order Construct (HOC). Work Engagement (WE) was estimated using the calculated latent variable (average) scores of its three dimensions Vigour (VI), Dedication (DE), and Absorption (ABS), as its indicators.

Whilst the bi-variate correlations between each variable (dimension) can be used to demonstrate their associations, the sole aim of the present study was to evaluate the associations between HPWPs and job outcomes through work engagement positioned as an intervening variable. As Pearson's product-moment correlations are insufficient for testing the inter-relationships between these variables (dimensions), that is, HPWPs operationalized as a higher-order construct and latent variable average scores of the WE construct, predicting creative performance (CRP), extra-role customer service (ERCS), and turnover intention (TI), the present study lends itself to, and is more compatible with, the more robust SEM.

Thus, in a manner consistent with the study's purpose (aim) and objectives (Section 1.5 of Chapter 1), the hypothesized relationships (Section 2.7 of Chapter 2) between HPWPs and WE, each distinctly operationalized, and the job outcomes creative performance (CRP), extra-role customer service (ERCS), and turnover intention (TI), were empirically evaluated using a structural path model.

4.10 Evaluation of the Structural Path Model

The assessment of the structural path model entails the evaluation of the predictive capabilities of the model and the relationships between the constructs (Hair et al., 2017), that is, the relationships hypothesized in this study's conceptual model.

Assessment of the structural path model follows the successful evaluation of the measurement model for which the validity and reliability of the measures of the latent variables (constructs) were confirmed.

Prior to the evaluation of the structural path model, High-Performance Work Practices (HPWPs), was evaluated as a Hierarchical Component Model (HCM) or Higher Order Construct (HOC).

4.10.1 High-Performance Work Practices (HPWPs) as a Hierarchical Component Model (HCM) or Higher-Order Construct (HOC)

The HPWPs construct in this study was modelled as a HOC or second-order factor with the latent variables Training (TR), Empowerment (EMP), Rewards (RW), Job Security (JS), and Career Opportunities (CO) as its Lower Order Constructs (LOCs) or first-order factors. These LOCs as first-order constructs were modelled as reflective indictors of HPWPs as the HOC or second-order construct.

The HPWPs construct in this study was, thus, modelled as a reflective first-order, reflective second-order, or reflective-reflective (Type I) HCM model (Becker et al., 2012) as shown in Figure 4.1.

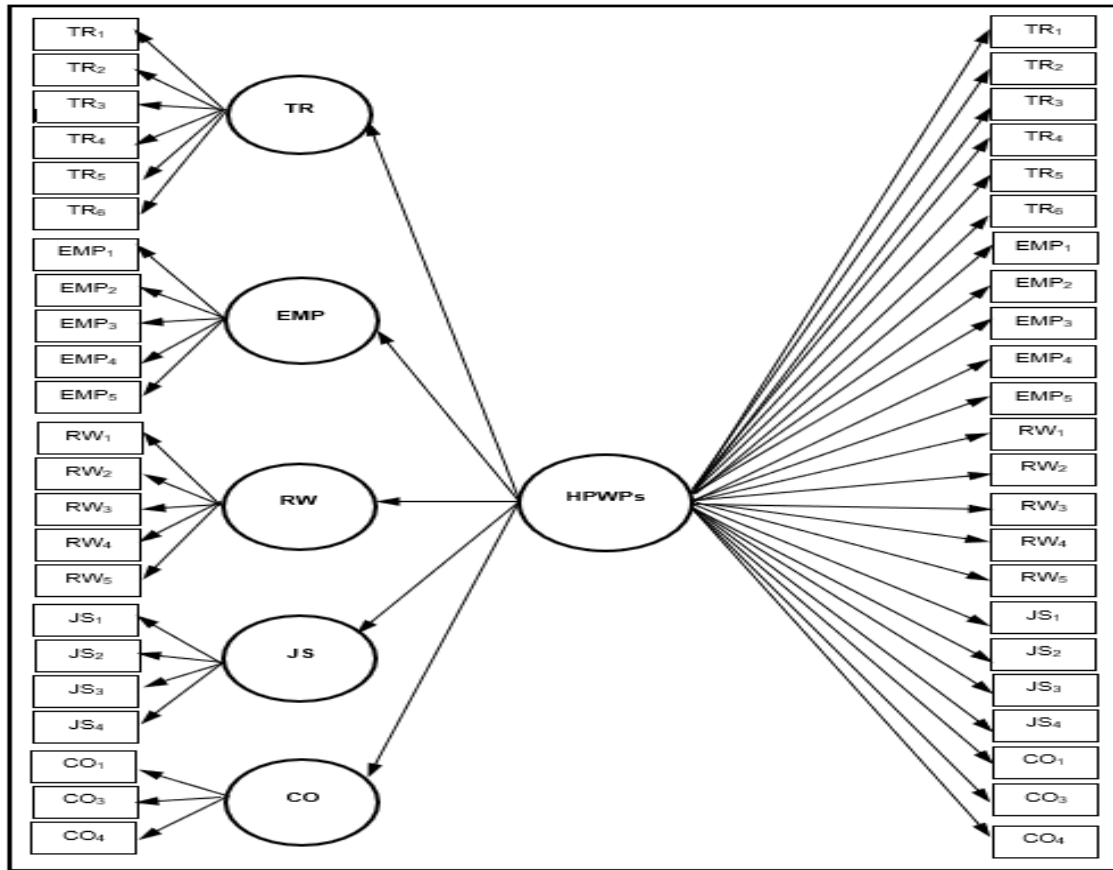


Figure 4.1. High-Performance Work Practices (HPWPs) as a Reflective-Reflective (Type I) Model

For this type of model setup, the HOC (second-order construct) consists of a set of underlying LOCs (first-order constructs) as reflective manifest indicators of the HOC, such that these LOCs are themselves modelled using reflective manifest indicators.

To estimate the reflective-reflective (Type I) HCM of HPWPs, the repeated indicator approach was used (Wold, 1982; Noonan and Wold, 1983; Lohmoller, 1989; Becker et al., 2012). For the repeated indicator approach, the LOC (first-order construct) indicators were all assigned to the HOC (second-order construct). With this approach, the indicators of the LOCs are used to establish the measurement model of the HOC. As a result, these indicators are used twice, both on the LOC and the HOC (Wilson and Henseler, 2007; Hair et al., 2018b).

The constructs TR, EMP, RW, JS, and CO represent the five underlying HPWPs indicators each with their manifest indicators, as reflective lower-order constructs of the more general, abstract, second-order HPWPs construct. Further, the second-order HPWPs is measured using all reflective manifest indicators of its underlying first-order constructs. Therefore, 24 indicators, i.e. TR1, TR2, TR3, TR4, TR5, TR6, EMP1, EMP2, EMP3, EMP4, EMP5, RW1, RW2, RW3, RW4, JS1, JS2, JS3, JS4, CO1, CO3 and CO4, were used to specify HPWPs as

a HOC. Thus, all manifest indicators of the reflectively measured lower-order constructs were concurrently assigned to the reflective measurement model of the HOC.

To evaluate the measurement model of the HOC, the relationship between the HPWPs and its underlying lower-order constructs was examined. Path relationships between the HPWPs as a higher-order construct and its five reflective lower-order constructs was estimated using PLS-SEM analysis. To obtain loadings for the relationships between HPWPs and its lower-order constructs, path coefficients which correspond to loadings from the perspective of HCM modeling (Hair et al., 2017), were estimated. HCM path coefficients (loadings) for TR, EMP, RW, JS and CO, were then obtained. These HCM loadings were subsequently used to manually calculate relevant statistical measurement model parameters i.e., convergent validity, and internal consistency reliability, of the HPWPs HOC measurement model.

Therefore, the AVE, Composite Reliability and Cronbach's Alpha (α) scores of HPWPs as a HOC were manually calculated using the HCM loadings of TR, EMP, RW, JS, and CO, as its manifest LOC's.

To calculate the AVE of HPWPs as a HOC, the mean of the HCM squared loadings for each of the five manifest LOCs TR, EMP, RW, JS, and CO, was estimated.

An AVE value of $(0.746^2 + 0.708^2 + 0.786^2 + 0.574^2 + 0.704^2)/5 = \mathbf{0.500}$, was obtained, therefore indicating convergent validity of HPWPs as a HOC.

The composite reliability (ρ_c) of HPWPs as a HOC was manually computed using the formula:

$$\rho_c = \frac{\left(\sum_{i=1}^M l_i \right)^2}{\left(\sum_{i=1}^M l_i \right)^2 + \sum_{i=1}^M \text{var}(e_i)}$$

where:

l_i = The Loading of the LOC i of a HOC measured using M (number of LOCs) ($i = 1, \dots, M$)

e_i = The Measurement Error of LOC i ,

$\text{var}(e_i)$ = The Variance of the Measurement Error, defined as $1 - l_i^2$

Entering the five loading values into the formula yielded a composite reliability (p_c) value of $(0.746^2 + 0.708^2 + 0.786^2 + 0.574^2 + 0.704^2) / (0.746^2 + 0.708^2 + 0.786^2 + 0.574^2 + 0.704^2) + (1 - 0.746)^2 + (1 - 0.708)^2 + (1 - 0.786)^2 + (1 - 0.574)^2 + (1 - 0.704)^2 = \mathbf{0.832}$.

Similarly, the Cronbach's Alpha (α) score was calculated using the following formula:

$$\text{Cronbach's } \alpha = \frac{M \bullet \bar{r}}{(1 + (M - 1) \bullet \bar{r})}$$

where:

$\bar{r}$ = The Average Correlation of the LOCs. This is the average of the correlations between each of the five LOCs that were analyzed.

M = The Number of LOCs of the HOC. For the HOC in the HCM, a total of five (5) LOCs were analyzed.

$$\alpha = \frac{5 * (0.428 + 0.409 + 0.248 + 0.364 + 0.390 + 0.282 + 0.385 + 0.336 + 0.516 + 0.454)}{10} \\ (1 + (5 - 1) * 0.3812) \\ = \mathbf{0.755}$$

The results of internal consistency reliability i.e. composite reliability (p_c) and Cronbach's Alpha (α) values were observed to be well above the prescribed cut-off value of 0.708 (Hair et al., 2017). Thus, the internal consistency reliability of HPWPs as a HOC in the structural path model was confirmed.

Notably, the discriminant validity between the LOCs training, empowerment, rewards, job security, and career opportunities, was already assessed using the HTMT criterion (Henseler et al., 2015) as described in Section 4.8.2. As per the results presented in Table 4.22, discriminant validity was established between training, empowerment, rewards, job security, and career opportunities. This was evident as HTMT values between them were all below the threshold value of 0.900 (Gold, Malhotra and Segars, 2001). It is noteworthy that typically, discriminant validity between LOCs and their HOC cannot be established. This result is

anticipated as the measurement model of the HOC as a second-order construct repeats the manifest indicators of the underlying LOCs as its first-order constructs.

Following testing of HPWPs as a HOC, results reinforce the convergent validity, discriminant validity, and internal consistency reliability of the reflective-reflective (Type I) HCM.

Subsequent to the successful estimation of the HCM, the researcher proceeded to evaluate the study's structural path model. To examine the structural path model, a systematic, sequential approach was followed as shown in Figure 4.2.

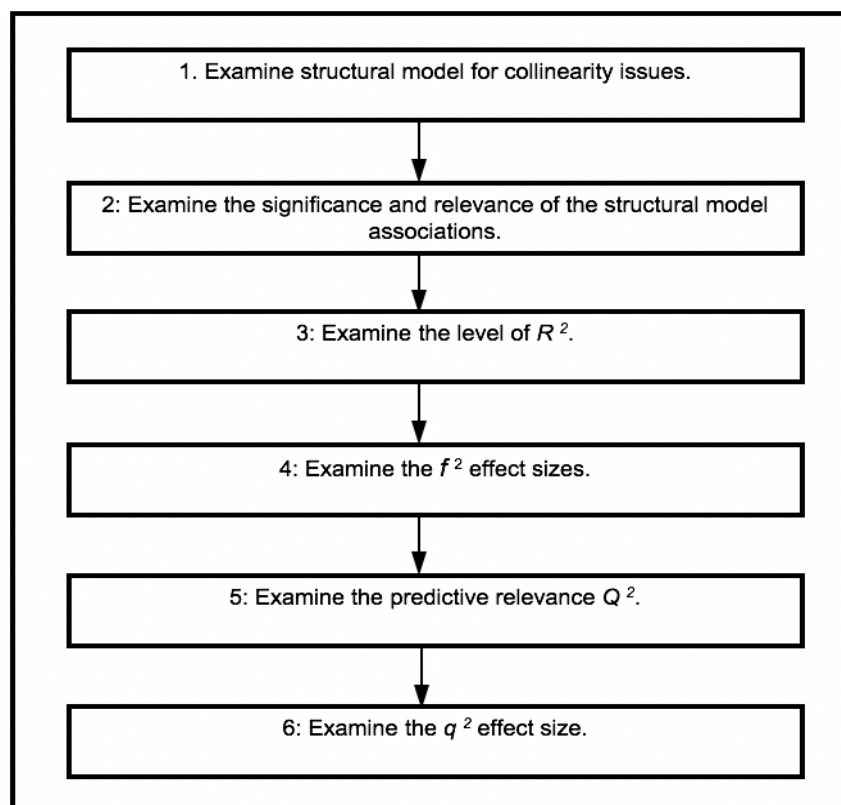


Figure 4.2. Procedure for Structural Path Model Evaluation (Hair et al., 2017, p. 191)

4.10.2 Testing for Collinearity

The structural path model for the study was examined for collinearity prior to the testing of its path coefficient (Hair et al., 2017). Testing for collinearity is essential as it ensures that the estimation of path coefficients for dependent variables is not biased due to significant collinearity levels among predictor variables (Hair et al., 2014b).

To test for collinearity, Tolerance and Variance Inflation Factor (VIF) scores were extracted by running a PLS-SEM algorithm using SmartPLS and a standard multiple regression in IBM

SPSS. First, latent variable scores were obtained using a PLS-SEM algorithm. These scores were then utilized as inputs imported into SPSS for collinearity testing using standard multiple regressions. Second, standard multiple regression analyses were run on (1) HPWPs as the predictor variable and work engagement as the criterion, (2) work engagement as the predictor variable and each of creative performance, extra-role customer service, and turnover intention, as the criterion variables, respectively. Third, the Tolerance and VIF values were then extracted from the SPSS output and critical levels of collinearity for each of the predictor variables were examined. Collinearity results were further corroborated using a PLS algorithm which was run to estimate the structural path model.

Results of SPSS and PLS-SEM testing confirmed that there were no collinearity issues for each of the predictor variables on which the criteria variables were regressed. The rule of thumb is that Tolerance values of 0.200 and below, and VIF values of 5.000 and above are used as the threshold values with which to evaluate levels of collinearity for each predictor variable (Hair et al., 2017).

Results following tests of predictor variables for collinearity assessment are presented in Table 4.25.

Table 4.25. Collinearity Assessment

First Set			Second Set			Third Set			Fourth Set		
Dependent Variable: Work Engagement			Dependent Variable: Creative Performance			Dependent Variable: Extra-role Customer Service			Dependent Variable: Turnover Intention		
Independent Variable	Tolerance	VIF	Independent Variable	Tolerance	VIF	Independent Variable	Tolerance	VIF	Independent Variable	Tolerance	VIF
High-Performance Work Practices (HPWPs)	0.984	1.016	Work Engagement	0.977	1.024	Work Engagement	0.977	1.024	Work Engagement	0.977	1.024

Tolerance values were above 0.200, and VIF values were below 5.000 (Hair et al., 2014b). Thus, collinearity among predictor constructs in the path model was not considered an issue in this study.

4.10.3 Estimation of the Structural Path Coefficients

The structural path model was estimated to test the effect of determinant HPWPs as manifested by training, empowerment, rewards, job security, and career opportunities, on work engagement, and the effects of work engagement on consequent job outcomes creative performance, extra-role customer service, and turnover intention.

To estimate the structural path model, path coefficients were examined. To empirically test whether structural model path coefficients of the hypothesized relationships were significant, a non-parametric, bootstrap technique (Efron and Tibshirani, 1986; Davison and Hinkley, 1997; Hair et al., 2014b) was conducted. In estimating the significance of path coefficients, a standard error was obtained using this procedure. The procedure enables the calculation of the empirical t values and p values of the path coefficients (Hair et al., 2017). The t values and p values were then employed to assess whether the path coefficients of the structural model were significant (Hair et al., 2014b, 2017). To interpret the level of statistical significance, critical t values were used. That is, 1.65 for a significance level of 10% ($\alpha = 0.10$, two-tailed test), 1.96 for a significance level of 5 % ($\alpha = 0.05$, two-tailed test), and 2.57 for a significance level of 1% ($\alpha = 0.01$, two-tailed test), respectively (Hair et al., 2017).

For supplementary information on the stability of the estimated coefficients, the Bias-Corrected and Accelerated (BCa) approaches were used to obtain the bootstrap confidence intervals. The bootstrap confidence interval utilizes standard errors derived from bootstrapping, and stipulates the limit within which the true population parameter lies presuming a specified confidence level (Hair et al., 2017). A bootstrap confidence interval of 95% was used to establish whether the path coefficients significantly differed from zero (Hair et al., 2017). Thus, the confidence intervals for an estimated path coefficient that excluded zero, were assumed to have a significant effect.

The structural path model estimated to test the effect of determinant HPWPs as manifested by training, empowerment, rewards, job security, and career opportunities, on work engagement, and the effect of work engagement² on consequent job outcomes creative performance, extra-role customer service, and turnover intention, is illustrated in Figure 4.3.

² In tandem with prior studies (e.g. Schaufeli et al., 2006; Karatepe, 2013b) the Work Engagement (WE) construct was estimated using calculated latent variable (average) scores of its dimensions Vigour (VE), Dedication (DE), and Absorption (ABS), for inclusion in the structural path model as its three reflective indicators, subsequent to the empirical validation of VE, DE, and ABS reflective measurement model constructs through CFA i.e. Section 4.8 (Table 4.19).

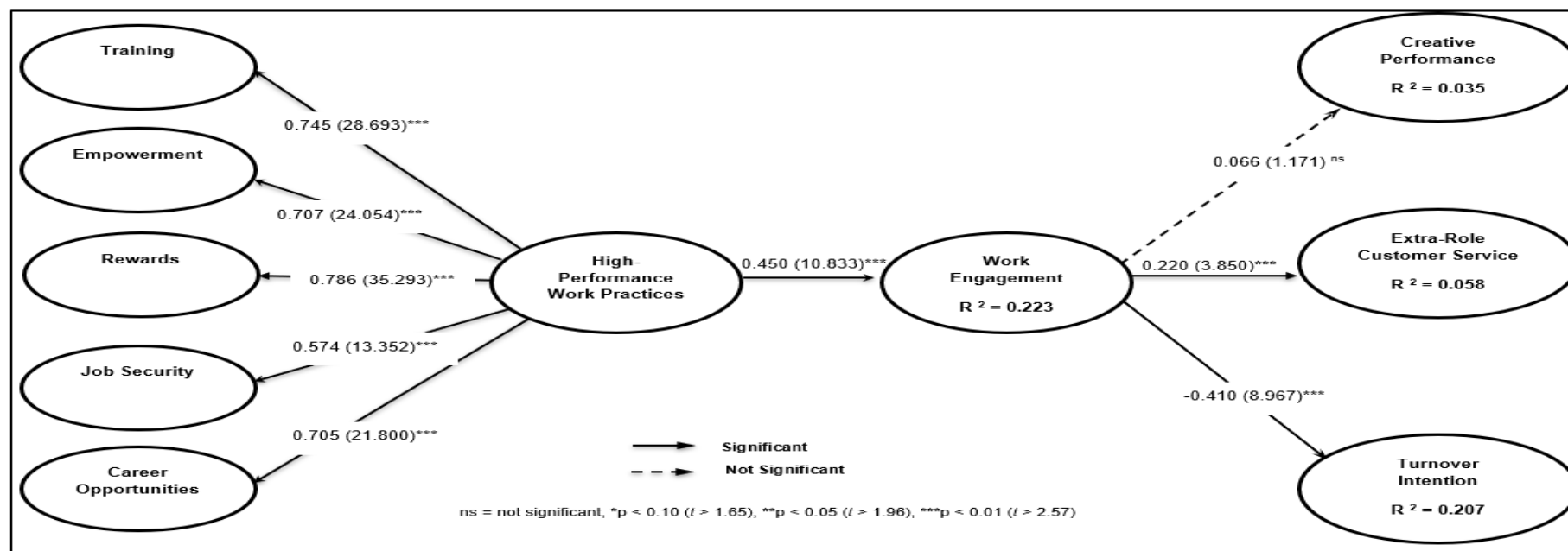


Figure 4.3. Results of Structural Path Model Estimation (n = 405)

Indirect Effects

High-Performance Work Practices → Work Engagement → Creative Performance (path coefficient = 0.066, $t = 2.612$, $p < 0.01$)***

High-Performance Work Practices → Work Engagement → Extra-Role Customer Service (path coefficient = 0.063, $t = 2.028$, $p < 0.05$)**

High-Performance Work Practices → Work Engagement → Turnover Intention (path coefficient = -0.151, $t = 5.107$, $p < 0.01$)***

Control Variables

Age → Work Engagement (path coefficient = 0.087, $t = 1.666$, $p < 0.10$)*

Age → Turnover Intention (path coefficient = 0.110, $t = 1.929$, $p < 0.10$)*

Age → Creative Performance (path coefficient = 0.142, $t = 2.384$, $p < 0.05$)**

Marital Status → High-Performance Work Practices (path coefficient = 0.089, $t = 2.053$, $p < 0.05$)**

Marital Status → Turnover Intention (path coefficient = -0.087, $t = 2.137$, $p < 0.05$)**

Tenure → Work Engagement (path coefficient = -0.114, $t = 2.176$, $p < 0.05$)**

Tenure → Creative Performance (path coefficient = -0.133, $t = 2.427$, $p < 0.05$)**

Note: For schematic clarity, the non-significant (ns) effects of control variables on study variables High-Performance Work Practices (HPWPs), Creative Performance (CRP), Extra-Role Customer Service (ERCS), and Turnover Intention (TI), are not drawn. All indirect effects are significant ($p < 0.05$) based on the PLS-SEM Bootstrapping Procedure. Likewise, the reflective indicators of HPWPs, Work Engagement (WE), CRP, ERCS, and TI are not drawn. A detailed discussion of the control variable effects is provided in section 4.10.4.

Results of the estimated structural path model are presented in Table 4.26.

Table 4.26. Significance Testing of the Structural Path Model Coefficients					
Path	Path Coefficient	<i>t</i> value	<i>p</i> value	Sig. Level	95% CI
<i>Training ← High-Performance Work Practices</i>	0.745	28.693	0.000	***	[0.686, 0.789]
<i>Empowerment ← High-Performance Work Practices</i>	0.707	24.054	0.000	***	[0.640, 0.757]
<i>Rewards ← High-Performance Work Practices</i>	0.786	35.293	0.000	***	[0.736, 0.826]
<i>Job Security ← High-Performance Work Practices</i>	0.574	13.352	0.000	***	[0.478, 0.649]
<i>Career Opportunities ← High-Performance Work Practices</i>	0.705	21.800	0.000	***	[0.632, 0.760]
<i>High-Performance Work Practices → Work Engagement</i>	0.450	10.833	0.000	***	[0.365, 0.527]
<i>Work Engagement → Creative Performance</i>	0.066	1.171	0.246	ns	[-0.042, 0.175]
<i>Work Engagement → Extra-Role Customer Service</i>	0.220	3.850	0.000	***	[0.101, 0.326]
<i>Work Engagement → Turnover Intention</i>	-0.410	8.967	0.000	***	[-0.496, -0.318]

ns = not significant, **p* < 0.10 (*t* > 1.65), ***p* < 0.05 (*t* > 1.96), ****p* < 0.01 (*t* > 2.57)

Results in Table 4.26 indicate that all five LOCs training, empowerment, rewards, job security, and career opportunities, are significant and positive manifest indicators of HPWPs as a HOC. The LOC rewards (path coefficient = 0.786, *t* = 35.293, *p* < 0.01) is the most salient significant HPWPs indicator, followed by training (path coefficient = 0.745, *t* = 28.693, *p* < 0.01), empowerment (path coefficient = 0.707, *t* = 24.054, *p* < 0.01), career opportunities (path coefficient = 0.705, *t* = 21.800, *p* < 0.01), and job security (path coefficient = 0.574, *t* = 13.352, *p* < 0.01). In addition, as evidenced in the bootstrapping confidence interval, there was no absolute zero value. Thus, **Hypothesis 1 (H1)** is supported.

The results also indicate that HPWPs significantly and positively influences work engagement (path coefficient = 0.450, *t* = 10.833, *p* < 0.01). Additionally, the confidence intervals for the estimated path coefficient between HPWPs and work engagement excluded an absolute value of zero. Thus, **Hypothesis 2 (H2)** is supported. On the basis of this finding, it is apparent that the presence of HPWPs conveys a powerful signal to millennial frontline employees that their organizations provide them with adequate support to perform their work-related duties. Millennial frontline employees who work in an environment that provides them with training, empowerment, rewards, job security, and career opportunities, as indicators of HPWPs, espouse the believe that the organization recognizes the value of their contribution. In response to the presence of these indicator HPWPs, millennial frontline employees are more enthusiastic, energetic, and are more involved in their jobs.

Contrary to the anticipated hypothesized relationship, work engagement was not observed to significantly influence creative performance (path coefficient = 0.066, *t* = 1.171, ns). Thus, **Hypothesis 3a (H3a)** is not supported. According to this finding, millennial frontline employees who have high work engagement levels do not seem to be sufficiently motivated

to display creative performance behaviours in the workplace, as is expected in frontline service jobs.

Further, the results indicate that work engagement significantly and positively influences extra-role customer service (path coefficient = 0.220, $t = 3.850$, $p < 0.01$). Also, as evidenced in the bootstrapping confidence interval, there was no absolute zero value. Thus, **Hypothesis 3b (H3b)** is supported. This result denotes that millennial frontline employees who are engaged are more inclined to express their willingness to demonstrate extra-role customer service behaviours by striving to exceed, or go above and beyond their prescribed roles in the workplace.

The results also indicate that work engagement has a significant and negative effect on turnover intention (path coefficient = -0.410, $t = 8.967$, $p < 0.01$). Additionally, as evidenced in the bootstrapping confidence interval, there was no absolute zero value. Thus, **Hypothesis 3c (H3c)** is supported. This result indicates that millennial frontline employees with high work engagement levels exhibit lower levels of turnover intention behaviours in the workplace.

4.10.4 Testing for Confounding Effects

The variables gender, age, marital status, highest level of education, and organizational tenure, were included and controlled for in estimating the structural path model. These control variables were tested for their potential confounding effects on the study variables i.e. HPWPs, work engagement, and the job outcomes creative performance, extra-role customer service, and turnover intention.

First, age was observed to be significantly and positively associated with work engagement (path coefficient = 0.087, $t = 1.656$, $p < 0.10$) and turnover intention (path coefficient = 0.124, $t = 2.152$, $p < 0.05$), and significantly and negatively related to creative performance (path coefficient = 0.154, $t = 2.585$, $p < 0.05$). In addition, age had no significant relationship with HPWPs (path coefficient = -0.054, $t = 0.918$, $p < 0.10$) and extra-role customer service (path coefficient = 0.095, $t = 1.578$, $p < 0.10$). These results appear to indicate that older millennial frontline employees exhibit higher work engagement levels, and display lower turnover intention levels in the workplace, as they have less of an inclination towards leaving the organization. However, the results also indicate that older millennial frontline employees exhibit lower levels of creative performance in the workplace. Moreover, the results indicate that age has no substantive impact on HPWPs in the workplace.

Second, marital status was found to significantly and positively affect HPWPs (path coefficient = 0.089, $t = 2.048$, $p < 0.05$), and turnover intention (path coefficient = - 0.100, $t = 2.479$, $p < 0.05$). However, marital status was not observed to significantly influence creative performance (path coefficient = -0.030, $t = 0.510$, $p < 0.10$), extra-role customer service (path coefficient = -0.007, $t = 0.185$, $p < 0.10$), and work engagement (path coefficient = -0.007, $t = 0.148$, $p < 0.10$). These results seem to indicate that millennial frontline employees who are married tend to have more favourable perceptions of the presence of HPWPs indicators in their work environment, and thereby exhibit lower turnover intention levels in the workplace.

Third, tenure was observed to significantly and positively influence work engagement (path coefficient = - 0.114, $t = 2.179$, $p < 0.05$), and significantly and positively affect creative performance (path coefficient = -0.143, $t = 2.607$, $p < 0.05$). However, tenure was not observed to significantly influence HPWPs (path coefficient = -0.022, $t = 0.378$, $p < 0.10$), extra-role customer service (path coefficient = 0.006, $t = 0.101$, $p < 0.10$), and turnover intention (path coefficient = 0.076, $t = 1.423$, $p < 0.10$). Based on these results, it appears that millennial frontline employees who hold longer tenure have less energy, exhibit decreased enthusiasm, and are less involved in their work. However, findings also indicate that millennial frontline employees with longer tenure display higher levels of creative performance behaviours, as they are able to deliver services more innovatively and resourcefully as well as generate creative ideas for service improvement.

Fourth, gender was found to have no significant effects on HPWPs (path coefficient = -0.063, $t = 1.250$, $p < 0.10$), work engagement (path coefficient = -0.048, $t = 1.086$, $p < 0.10$), creative performance (path coefficient = -0.073, $t = 1.412$, $p < 0.10$), extra-role customer service (path coefficient = 0.036, $t = 0.730$, $p < 0.10$), and turnover intention (path coefficient = 0.000, $t = 0.000$, $p < 0.10$). Fifth, educational level was also found to have no significant effects on HPWPs (path coefficient = 0.060, $t = 1.252$, $p < 0.10$), work engagement (path coefficient = 0.034, $t = 0.804$, $p < 0.10$), creative performance (path coefficient = 0.031, $t = 0.714$, $p < 0.10$), extra-role customer service (path coefficient = -0.026, $t = 0.374$, $p < 0.10$), and turnover intention (path coefficient = -0.032, $t = 0.760$, $p < 0.10$).

For the purpose of comparison, the hypothesized path relationships in the structural model were also examined with the selected control variables excluded, i.e. gender, age, marital status, highest level of education, and organizational tenure. In a similar manner to the initial

estimation with these control variables included in the structural path model, the findings showed that all indicators of HPWPs are significant and positive. Findings of the structural path model with the control variables excluded show that rewards (path coefficient = 0.786, $t = 35.596$, $p < 0.01$) is the most salient significant HPWPs indicator, followed by training (path coefficient = 0.746, $t = 29.450$, $p < 0.01$), empowerment ($p = 0.708$, $t = 24.019$, $p < 0.01$), career opportunities (path coefficient = 0.704, $t = 21.333$, $p < 0.01$) and job security (path coefficient = 0.574, $t = 13.165$, $p < 0.01$). Thus, **Hypothesis 1 (H1)** is empirically supported. The results for structural path model estimation without control variables also indicated that HPWPs significantly and positively influences work engagement (path coefficient = 0.456, $t = 11.070$). Therefore, empirical support for **Hypothesis 2 (H2)** is supported. It was also found that work engagement was not a significant predictor of creative performance (path coefficient = 0.089, $t = 0.138$, ns), contrary to the anticipated hypothesized relationship. Thus, as was the case on first instance, **Hypothesis 3a (H3a)** is not empirically supported. Further, the findings indicated that work engagement exerts a positive, significant influence on extra-role customer service (path coefficient = 0.217, $t = 3.893$, $p < 0.01$). Therefore, the empirical support for **Hypothesis 3b (H3b)** is supported. In addition, work engagement was a significant and negative predictor of turnover intention (path coefficient = -0.422, $t = 9.451$, $p < 0.01$). Hence, the empirical support for **Hypothesis 3c (H3c)** is confirmed.

Following the comparison of PLS-SEM results of estimation of the structural path model with and without the inclusion of the selected control variables, these statistical findings implicitly indicate that these variables do not result in any confounds. The PLS-SEM results of estimation of the structural path model without control variables are shown in Appendix E.

The results of hypothesis testing for the study are summarized in Table 4.27.

Table 4.27. Summary of Results of Hypothesis Testing		
	Hypothesis	Result
H1	Training, rewards, empowerment, job security, and career opportunities, are significant indicators of millennial frontline employees High-Performance Work Practices (HPWPs).	Supported
H2	HPWPs as manifested by training, empowerment, rewards, job security, and career opportunities, are positively related to work engagement among millennial frontline employees.	Supported
H3(a)	Work engagement is positively related to millennial frontline employees' creative performance.	Not Supported
H3(b)	Work engagement is positively related to millennial frontline employees' extra-role customer service.	Supported
H3(c)	Work engagement is negatively related to millennial frontline employees' turnover intention.	Supported

4.10.5 Coefficients of Determination (R^2 Value)

The coefficient of determination (R^2 value) is employed to measure the predictive accuracy of the estimated structural path model, which is calculated as the squared correlation between a specific criterion variable predicted and actual values (Hair et al., 2014b, 2017). This value signifies the predictor variable's combined effect on the criterion variable. According to Hair et al. (2014b), the R^2 values vary from 0 to 1 where greater levels signify higher levels of predictive accuracy. As a rule, Chin (1998) and Ringle (2004) recommended R^2 value thresholds of 0.670 (substantial), 0.333 (moderate), and 0.190 (weaker) for dependent (criteria) variables. However, as cautioned by Hair et al. (2014b), thresholds of the R^2 value are subject to interpretation and may not be conclusive, particularly in the social sciences and related research. For example, while R^2 values of 0.750 or higher are considered high in fields such as marketing, R^2 values of 0.200 or higher are considered highly significant in research on consumer behaviour (Hair et al., 2014b).

The coefficient of determination (R^2 values) of the dependent (criteria) variables work engagement, creative performance, extra-role customer service, and turnover intention, are presented in Table 4.28.

Table 4.28. R^2 Values of Dependent (Criteria) Variables	
Dependent (Criterion) Variable	R^2 Values
Work Engagement (WE)	0.222
Creative Performance (CRP)	0.035
Extra-Role Customer Service (ERCS)	0.058
Turnover Intention (TI)	0.207

Results in Table 4.28 show that the estimated structural path model has significant predictive accuracy for the dependent (criteria) variables work engagement ($R^2 = 0.222$), and turnover intention ($R^2 = 0.207$). When compared with prior studies, the R^2 values of work engagement (0.222) and turnover intention (0.207), were consistent with findings of Karatepe (2012b), Karatepe (2013a), and Karatepe and Olugbade (2016) who also tested the effects of work engagement on consequent job outcomes such as creative performance, absence intentions, turnover intentions, extra-role customer service, job performance, and career satisfaction. Therefore, based on findings from prior studies (e.g. Karatepe, 2012b; Karatepe and Eslamlou, 2017), it is not uncommon to obtain these more conservative R^2 values within the research stream of hospitality management.

4.10.6 Effect Size (f^2)

In addition to the assessment of the R^2 value, an f^2 effect size was calculated.

The f^2 effect size is used to measure the change in the R^2 value of a criterion (dependent) variable when a particular predictor (independent) variable is omitted from the structural path model. Thus, the impact of the excluded independent variable on the dependent variable is assessed (Hair et al., 2014b, 2017).

The f^2 effect size is computed using the formula:

$$f^2 = \frac{R^2_{\text{included}} - R^2_{\text{excluded}}}{1 - R^2_{\text{included}}}$$

Where R^2_{included} and R^2_{excluded} are the R^2 values of the dependent variable when a specified independent (predictor) variable is either included or omitted from the path model (Hair et al., 2017).

To estimate the f^2 effect size, the changes in the R^2 values were estimated. The f^2 effect was obtained by estimating the path model twice.

First, the path model was estimated with the inclusion of the independent (predictor) variable (yielding R^2_{included}). Second, the path model was estimated with the exclusion of the independent variable (yielding R^2_{excluded}). To interpret the f^2 effect size, value thresholds recommend by Cohen (1988) were used. Specifically, f^2 values between 0.020 and 0.150, between 0.150 and 0.350, and above 0.350, signify that a specific independent predictor denotes a small, medium, or large effect on the dependent (criterion) variable, respectively.

The f^2 effect sizes of the estimated structural path model, are presented in Table 4.29.

Independent (Predictor) Variable	Dependent (Criterion) Variable	R^2_{included}	R^2_{excluded}	f^2 effect size	Interpretation
High-Performance Work Practices	Work Engagement	0.222	0.024	0.254	Medium
Work Engagement	Creative Performance	0.035	0.031	0.004	No effect
	Extra-Role Customer Service	0.058	0.011	0.050	Small
	Turnover Intention	0.207	0.043	0.207	Medium

Results in Table 4.29 indicate that high-performance work practices had a medium effect (0.254) on work engagement. Further, work engagement was observed to have a small effect (0.050) on extra-role customer service, and a medium effect (0.207) on turnover intention. In contrast, work engagement had no effect on creative performance (0.004).

4.10.7 Predictive Relevance (Q^2 Value)

In addition to predictive accuracy (R^2), the Stone-Geisser's Q^2 value (Geisser, 1974; Stone, 1974) was assessed to evaluate the estimated structural path model's predictive relevance (Hair et al., 2017).

The path model's Q^2 value was derived via blindfolding technique for a predefined omission distance D (Hair et al., 2017). As observed by Hair et al. (2017), blindfolding is used for dependent (criteria) variables comprising a reflective (mode A) specification of the measurement model. Q^2 values above 0.000 denote the model's significant predictive relevance for a specific dependent (criterion) variable. Conversely, Q^2 values of either 0.000 or lower denotes an absence of predictive relevance (Urbach and Ahlemann, 2010; Hair et al., 2017). For this study, Stone-Geisser's Q^2 values (Geisser, 1974; Stone, 1974) for the endogenous constructs work engagement, creative performance, extra-role customer service, and turnover intention, were computed.

This procedure was based on a cross-validated redundancy approach, whereby data points in the measurement model of reflective dependent (criterion) variables were approximated via a two-step approach. Firstly, data from the estimated structural path model were used to predict scores of the dependent (criteria) variables through the use of independent (predictor) variable scores, and their structural path coefficients derived using the PLS-SEM algorithm. In the second step, the predicted scores of the reflective dependent (criterion) variable were used to systematically predict data points of its indicators that were excluded from the measurement model. This systematic pattern of eliminating and predicting the data points is dependent on the omission distance (D) which is used to run the blindfolding process. Thus, an omission distance ($D = 6$), which also represents the number of blindfolding rounds, was selected. Apel and Wold (1982) and Hair, Sarstedt, Ringle and Mena (2012) recommend a high omission distance (D) i.e. between 5 and 10. D represents the data points assigned to each blindfolding round.

Results of blindfolding were then used to compare the actual and predicted values to establish the structural path model's estimated predictive relevance. Results are shown in Table 4.30.

Table 4.30. Q^2 Values of Dependent Variable	
Dependent (Criterion) Variable	Q^2 Values
Work Engagement (WE)	0.141
Creative Performance (CRP)	0.011
Extra-Role Customer Service (ERCS)	0.034
Turnover Intention (TI)	0.151

Results in Table 4.30 indicate that Q^2 values have significance predictive relevance for the dependent (criteria) variables work engagement (0.141), creative performance (0.011), extra-role customer service (0.034), and turnover intention (0.151).

4.10.8 Effect Size (q^2)

In addition to the evaluation of the Q^2 value, the q^2 effect size was calculated.

The q^2 effect size is used to measure the contribution of the predictor (independent) variable to the criterion (dependent) variable's Q^2 value (Hair et al., 2014b, 2017). For the present study, the q^2 effect was calculated manually to ascertain the relevant impact of high-performance work practices, work engagement, and the job outcomes creative performance, extra-role customer service, and turnover intention, on the estimated structural path model's predictive relevance Q^2 .

Of note, the PLS-SEM algorithm does not provide q^2 effect size values. Therefore, manual computation was necessitated. For the predictive relevance measure, q^2 values of 0.02, 0.15, and 0.35, respectively, denote that the independent variable exerts a small, medium, or large effect on the predictive relevance Q^2 of the estimated structural path model for a specific dependent (criterion) variable (Hair et al., 2014b, 2017).

The q^2 effect size was computed using the formula:

$$q^2 = \frac{Q^2_{\text{included}} - Q^2_{\text{excluded}}}{1 - Q^2_{\text{included}}}$$

Q^2_{included} and Q^2_{excluded} values were obtained from the results of PLS-SEM. Specifically, Q^2_{included} values were derived from the prior blindfolding estimation used to determine

predictive relevance Q^2 . The Q^2_{excluded} value was obtained from a structural path model re-estimation after removing the predictor variable of the specific dependent (criterion) variable (Hair et al., 2017). The q^2 effect sizes of the estimated structural path model, are presented in Table 4.31.

Table 4.31. q^2 Effect Sizes for Dependent (Criteria) Variables					
Independent (Predictor) Variable	Dependent (Criterion) Variable	Q^2_{included}	Q^2_{excluded}	q^2 effect size	Interpretation
High-Performance Work Practices	Work Engagement	0.141	0.009	0.154	Medium
Work Engagement	Creative Performance	0.011	0.009	0.002	No effect
	Extra-Role Customer Service	0.034	0.001	0.034	Small
	Turnover Intention	0.151	0.026	0.147	Medium

Results presented in Table 4.31 show, the q^2 effect of the relationship between high-performance work practices and work engagement (0.154) can be considered as medium. In addition, the q^2 effect size of the relationship between work engagement and extra-role customer service (0.034) and turnover intention (0.147) can be considered as small and medium, respectively. On the contrary, work engagement was considered to have no effect on creative performance (0.002).

4.11 Mediation Analysis

Mediation analyses were applied to determine the work engagement construct's effects as a potential mediating mechanism between (1) determinant HPWPs, and (2) the consequent job outcomes creative performance, extra-role customer service, and turnover intention.

For the purposes of the study, the work engagement construct was operationalized as a mediator variable positioned between the determinant HPWPs and the consequent job outcomes creative performance, extra-role customer service, and turnover intention. To evaluate the link between work engagement as a potential mediator between HPWPs and the aforementioned job outcomes, the following three hypotheses were examined:

Hypothesis 4a (H4a): Work engagement mediates the effects of HPWPs as manifested by training, empowerment, rewards, job security, and career opportunities, on creative performance, among millennial frontline employees.

Hypothesis 4b (H4b): Work engagement mediates the effects of HPWPs as manifested by training, empowerment, rewards, job security, and career opportunities, on extra-role customer service, among millennial frontline employees.

Hypothesis 4c (H4c): Work engagement mediates the effects of HPWPs as manifested by training, empowerment, rewards, job security, and career opportunities, on turnover intention, among millennial frontline employees.

To test for mediation effects in the structural path model, Nitzl et al.'s (2016) two step approach was used.

First, the significance of the indirect effects of the structural path model and their magnitude was tested using a bootstrap test. Specifically, the indirect effects of three mediation paths were examined. These mediation paths include (1) the indirect effect from HPWPs via work engagement to creative performance, as the product of the path coefficients from HPWPs to work engagement, and from HPWPs to creative performance, (2) the indirect effect from HPWPs via work engagement to extra-role customer service, as the product of the path coefficients from HPWPs to work engagement, and from HPWPs to extra-role customer service, and (3) the indirect effect from HPWPs via work engagement to turnover intention, as the product of the path coefficients from HPWPs to work engagement, and from HPWPs to turnover intention. To test the significance of the paths for these three indirect effects product coefficients, a bootstrap procedure was run using 5000 bootstrap samples. The bootstrap confidence intervals were obtained using the Bias-Corrected and Accelerated (BCa) approaches to PLS-SEM. These paired approaches are used to account for biases and skewness in the bootstrap distribution (Efron, 1987; Gudergan et al., 2008; Henseler et al., 2009; Sarstedt et al., 2011). Critical t values were applied to interpret levels of statistical significance, that is, 1.65 for a significance level of 10% ($\alpha = 0.10$, two-tailed test), 1.96 for a significance level of 5 % ($\alpha = 0.05$, two-tailed test), and 2.57 for a 1% significance level ($\alpha = 0.01$, two-tailed test), respectively (Hair et al., 2017).

Second, the significance of the direct effect was examined to deduce the effect type and or type of mediation present. The steps depicted in Figure 3.6 of Chapter 3 as per the mediation analysis procedure prescribed by Nitzl et al. (2016) were used to establish the type or nature of indirect effect or mediation observed.

Results of the structural path model estimates of work engagement positioned as a mediator between the determinant high-performance work practices, and consequent job outcomes, are presented in Table 4.32.

Table 4.32. Significance Analysis of Mediation Effects

Direct Effect (p_3)	Size	95% Confidence Interval of Direct Effect	Standard Error	t Values	Significance	Indirect Effect ($p_1 \cdot p_2$)	Size	95% Confidence Interval of Indirect Effect	Standard Error	t Values	Significance	Result
<i>High-Performance Work Practices</i> → <i>Creative Performance</i>	-0.186	[-0.295, -0.062]	0.060	3.110	***	<i>High-Performance Work Practices</i> → <i>Work Engagement</i> → <i>Creative Performance</i>	0.066	[0.019, 0.118]	0.025	2.612	***	Competitive Partial Mediation
<i>High-Performance Work Practices</i> → <i>Extra-Role Customer Service</i>	0.175	[0.052, 0.294]	0.061	2.841	***	<i>High-Performance Work Practices</i> → <i>Work Engagement</i> → <i>Extra-Role Customer Service</i>	0.063	[0.005, 0.125]	0.031	2.028	**	Complementary Partial Mediation
<i>High-Performance Work Practices</i> → <i>Turnover Intention</i>	-0.165	[-0.277, -0.053]	0.057	2.919	***	<i>High-Performance Work Practices</i> → <i>Work Engagement</i> → <i>Turnover Intention</i>	-0.151	[-0.214, -0.098]	0.030	5.107	***	Complementary Partial Mediation

ns = not significant, * $p < 0.10$ ($t > 1.65$), ** $p < 0.05$ ($t > 1.96$), *** $p < 0.01$ ($t > 2.57$)

Complementary Partial Mediation ($p_1 \cdot p_2$ is significant, p_3 is significant, $p_1 \cdot p_2 \cdot p_3$ is positive), Competitive Partial Mediation ($p_1 \cdot p_2$ is significant, p_3 is significant, $p_1 \cdot p_2 \cdot p_3$ is Negative), Indirect Only Mediation ($p_1 \cdot p_2$ is significant; p_3 is not significant), Direct Only Mediation ($p_1 \cdot p_2$ is not significant, p_3 is significant), No Effect Mediation ($p_1 \cdot p_2$ is not significant; p_3 is not significant).

Results in Table 4.32. evidence that there were significant indirect effects and direct relationships of the three mediation paths from high-performance work practices to creative performance, extra-role customer service, and turnover intention, through work engagement as an intervening mechanism.

Mediation Path 1: High-performance work practices and creative performance, via work engagement.

Results in Table 4.32 indicate that the indirect effect ($p_1 \cdot p_2$) of high-performance work practices on creative performance through work engagement (path coefficient = 0.066, $t = 2.612$, $p < 0.01$) is significant and positive. Concurrently, the direct effect (p_3) of high-performance work practices on the consequent job outcome creative performance (path coefficient = -0.186, $t = 3.110$, $p < 0.01$) is significant and negative.

Thus, it can be deduced that work engagement serves as a partial mediating mechanism, and represents the partial mediation of the impact of high-performance work practices on creative performance, since the direct (p_3) and indirect ($p_1 \cdot p_2$) effects are significant. To substantiate the type of partial mediation, the product ($p_1 \cdot p_2 \cdot p_3$) of the direct (p_3) and indirect ($p_1 \cdot p_2$) effects is computed. Since the indirect effect ($p_1 \cdot p_2 = 0.066$) is positive and the direct effect ($p_3 = -0.186$) negative, the sign of their product is negative ($p_1 \cdot p_2 \cdot p_3 = -0.012$). As a consequence, the mediating presence of work engagement represents a competitive partial mediation of the relationship between high-performance work practices and creative performance. Thus, Hypothesis **4a (H4a)** is supported.

These results appear to indicate that the existence of available high-performance work practices in the workplace negatively influences creative performance among millennial frontline employees. However, work engagement serves as a mechanism that increases the absolute effect of high-performance work practices on creative performance ($p_1 \cdot p_2 + (p_3) = -0.121$). The opposite signs of the direct ($p_3 = -0.186$) and indirect ($p_1 \cdot p_2 = 0.066$) effects offset each other to the extent that the absolute impact of high-performance work practices on creative performance is amplified. This observed indirect effect through the mediator work engagement is evidence of the true relationship between high-performance work practices and creative performance, i.e. the negative effect of high-performance work practices on creative performance is amplified by the work engagement construct's presence as a mediator, leading to increased levels of creative performance.

Mediation Path 2: High-performance work practices and extra-role customer service, via work engagement.

Results in Table 4.32 also indicate that the indirect effect ($p_1 \cdot p_2$) of high-performance work practices on extra-role customer service through work engagement (path coefficient = 0.063, $t = 2.028$, $p < 0.05$) is both positive and significant. Similarly, the direct effect (p_3) of high-performance work practices on the consequent job outcome extra-role customer service (path coefficient = 0.175, $t = 2.841$, $p < 0.01$) is positively significant. Such results suggest that work engagement partially mediates the relationship between high-performance work practices and extra-role customer service since the direct (p_3) and indirect effects ($p_1 \cdot p_2$) are significant.

To validate the type of partial mediation, the product ($p_1 \cdot p_2 \cdot p_3$) of the direct (p_3) and indirect ($p_1 \cdot p_2$) effects is computed. Since the indirect effect ($p_1 \cdot p_2 = 0.063$) is positive and the direct effect ($p_3 = 0.175$) is positive, the sign of their product is positive ($p_1 \cdot p_2 \cdot p_3 = 0.011$). Consequently, the mediating presence of work engagement represents a complementary partial mediation of the relationship between high-performance work practices and extra-role customer service. Thus, **Hypothesis 4b (H4b)** is supported. The results seem to indicate that the presence of high-performance work practices in the workplace enhances millennial frontline employees' work engagement levels, that is, they are more energetic, display increased enthusiasm, and are more involved in their work, thereby motivating them to strive to go above and beyond their formal job-related responsibilities.

Mediation Path 3: High-performance work practices and turnover intention, via work engagement.

Results in Table 4.32 further indicate that the indirect effect ($p_1 \cdot p_2$) of high-performance work practices on turnover intention through work engagement is significant and negative (path coefficient = -0.151, $t = 5.107$, $p < 0.01$). Likewise, the direct effect (p_3) of high-performance work practices and the consequent job outcome turnover intention (path coefficient = -0.165, $t = 2.919$, $p < 0.01$) is negatively significant.

As such, work engagement is the underlying process through which high-performance work practices is associated with turnover intention. That is, work engagement partially mediates the relationship between high-performance work practices and turnover since both the direct

(p_3) and indirect effects ($p_1 \cdot p_2$) are significant. To confirm the type of partial mediation, the product ($p_1 \cdot p_2 \cdot p_3$) of the direct (p_3) and indirect ($p_1 \cdot p_2$) effects is computed. Since the indirect effect ($p_1 \cdot p_2 = -0.151$) is negative and the direct effect ($p_3 = -0.165$) is negative, the sign of their product is positive ($p_1 \cdot p_2 \cdot p_3 = 0.025$). Therefore, the mediating presence of work engagement represents a complementary partial mediation between high-performance work practices and turnover intention. Thus, **Hypothesis 4c (H4c)** is empirically supported.

These empirical findings constitute supporting evidence of the work engagement construct's function as a mediator between high-performance work practices and turnover intention. More specifically, the results suggest that millennial frontline employees who have favourable perceptions of the existence of available high-performance work practices in the workplace, are more engaged in their jobs, that is, they display increased enthusiasm and energy levels, and are more immersed in their jobs, thereby mitigating any intentions on their part, to leave the organization.

Overall, results of mediation model analyses indicate that work engagement partially mediates the effects of high-performance work practices on creative performance, extra-role customer service, and turnover intention. Thus, **Hypotheses 4a (H4a)**, **4b (H4b)**, and **4c (H4c)** are empirically supported.

A summary of the results of hypothesis testing for mediation analysis are presented in Table 4.33.

Table 4.33. Summary of Results of Hypothesis Testing		
	Hypothesis	Result
H4(a)	Work engagement mediates the effects of HPWPs as manifested by training, empowerment, rewards, job security, and career opportunities, on creative performance.	Supported
H4(b)	Work engagement mediates the effects of HPWPs as manifested by training, empowerment, rewards, job security, and career opportunities, on extra-role customer service.	Supported
H4(c)	Work engagement mediates the effects of HPWPs as manifested by training, empowerment, rewards, job security, and career opportunities, on turnover intention.	Supported

4.12 Post-Hoc Analysis

Subsequent to the testing of structural path model hypotheses including mediator analyses using bootstrapping procedures, individual effects of High-Performance Work Practices

(HPWPs) as manifested by training, empowerment, rewards, job security and career opportunities on the work engagement construct, were considered.

Although not explicitly theorized beforehand, the researcher conducted a post-hoc investigation (i.e. beyond the ordinary scope of hypothesized relationships empirically tested in the study) using an Importance-Performance Map Analysis (IPMA) PLS-SEM test.

This test was used to extend prediction in the study, as the researcher further empirically investigated the linkage between high-performance work practices (HPWPs) and work engagement, by establishing which HPWPs are, in fact, most conducive to enhanced levels of work engagement among millennial frontline employees.

4.12.1 Importance-Performance Map Analysis (IPMA)

IPMA, otherwise known as importance-performance matrix analysis or impact-performance map analysis, extends and enriches the findings of PLS-SEM testing by taking into account the actual performance of each of the latent variables in the analysis (Fornell, Johnson, Anderson, Cha and Bryant, 1996; Hock, Ringle and Sarstedt, 2010; Volckner, Sattler, Henning-Thurau and Ringle, 2010).

For this study, the five-step procedure used to conduct an IPMA test for the target (criterion) construct work engagement, with HPWPs latent variable indicators i.e. training, empowerment, rewards, job security, and career opportunities, as its predecessor (predictor) constructs, is illustrated in Figure 4.4.

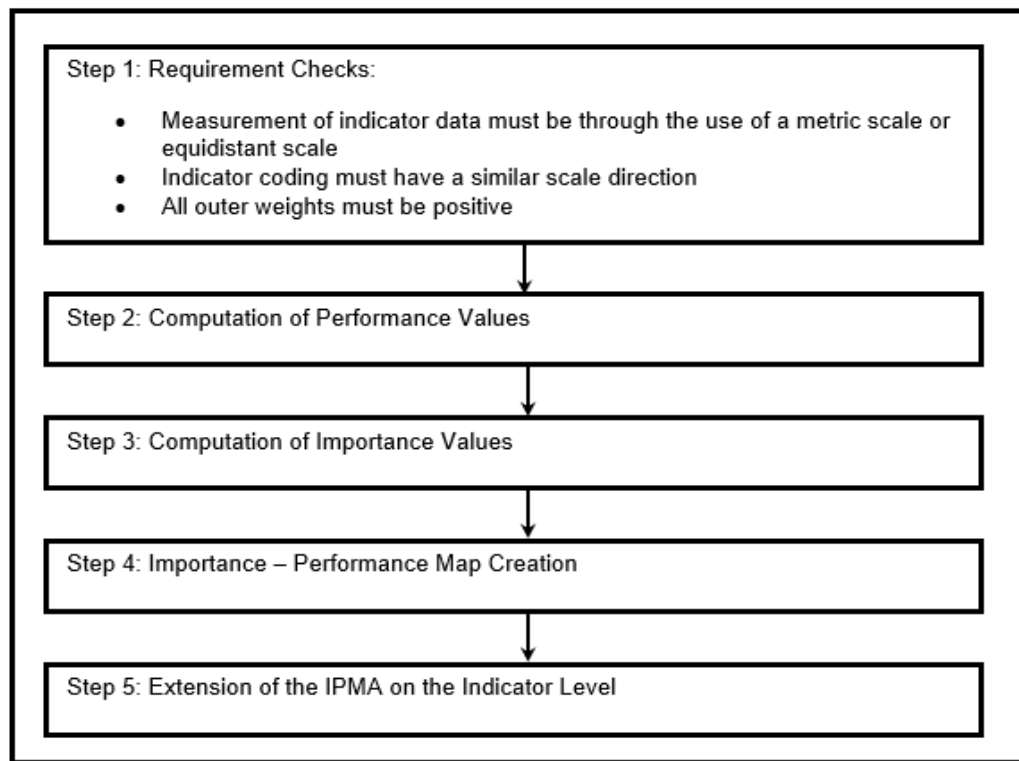


Figure 4.4. Guidelines for Importance–Performance Map Analysis (IPMA) (Hair et al., 2018b)

To conduct the IPMA test, the following requirements were examined.

A review of the survey instrument confirmed that indicator data was measured using an equidistant scale (5-point Likert scale), i.e. one with balanced (two negative and positive) categories and a neutral category (option). Therefore, rescaling of the latent variable scores was not a concern as this process requires that all used indicators from the path model must have an equidistant scale (Hair et al., 2018b). Further, indicator coding was assessed and established, as all indicators were found to have the same scale direction i.e. positive. As such, reverse-scaling (reverse-scoring) of the indicators was not necessitated.

A structural path model with high-performance work practices (HPWPs) indicators, namely training, empowerment, rewards, job security, and career opportunities, as the five predecessor (predictor) constructs, and work engagement as the target (criterion) variable, was estimated. A PLS-SEM algorithm was run to examine the weights of all the indicators. All their outer weights were found to be positive. Therefore, no indicator was excluded from subsequent analyses.

For this study, work engagement was specified as the target (criterion) construct with indicator minimum values of 1 and maximum values of 5. These values were consistent with the Likert

scale used to measure indicator data on the survey instrument used for this study. Subsequently, the IPMA analysis was run using PLS-SEM to compute the importance and performance values (steps 2 and 3). Next, these computed performance and important values obtained were used to generate an importance-performance map (step 4), where the x-axis represented the total effects (importance), and the y-axis represented the rescaled latent variable values (performance).

To aid interpretation, emphasis and focus is placed on the predecessor (predictor) constructs or indicators in the bottom-right quadrant of the importance-performance map (Hair et al., 2017). That is, those constructs or indicators that exhibit a high importance, but low performance, for the target (criterion) construct.

Importance-performance IPMA analysis scores for work engagement as the target (criterion) construct, are summarized in Table 4.34.

Table 4.34. Summary of the Importance-Performance Map Analysis (IPMA) for Work Engagement Construct		
	Importance Effects (Total Effects)	Performance (Index Values)
Training	0.202	80.203
Empowerment	0.088	62.534
Rewards	0.036	60.445
Job Security	0.056	46.980
Career Opportunities	0.073	62.222
Mean Value	0.091	62.557

As presented in Table 4.34, the IPMA of work engagement indicated that empowerment (EMP) had a relatively high importance for predicting work engagement as compared to career opportunities (CO), rewards (RW) and job security (JS). However, compared to the construct training (TR), its performance appeared to be slightly below average. Similarly, rewards (RW) had a relatively low performance below the average and a well below average importance. The construct job security (JS) held a low importance with the lowest performance compared to other constructs, whereas career opportunities (CO) held a slightly below average performance and low importance.

More importantly, training (TR) had the greatest performance and importance for work engagement as compared to the other independent variables, that is empowerment (EMP), career opportunities (CO), rewards (RW), and job security (JS).

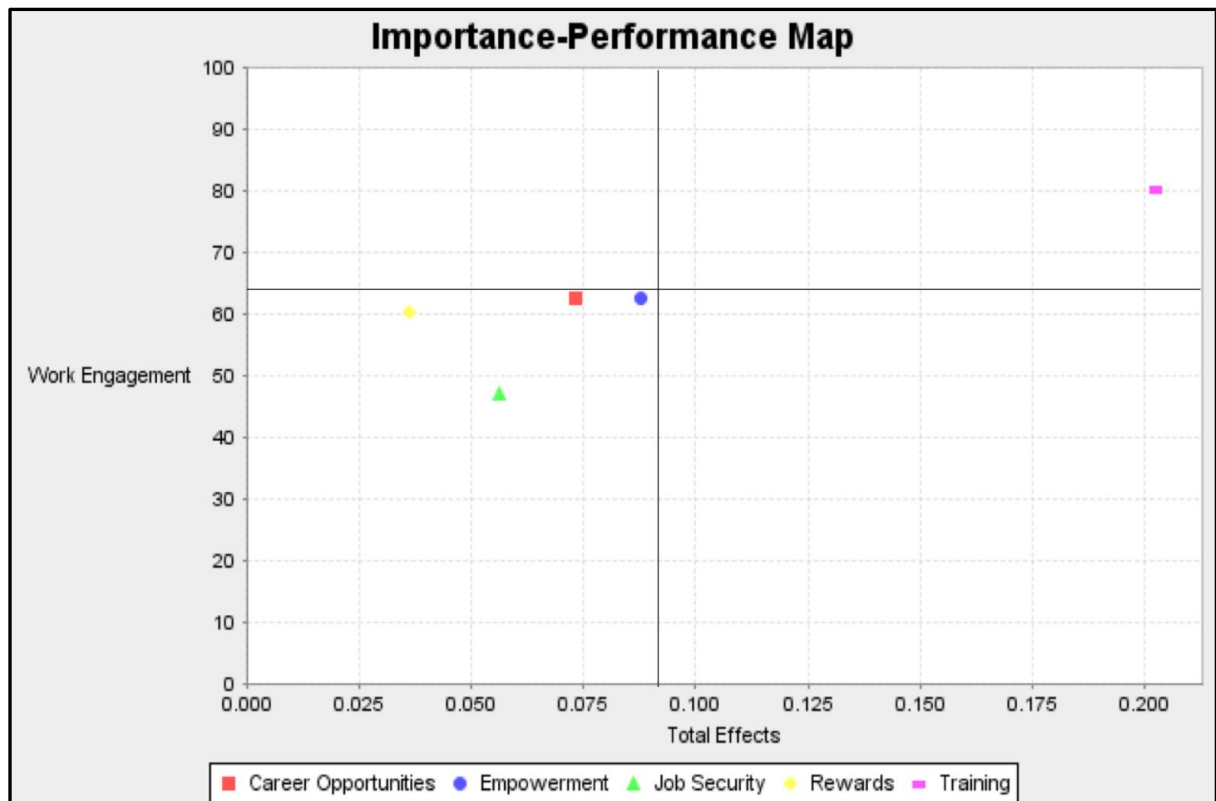


Figure 4.5. Importance Performance Map for the Work Engagement (WE) Construct

The findings in Table 4.34 and Figure 4.5 showed that managerial activities to improve work engagement should be focused on the empowerment (EMP) construct. Among the predecessor construct, that is, rewards, job security and career opportunities, empowerment (EMP) had the greatest importance (total effect = 0.088) with a slightly below average relative performance (index value = 62.534) on the work engagement construct. Thus, the findings from the study demonstrated a relatively high potential for improving the performance of empowerment, in order to influence work engagement.

As empowerment's (EMP) importance and performance values fall close to the mean (average) importance (mean total effect = 0.091) and performance (mean index value = 62.557) thresholds, empowerment appears to be closest to the bottom-right quadrant of the importance-performance map (refer to Figure 4.5 in Chapter 4), which represents the greatest opportunity to achieve improvement (Hair et al., 2017). More precisely, *ceteris paribus* (that is, holding all things constant), an increment in the performance of empowerment by one-unit (that is, from 62.5 to 63.5) would lead to an increment in the performance of work engagement by the magnitude (size) of the total effect (0.088 points) of empowerment, on the levels of work engagement. These results showed that empowerment played a significant role in

influencing work engagement despite its low performance, thus warranting managerial attention for action.

In order to provide additional insights on how to best improve the performance of the empowerment (EMP) construct, from a managerial perspective, an IPMA test was extended to the indicator-level. An IPMA of the indicators of empowerment (EMP) was conducted (step 5) to further examine this HPWPs indicator.

Importance-performance IPMA analysis scores for the empowerment (EMP) construct at the indicator-level, are shown in Table 4.35.

Table 4.35. Summary of the Importance – Performance Map Analysis (IPMA) for Empowerment Indicator		
	Importance (Total Effects)	Performance (Index Values)
EMP 1	0.014	69.059
EMP 2	0.009	56.235
EMP 3	0.018	52.047
EMP 4	0.024	63.716
EMP 5	0.023	67.759
Mean Value	0.018	61.763

Results of the IPMA extended to the construct empowerment (EMP) at the indicator-level (Table 4.35), showed that in comparison to indicators EMP 1 (i.e., I am encouraged to handle customer problems by myself), EMP 2 (i.e., I do not need management's approval before I handle customer problems), and EMP 3 (i.e., I am allowed to do almost anything to solve customer problems), indicators EMP 4 (i.e., I can exercise control over how I solve customers' problems), and EMP 5 (i.e., I am empowered to solve customer problems), exhibited a particularly high importance relative to the mean (average) importance (mean total effect = 0.018) and performance (mean index value = 61.763) thresholds.

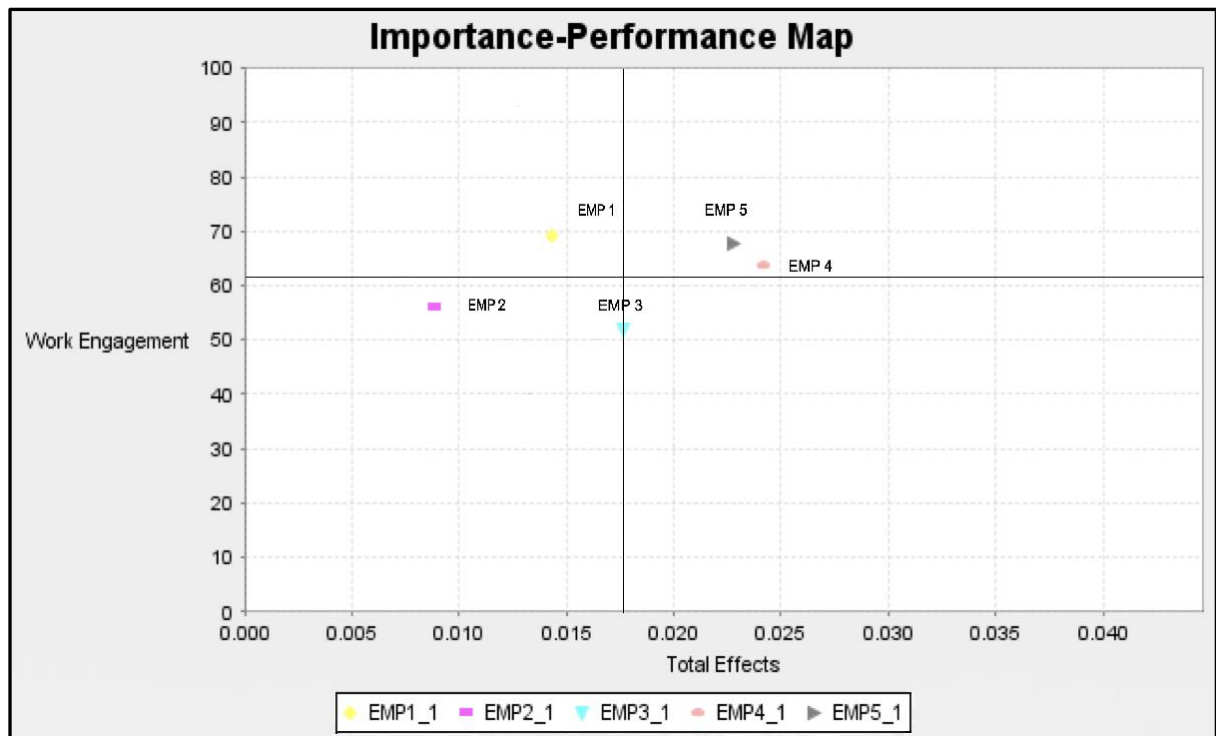


Figure 4.6. Importance Performance Map for the Indicators of the Empowerment (EMP) Construct

These results showed that management should continuously aim at affording millennial frontline employees greater autonomy over resolving customer problems so as to enhance the performance of the empowerment (EMP) construct. Additionally, indicator EMP 3 (i.e., I am allowed to do almost anything to solve customer problems) appeared to exhibit the lowest performance as compared to other indicators despite its average importance (see above Figure 4.6). Thus, allowing millennial frontline employees greater authority to exercise their judgement in resolving customer problems, would further increase and reinforce the performance of empowerment (EMP).

4.12.2 Test for Non-linear (Quadratic) Effects

The prime objective of this post hoc test was to determine the significant non-linear (quadratic) effects using the two-stage approach (Hair, Sarsdet, Ringle and Gudegan, 2018b).

First, evaluation criteria of the measurement model and structural path model for the testing of non-linear (quadratic) effects was evaluated, for which the validity and reliability of the latent variable measures were confirmed (see Section 4.8 of Chapter 4). Second, latent variable scores obtained using a PLS algorithm were used as the latent variable indicators in the non-linear model to evaluate the model for quadratic effects.

The structural path model estimated to test the non-linear (quadratic) effects of the inter-relationships among work engagement and the three outcomes creative performance, extra-role customer service, and turnover intention, is illustrated in Figure 4.7.

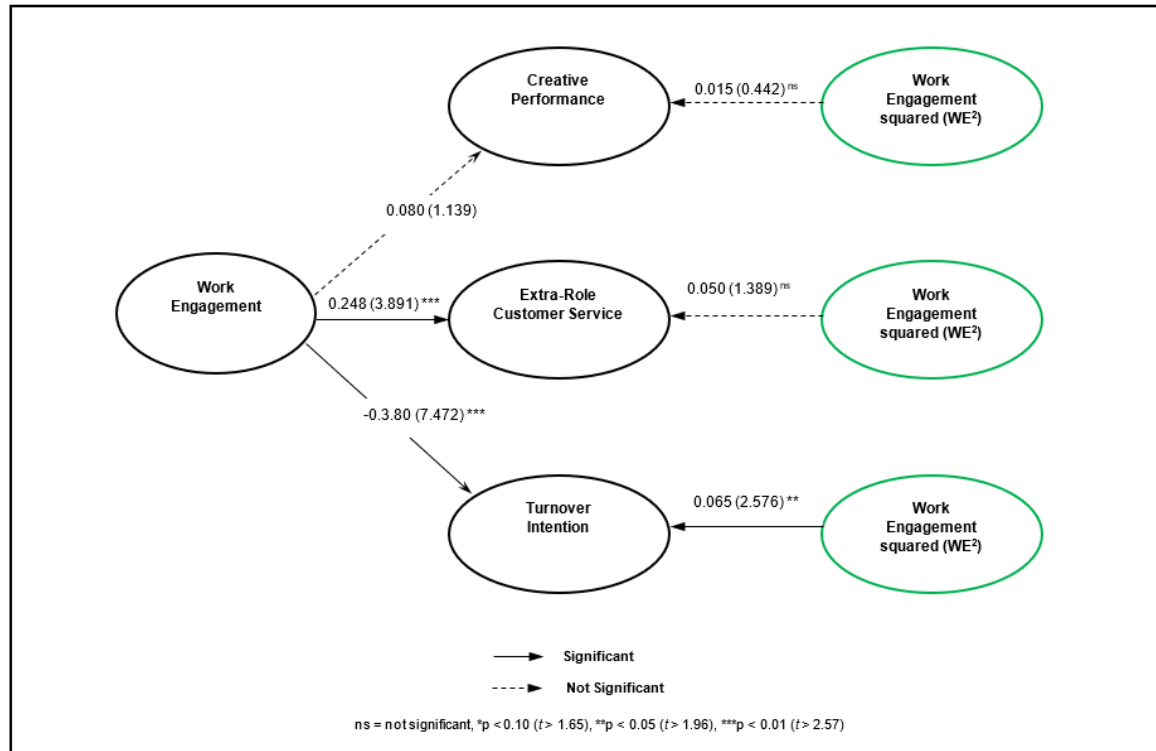


Figure 4.7. Results of Structural Path Model Estimation for Non-Linear (Quadratic) Effects (n = 405)

Linear Effects

Work Engagement → Creative Performance (path coefficient = 0.080, t = 1.139, p < 0.01) ^{ns}

Work Engagement → Extra-Role Customer Service (path coefficient = 0.248, t = 3.891, p < 0.01) ***

Work Engagement → Turnover Intention (path coefficient = -0.380, t = 7.472, p < 0.01) ***

Non-linear Effects

Work Engagement Squared (WE²) → Creative Performance (path coefficient = 0.015, t = 0.442, p < 0.01) ^{ns}

Work Engagement Squared (WE²) → Extra-Role Customer Service (path coefficient = 0.050, t = 1.389, p < 0.01) ^{ns}

Work Engagement squared (WE²) → Turnover Intention (path coefficient = 0.065, t = 2.576, p < 0.01) ***

The results of the structural path model estimated to test the non-linear (quadratic) work engagement effects, are presented in Table 4.36.

Table 4.36. PLS-SEM Analyses of Linear and Non-Linear Terms Predicting Job Outcomes

Path	Path Coefficient	t value	p value	Sig. Level	95% CI
Work Engagement → Creative Performance	0.080	1.139	0.255	ns	[-0.180, 0.158]
Work Engagement → Extra-Role Customer Service	0.248	3.891	0.000	***	[0.119, 0.366]
Work Engagement Squared (WE²) → Turnover Intention	-0.380	7.472	0.000	***	[-0.473, -0.275]
Work Engagement Squared (WE²) → Creative Performance	0.015	0.442	0.658	ns	[-0.051, 0.081]
Work Engagement Squared (WE²) → Extra-Role Customer Service	0.050	1.389	0.165	ns	[-0.025, 0.117]
Work Engagement Squared (WE²) → Turnover Intention	0.065	2.576	0.010	***	[0.017, 0.117]

ns = not significant, *p < 0.10 (t > 1.65), **p < 0.05 (t > 1.96), ***p < 0.01 (t > 2.57)

Results in Table 4.36 affirm that there are only linear associations between work engagement (predictor variable) and creative performance and extra-role customer service outcomes (criterion variables). For the relationship (***Work Engagement Squared (WE²) → Creative Performance***) a coefficient of 0.015 was obtained, with a *t* value of 0.442 (*p* < 0.05). In addition, the value zero was found to be within the 95% bias-corrected confidence interval with lower and upper bounds of -0.051 and 0.081, respectively.

Similarly, for the relationship (***Work Engagement Squared (WE²) → Extra Role Customer Service***) a coefficient of 0.050 was obtained, with a *t* value of 1.389 (*p* < 0.05). The value zero was also found to be within the 95% bias-corrected confidence interval with lower and upper bounds of -0.025 and 0.117, respectively. Hence, based on the 95% bias-corrected intervals obtained, work engagement was not observed to exert a significant quadratic (non-linear) effect on creative performance and extra-role customer service.

The findings presented in Table 4.36 however, indicate that there may exist a non-linear (curvilinear) association between work engagement (predictor variable) and turnover intention (criterion variable). Results indicate that a coefficient of 0.065 (***Work Engagement squared (WE²) → Turnover Intention***) was obtained. Thus, the quadratic non-linear term Work Engagement Squared (WE²) was found to be significant at the 5% interval level. That is, the quadratic term is a positive and significant predictor of turnover intention (path coefficient = 0.065, *t* = 2.576, *p* < 0.05). Further, for the non-linear association of work engagement with turnover intention (***Work Engagement Squared (WE²) → Turnover Intention***), the zero value was not found to lie within the 95% bias corrected interval, with a lower limit of 0.017 and an upper limit of 0.117. Thus, based on the 95% confidence interval, it is evident that as a predictor, work engagement exerts a significant non-linear (quadratic) effect on turnover intention.

To further examine the significance of the work engagement variable's non-linear effect on turnover intention, the *f*² value was considered to establish the relevance of this effect. To interpret the *f*² effect size, value thresholds recommended by Kenny (2015) were used. Specifically, *f*² values larger than 0.005, 0.010, and 0.250, denote effect sizes that are small, medium, and large, respectively. As such, work engagement was observed to have a small effect (0.012) on turnover intention following PLS-SEM analysis.

Figure 4.7 shows the results of non-linear (quadratic) effects testing as per the following equation that captures the association between work engagement and turnover intention for which a non-linear effects relationship was detected:

$$Y_2 = P_1 * Y_1 + P_2 Y_1^2$$

where:

Y_2 = Turnover intention (TI)

P_1 = -0.380 (Path Coefficient of Linear Relationship)

Y_1 = Work Engagement (WE)

P_2 = 0.065 (Path Coefficient of the Non-Linear Effects)

Y_1^2 = Work Engagement Squared (WE^2)

Therefore, expressed as:

$$\text{Turnover intention (TI)} = -0.380 * \text{Work Engagement (WE)} + 0.065 * \text{Work Engagement Squared (WE}^2\text{)}$$

The quadratic non-linear effect of work engagement utilizes its significant linear effect on turnover intention (path coefficient = -0.380, $t = 7.472$, $p < 0.01$). To interpret the effect of Work Engagement Squared (WE^2), the significant linear effects from work engagement to turnover intention with a value of $p = -0.380$ is used as a point of reference. For an increase of work engagement by one standard deviation unit, the non-linear (quadratic) effect on turnover intention and the linear effects are summed (that is, $-0.380 + 0.065 = -0.315$). Given that the quadratic term is negative, the association of work engagement with turnover intention is expected to become weaker, when work engagement increases by one standard deviation unit. As such, the quadratic (non-linear) effect in the association of work engagement with turnover intention can be illustrated as depicted in Figure 4.8.

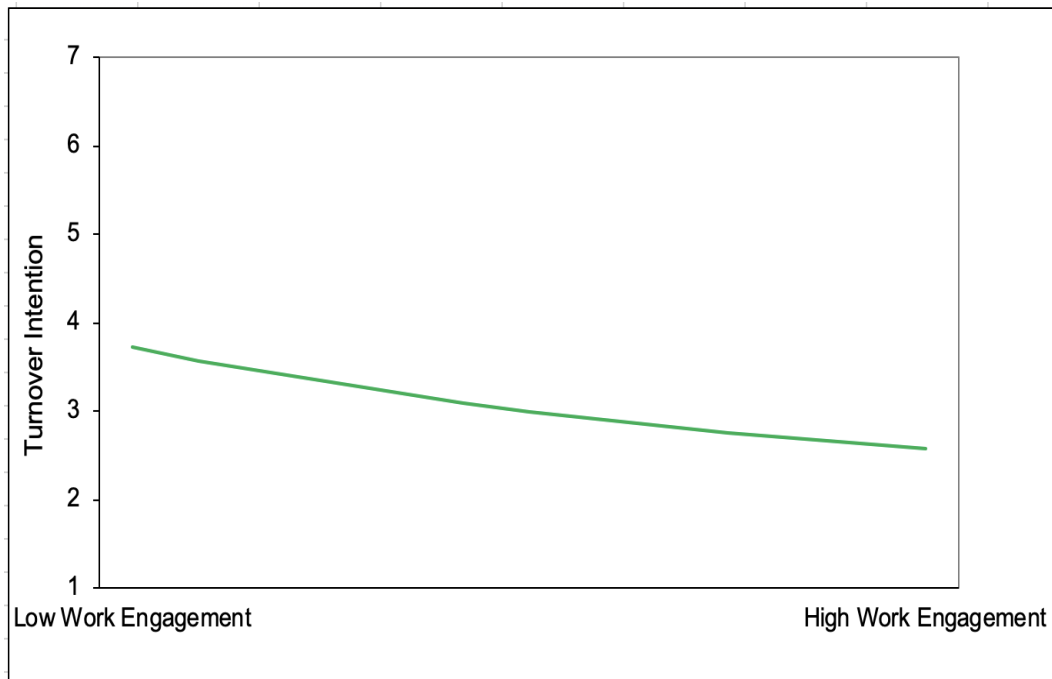


Figure 4.8. Curvilinear Relationship between Work Engagement and Turnover Intention (n = 405)

As shown in Figure 4.8, the overall form and shape of the association of work engagement with turnover intention is curvilinear. As such, a non-linear association between these two variables is supported. Specifically, the linear association (P_1 coefficient) of work engagement with turnover intention is negative (path coefficient = -0.380). However, the non-linear effect (P_2 coefficient) is positive (0.065). The non-linear effect influences the direction of the curvature (solid green line in Figure 4.8). In this case, adding a positive quadratic term produces a curved line that leans towards being either convex or u-shaped (Figure 4.8). In other words, the non-linear association between work engagement and turnover intention assumes the expression $Y_2 = P_1 * Y_1 + P_2 Y_1^2$, where P_1 is less than zero, and P_2 is greater than zero (Hair et al., 2018).

4.13 Summary of Chapter

The primary aim of this chapter was to present empirical analysis and findings using data (n=405) elicited for the study.

The participant response rate, data screening procedures, and respondent demographic profiles were presented.

This was followed by an examination of the measurement model and structural path model to empirically assess the outcomes of the study's hypothesized conceptual model relationships.

Two statistical software packages, that is, IBM SPSS (Version 25), and SmartPLS (Versions 2 and 3.2.8) for Windows OS, were used as analytical tools for the data analysis conducted for this study.

The IBM SPSS software package was utilized in computing descriptive statistics and conducting an Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA), whereas the SmartPLS (Versions 2 and 3.2.8) software packages were utilized to evaluate the study's measurement model for construct specification and validation, and structural path model to empirically test conceptual model hypotheses.

Following the assessment of the measurement and structural path models for the study, post-hoc analyses were conducted to extend and enrich findings. These tests included an IPMA test, conducted at the construct level and indicator level and non-linear (quadratic) effects tests. This supplementary analysis was conducted to enhance statistical prediction and derive additional insights from the study findings.

In the subsequent chapter, detailed discussions of study's findings and conclusion, are provided. On the basis of the theoretical underpinnings and literature review of the study, the findings discussed in this chapter will be expounded. Further, recommendations for future research and potential avenues for future study, will be detailed, in conclusion.

Chapter 5

Discussion of Results, Conclusion, Limitations, and Future Research

5.1 Introduction

The aim of this chapter is to discuss study findings obtained from the data analysis in relation to the existing literature, and subsequent research and managerial practice implications, and to conclude the study. The present study's research limitations and contributions are also discussed, after which recommendations are provided to guide future research.

Specifically, this chapter comprises five main sections, that is, discussion of (1) the aim of the study and research findings, (2) findings in relation to the hypothesized relationships, (3) implications for research and management practice, (4) the study contributions, research limitations, and (5) future research recommendations.

5.2 Aim of the Study

The object of the present study was to examine the relationships between work engagement, determinant high-performance work practices, and consequent job outcomes, among millennial frontline hospitality industry employees, in the context of Kenya, a country in the Sub-Saharan African region. Numerous knowledge and evidence gaps in prior human resource and management research were identified. To address these gaps in knowledge and evidence, the following four research questions were formulated:

1. What are the high-performance work practices that determine work engagement among millennial frontline employees in the Kenyan hospitality (hotel) industry?
2. To what extent do these high-performance work practices impact work engagement levels among millennial frontline employees in the Kenyan hospitality (hotel) industry?
3. What are the consequent job outcomes of work engagement among millennial frontline employees in the Kenyan hospitality (hotel) industry?
4. To what extent do work engagement levels among millennial frontline employees impact these job outcomes?

To answer these four research questions, the following six study objectives were specified:

1. Review literature to identify high-performance work practices variables that determine work engagement.
2. Empirically assess identified variables of high-performance work practices as determinants of work engagement among millennial frontline employees.
3. Test the effects of the selected high-performance work practices on work engagement.
4. Identify and select a set of relevant variables with which to empirically assess employee job outcomes of work engagement among millennial frontline employees.
5. Test the effects of work engagement on the selected employee job outcomes.
6. Develop and empirically test a conceptual model depicting the relationships between the constructs of the study.

To fulfil these six specified study objectives, the Social Exchange Theory (SET) and the motivational process of the Job-Demands Resources (JD-R) Model, were drawn upon to theoretically underpin a conceptual model developed to empirically test the relationships between High-Performance Work Practices (HPWPs) as manifested by training, empowerment, rewards, job security, and career opportunities, work engagement as an intervening mechanism, and three job outcomes, that is, creative performance, extra-role customer service, and turnover intention. Eight postulated hypotheses were derived from the literature review (Chapter 2). Results of testing these hypotheses were obtained through data analyses and presented in Chapter 4.

5.3 Summary of the Research Findings

In the present study, the relationship between determinant (antecedent) High-Performance Work Practices (HPWPs) as manifested by training, empowerment, rewards, job security, and career opportunities, and the job outcomes creative performance, extra-role customer service, and turnover intention through work engagement, were investigated.

Specifically, five manifest variables of High-Performance Work Practices (HPWPs) as significant indicators of HPWPs in frontline service roles, were hypothesized. In addition, a conceptual model in which direct associations were hypothesized between determinant (antecedent) High-Performance Work Practices (HPWPs), work engagement, and consequent job outcomes, that is, creative performance, extra-role customer service, and turnover intention, was developed and empirically tested. It was also hypothesised that work

engagement, positioned as an intervening mechanism, may function as an intervening variable mediating the effects of determinant (antecedent) High-Performance Work Practices (HPWPs) on these three consequent job outcomes.

Findings from the study confirmed that all but one of the hypotheses were empirically substantiated (See results presented in Table 4.26, Table 4.27 and Table 4.33 of Chapter 4). As hypothesized in the study, statistical analyses using PLS-SEM tests uncovered that training, empowerment, rewards, career opportunities, and job security, were significant indicators of HPWPs. Findings also showed that HPWPs were positively and significantly linked with work engagement. Further, the work engagement variable was observed to be significantly and directly related to the two outcome variables, that is, turnover intention and extra-role customer service. Additionally, statistically significant indirect relationships with the three job outcome variables creative performance, extra-role customer service, and turnover intention, were also observed. All the findings were congruent with previous results and theories from the existing literature, with the exception of one, the hypothesized positive and direct relationship between work engagement and creative performance.

Through extensive post-hoc tests, extended statistical PLS-SEM analyses further uncovered additional findings. Specifically, results of an Importance Performance Map Analysis (IPMA) provided supplementary information on the nuances of the association of HPWPs with the work engagement construct. IPMA testing was used to empirically establish which individual HPWPs indicators were most essential to increasing levels of work engagement among millennial frontline employees. This test allowed the researcher to identify which construct (individual indicator) to prioritize in order to improve the target construct, work engagement. Findings from the IPMA results showed that the HPWPs indicator empowerment, played a significant role in influencing work engagement among millennial frontline employees. Despite its relatively high importance (impact), empowerment was found to exhibit low performance (see results presented in Table 4.34 of Chapter 4). As such, empowerment was identified as a high priority construct for performance improvement. This additional information presented practical implications for management, such that to enhance work engagement levels among millennial frontline employees, managerial decision-making should be focused on prioritizing the improvement of empowerment levels.

Further, results of the non-linear (quadratic) effects tests provided additional information on the association of the constructs work engagement with the three job outcomes creative

performance, extra-role customer service, and turnover intention. The non-linear (quadratic) effects test was used to empirically establish the significance of a curvilinear relationship between the variables, over and above the linear relationships that were depicted by the study's conceptual model (see Figure 2.4 in Chapter 2). The non-linear (quadratic) effect test findings showed that work engagement had a curvilinear relationship with turnover intention, while only linear relationships among work engagement and creative performance, and extra-role customer service, were exhibited. As such, results of the study constituted empirical support for the negative effects of excess levels of work engagement, which resulted in a decrease in the magnitude of the correlation of work engagement with turnover intention. This additional information presents practical implications for management, as excess levels of work engagement may not necessarily result in positive outcomes, but rather, undesirable outcomes such as millennial frontline employees' inclinations to leave an organization no longer decrease.

5.3.1 Conclusion of Dimensionality Analysis

Dimensionality analysis was conducted to confirm whether each measurement item of a construct related more with that specific construct as opposed to items of a different variable (Urbach and Ahlemann, 2010).

To establish the unidimensionality of the study's variables, an Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA) was applied for all measurement items. Results obtained using EFA indicted that all measurement items demonstrated considerable high factor loadings, that is, well above 0.300 for a study sample size greater than 350 ($n = 405$) (Hair et al., 2010; 2018a). In addition, all instrument items also had communalities greater than 0.500, thereby attaining an acceptable threshold (Hair et al., 2010; 2018a). Further, no cross-loadings (high loadings on two or more factors) were observed.

Results empirically substantiated that measurement items explained the total variance of their respective constructs (variables).

5.3.2 Conclusion of Instrument (Construct) Validity and Reliability Analysis

Reliability measures of all scales were evaluated to ascertain that each item in the respective variables of the study were valid and reliable. Cronbach Alpha scores and composite reliability scores, which indicates internal consistency reliability, were obtained. In principle, a coefficient Cronbach's Alpha score between 0.600 and 0.700 is deemed an acceptable value

in quantitative research (Hair et al., 2014a; 2018a). Similarly, composite reliability values ranging from 0.600 and 0.700 are regarded as acceptable values (Hair et al., 2017). Furthermore, item-total correlations of above 0.200 are deemed as significant indicators of item reliability (Nunnally, 1978).

The reliability results of this study were deemed acceptable and satisfactory per the aforementioned guidelines. All variables of the study exhibited acceptable Cronbach's coefficient Alpha scores of 0.700 and above (Table 4.17 and Table 4.19 in Chapter 4). Composite reliability scores of each variable in the study were also found to have scores greater than 0.600 (Table 4.19 in Chapter 4). Furthermore, item-total correlation scores per item were observed to exceed the recommended cut-off score of 0.200 (Chapter 4, Table, 4.18). Thus, the study's measurement instrument was found to be reliable for hypothesis testing.

The validity results in the present study were also found to be agreeable and acceptable. Average Variance Extracted (AVE) values per variable were found to be above the recommended threshold of 0.500 (Fornell and Larker, 1981), thus signifying that each measure related with the alternative measures of its specific variable. Discriminant validity results as presented in Chapter 4 (Table. 4.20, Table 4.21, Table 4.22 and Table 4.23 in Chapter 4) indicate that each variable was unique and distinct from the other.

5.4 Interpretation and Discussion of the Results

5.4.1 High-Performance Work Practices (HPWPs)

In this study, five critical HPWPs indicators relevant to frontline service hotel industry jobs were identified and examined for their significance, following a detailed review of the extant literature. The manifest variables training, empowerment, rewards, job security, and career opportunities, were hypothesized as significant HPWPs indicators. In consonance with preceding research (e.g. Karatepe, 2013b; Karatepe et al., 2014a; Karatepe and Olugbade, 2016), findings of the present study empirically substantiated the proposition that training, empowerment, rewards, job security, and career opportunities, are significant, positive HPWPs indicators, thus supporting **Hypothesis 1 (H1)**. Findings from PLS-SEM analysis evidenced that the manifest HPWP indicator rewards (path coefficient = 0.786, $t = 35.293$, $p < 0.01$) was the most significant indicator of HPWPs among millennial frontline employees. This was followed by training (path coefficient = 0.745, $t = 28.693$, $p < 0.01$), empowerment

(path coefficient = 0.707, $t = 24.054$, $p < 0.01$), career opportunities (path coefficient = 0.705, $t = 21.800$, $p < 0.01$), and job security (path coefficient = 0.547, $t = 13.352$, $p < 0.01$).

The availability of HPWPs in the form of training, empowerment, rewards, job security, and career opportunities, sends a powerful signal of management's commitment to investing in the human resource, thereby increasing the abilities, knowledge, and skills, of millennial frontline employees (Karatepe, 2013b; Karatepe and Vatankhah, 2014a, 2014b). This investment not only signifies management's commitment to delivery of service quality, but also its commitment towards the well-being of millennial frontline employees (Karatepe and Vatankhah, 2014a, 2014b, 2015). For instance, as a motivation-enhancing practice, rewards and recognition allow management to motive individuals and reinforce performance enhancing behaviour. The provision of rewards and recognition conveys a strong message to millennial frontline employees that their efforts are valued and appreciated (Karatepe, 2013b), thus motivating them to increase their performance. This finding that rewards is the most significant HPWPs indicator among millennial frontline employees, also corroborates observed findings in studies from the contemporary literature (e.g. Hauw and Vos, 2010; Twenge et al., 2010; Lu and Gursoy, 2013), that for their contributions to the organization, millennials in the workplace highly value recognition and rewards.

Moreover, it has been acknowledged in prior research that millennial employees possess high expectations for training and development (Wong et al., 2008; Hauw and Vos, 2010). As a skill-enhancing human resource practice, training ensures individuals possess the requisite skills necessary to perform their duties. Additionally, training employees not only enables them meet their work obligations, but also attain their full potential in terms of performance (Twenge et al., 2010). The provision of continuous training and re-training programmes to millennial frontline employees fosters a supportive working environment where employees can handle dynamic customer needs resourcefully and effectively (Takeuchi et al., 2009; Karatepe and Vatankhah, 2014b, 2015). Therefore, providing millennial frontline employees with the necessary training ensures that they develop the technical, interpersonal, and behavioural skills, required to effectively handle customer requests and complaints (Karatepe and Karadas, 2012; Karatepe and Vatankhah, 2014a). Empowerment on the other hand, affords these employees the responsibility and authority to make autonomous decisions without deferring to a tedious command structure (Babakus et al., 2003c; Yavas and Babakus, 2010; Karatepe et al., 2014a). Further, millennial frontline employees who are empowered are

able to engage in discretionary behaviours that allow them to meet and exceed customer expectations (Klidas et al., 2007). Moreover, due to roles which are described as boundary spanning, empowered millennial frontline service employees are better placed to provide instant solutions to customers on service-related requests or problems, all the while utilizing their creativity and personal skills to offer satisfactory services (Yavas et al., 2003; He, Murrmann and Perdue, 2010; Karatepe, 2013b; Luoh et al., 2014). Similar to findings cited in prior studies (e.g. Cennamo and Gardener, 2008; Maier, Tavanti, Bombard, Gentile and Bradford, 2015), millennial employees prefer to work in an environment where they have the freedom, authority, and responsibility, to make decisions as opposed to one in which rigorous rules and procedures are imposed on them, coupled with direct supervisory control. The results of this study have further established that millennial frontline employees value empowerment. Thus, empowering millennial frontline employees provides them with the latitude with which to make decisions independently, by utilizing their individual skills and initiative to effectively provide instantaneous service solutions, thereby enhancing service quality.

In addition, as motivation-enhancing practices, career opportunities and job security enable employers to attract and retain talented and qualified individuals in the workplace (Karatepe and Olugbade, 2016). Millennial frontline employees working in an environment that affords them career advancement opportunities are more likely to be motivated, and as a result, more willing to increase their performance and exhibit positive job outcomes (Karatepe and Vatankhah, 2014a; Karatepe and Olugbade, 2016). Availability of career opportunities to millennial frontline employees signifies that management values and supports these employees by providing them with career advancement opportunities that enable them acquire additional skills and experiences. Moreover, the provision of career advancement opportunities is perceived as an organization's commitment towards investing in its employees (Karatepe and Vatankhah, 2014b). Similar to prior findings (e.g. Wong et al., 2008; Hauw and Vos, 2010), results from the present study support career advancement opportunities as a motivational driver for millennial employees. Due to their ambition (Hauw and Vos, 2010), millennial frontline employees are likely to actively pursue career opportunities in their organizations. Therefore, hotel establishments should foster stable work environments that offer millennial frontline employees career advancement opportunities (Karatepe and Olugbade, 2016). In addition to the advancement of career opportunities, millennial frontline employees working in an environment that provides them with job security feel cared for and valued by their employers and have more of an inclination towards

accomplishing their work tasks. As observed by Karatepe and Olugbade (2016), job security motivates employees and fosters positive work outcomes. The results concerning job security as a significant indicator of HPWPs in frontline jobs, are congruent with previous works (e.g. Karatepe et al., 2014a; Karatepe and Vatankhah 2014a, 2014b; Karatepe and Olugbade, 2016). Moreover, the results reported in this study are synonymous with prior studies (e.g. Chou, 2012; O'Connor and Raile, 2015; Kuron et al., 2015) that support the notion of millennials employees' value for job security.

Findings from this study confirm that HPWPs as manifested by training, empowerment, rewards, career opportunities, and job security, are valuable hotel industry practices (Karatepe 2013b; Karatepe et al., 2014a; Karatepe and Vatankhah 2014b), which have been attributed to the retention of qualified and talented employees (Karatepe and Vatankhah 2014a). The findings of this present study affirm that millennial frontline employees are more inclined to be motivated in an environment that not only provides them with training programmes to improve their technical and behavioural skills, but also those that are focused on their empowerment. In addition, millennial frontline employees are more likely inclined to perform at a higher level when their endeavours are appreciated and rewarded for their efforts. Furthermore, the availability of career opportunities and a stable work environment ensures the provision of additional support to millennial frontline employees, thereby motivating them and positively impacting their performance.

5.4.2 The Relationship between High-Performance Work Practices (HPWPs) and Work Engagement

The hypothesized path relationship between HPWPs and work engagement (*HPWPs* → *work engagement*), was significant (path coefficient = 0.450, $t = 10.833$, $p < 0.01$) following PLS-SEM analysis. These results indicate that the presence of determinant HPWPs had a positively significant influence on the work engagement levels of millennial frontline employees. Based on the evidence obtained, results affirm that this strong relationship between HPWPs and work engagement is indicative of the importance of HPWPs to inducing millennial frontline employees' work engagement. This result corroborates prior research (e.g. Karatepe, 2013b; Karatepe and Olugbade, 2016; Karadas and Karatepe, 2019), which established the positive influence of HPWPs on work engagement among frontline employees. It was demonstrated in the present study that millennial frontline service employees working in an environment in which such HPWPs relevant to frontline jobs are present, are likely to exhibit elevated

enthusiasm levels, and be more absorbed and dedicated in their work. From the empirical findings adduced in the present study, an association of work engagement with HPWPs as its determinant (antecedent) was affirmed, thus supporting **Hypothesis 2 (H2)**.

Findings affirm that millennial frontline employees working in an organization that affords them training and empowerment opportunities, recognizes and rewards their effort and contribution, and provides them with career advancement opportunities in a stable work environment, will feel obligated to respond in kind by displaying higher levels of energy, enthusiasm, dedication and inspiration, in going about their work. This supports the basic tenet of the Social Exchange Theory (SET) (Cropanzano and Mitchell, 2005; Saks, 2006), founded on social exchange relationships that are explained by rules of exchange. As such, engaged millennial frontline employees have more of a tendency to have high-quality and trusting relationships with their organizations, thereby resulting in favourable attitudinal and behavioural outcomes (Karatepe, 2013b).

Further, consistent with the motivational process of the Job Demands-Resources Model (JD-R model) (Bakker et al., 2003b; Bakker et al., 2014; Karadas and Karatepe, 2019), the availability of job resources, that is, HPWPs, are observed to influence the work engagement of millennial frontline service employees. From the perspective of the notion that frontline jobs in the hotel service industry have high work demands, e.g. excess workloads, and mental and emotional strain (Karatepe and Uludag, 2008; Wong and Ladkin 2008; Bakker, 2009), job resources such as HPWPs become more salient and initiate a motivational process that subdues job demands while stimulating millennial frontline employees' willingness to be dedicated and involved in their work, as well as exert additional effort towards accomplishing their work goals. These findings render credence to the assertion that job resources are significant determinants of work engagement (Bakker, 2011; Bakker et al., 2014). Moreover, empirical support reinforcing that there exists a positive linkage between job resources and work engagement established in the present study is also demonstrated in findings from previous cross-sectional research (e.g. Hakanen et al., 2006; Bakker et al., 2007; Bakker et al., 2014), as well as select longitudinal studies (Mauno et al., 2007; Hakanen et al., 2008; Schaufeli et al., 2009) cited in the extant literature.

Although this study empirically supports the motivational function of job resources in influencing employees' work engagement, it is worth noting that in a limited number of prior studies, inconsistent results to the contrary have been reported. For example, in a study by

Karatepe and Olugbade (2009), job resources that assume the form of supervisory support was observed to have a non-significant association with each dimension of work engagement, that is, vigour ($t = 1.24$, $p < 0.05$), dedication ($t = 1.93$, $p < 0.05$), and absorption ($t = 1.31$, $p < 0.05$). This non-significant relationship between supervisory support as a job resource and work engagement, was attributed to the inclusion of personal resources (that is, self-efficacy and trait competitiveness) as additional resources, to job resources in their work engagement model. Consequently, these personal resources were assumed to have significantly reduced the impact of supervisor support on work engagement. This is in addition to the use of a small sample size, as opposed to a larger one, in which a significant linkage between supervisory support and work engagement might have been observed (Karatepe and Olugbade, 2009). Similarly, in his study, Saks (2006) empirically demonstrated a non-significant relationship between job resources (that is, distributive justice, recognition and rewards, and perceived supervisor support) and employee engagement, conceptualized as job engagement and organizational engagement. Such findings are inconsistent with those from numerous extant studies (e.g. Hakanen et al., 2006; Bakker et al., 2007; Mauno et al., 2007; Hakanen et al., 2008; Schaufeli et al., 2009; Bakker et al., 2014) that support the motivational pathway in the JD-R model, and are indicative of the motivational role of job resources.

5.4.3 The Relationship between Work Engagement and Job Outcomes

Creative performance, extra-role customer service, and turnover intention, are the job outcomes examined in the present study. It is noteworthy that the empirical findings of the current study support the association of work engagement with only two job outcomes, namely extra-role customer service (path coefficient = 0.220, $t = 3.850$, $p < 0.01$) and turnover intention (path coefficient = -0.410, $t = 8.967$, $p < 0.01$). Thus, from results obtained using PLS-SEM analysis, **Hypotheses 3b (H3b)** and **3c (H3c)** were supported.

The first hypothesized path from work engagement to creative performance (*work engagement* → *creative performance*) was reported as non-significant (path coefficient = 0.066, $t = 1.171$, $p < 0.01$), and therefore, **Hypothesis 3a (H3a)** was not supported. This finding is unanticipated and inconsistent with results from existing literature (e.g. Karatepe, 2012b; Karatepe and Olugbade, 2016), in which it has been found that work engagement is significantly linked to creative performance among frontline employees. Despite the relative importance of creative performance as a significant job outcome for frontline jobs in the hotel service industry and as evidenced in research (Karatepe, 2012b), this finding denotes that work

engagement does not stimulate millennial frontline employees to display novel behaviours in the service delivery process. A possible explanation could relate to millennial employees' high value for meaningful work (Kuron et al., 2015). Given that the hotel industry is largely characterized by routine jobs that are coupled with high work demands e.g. mental and emotional constraints and excess workload (Karatepe and Uludag, 2008; Wong and Ladkin 2008; Bakker, 2009), millennial frontline employees are likely to perceive their work as being boring and uninteresting, leading to withdrawal behaviour such as being reluctant to offer innovative solutions to customer problems, or devise creative ideas for service improvement. Moreover, an additional possible explanation for this unexpected finding is that it is entirely plausible that creative performance among millennial frontline employees could be directly or indirectly influenced by some other variable (e.g. job embeddedness), that was neither hypothesized nor included in the scope of the study. For instance, in a study on the airline industry, job embeddedness, which refers to "the combined forces that keep a person from leaving his or her job" (Yao, Lee, Mitchell, Burton and Sablinski, 2004, p.159), was reported as being significantly related to creative performance ($t = 2.280$, $p < 0.05$) among flight attendants as frontline employees (Karatepe and Vatankhah, 2014a). It can be speculated that extending this relationship to millennial frontline employees in a hotel industry setting, could provide useful insights on possible alternative significant influences on their creative performance.

The second hypothesized path relationship between work engagement and extra-role customer service (*work engagement* $\rightarrow$ *extra-role customer service*) was found to be positive and significant (path coefficient = 0.220, $t = 3.850$, $p < 0.01$), thus supporting **Hypothesis 3b (H3b)**. This result corroborates empirical findings reported in the extant literature (e.g., Karatepe, 2013a, 2013b; Karatepe, 2014; Karadas and Karatepe, 2019) that work engagement positively influences extra-role customer service behaviours among frontline employees. This finding affirms that work engagement triggers a willingness among millennial frontline employees to exceed their prescribed job responsibilities in their delivery of service. Similarly, this finding supports results of a previous study conducted by Karatepe (2014) which indicates that work engagement is an essential motivational variable that increases an employee's motivation to exceed individual role requirements in meeting customer expectations. Energetic and inspired millennial frontline employees who are immersed in their work, appear to be willing to go above and beyond their role-prescribed duties to meet and exceed customer expectations (Moliner et al., 2008; Karatepe, 2011c). This can be attributed to the positive and

fulfilling mental disposition that employees experience when they are fully absorbed in their roles, which fosters positive emotions and behaviours (Saks, 2006; Breevaart et al., 2015). As observed by Karatepe (2013b), employees who are engaged in their work, simultaneously devote their physical, cognitive, and emotional energies while executing their work-related roles. Findings from this study corroborate Bakker et al.'s (2008) study, in which it was reported that engaged, energetic, and enthusiastic employees, not only express a willingness to display in-role work performance, but also exhibit extra-role service performance behaviour, thereby supporting the linkage between work engagement and extra-role customer service.

The third hypothesized path from work engagement to turnover intention (*work engagement* → *turnover intention*) was found to be significantly negative (path coefficient = -0.410, $t = 8.967$, $p < 0.01$), and thus, **Hypothesis 3c (H3c)** was supported. On the basis of this study's findings, work engagement reduces the likelihood of employee turnover intention. As explained by Kahn (1990) in his seminal paper, the concept of work engagement involves one's self-expression and self-investment in their work roles. Therefore, highly engaged millennial frontline employees are likely to espouse a physical, cognitive, and emotional connection to their work and working environment (Kahn, 1990; Saks, 2006), therefore resulting in lower turnover intention on their part. Such physical, cognitive and emotional attachments are associated with positive emotions such as happiness, inspiration, and enthusiasm (Agarwal, Datta, Blake-Beard and Bhargava, 2012), that result in favourable emotions and desirable job-related outcomes (Bakker, 2009) such as lower turnover intentions. Findings from the present study lend credence to prior works (e.g. Agarwal et al., 2012) in which the work engagement dimensions (vigour, dedication, and absorption) as examined in this study, have been observed to be significantly and negatively associated with turnover intention. Moreover, results reported in the current study also corroborate prior empirical research in which employees who are highly engaged were reported to be less likely to leave their employers (Agarwal et al., 2012; Karatepe, 2013a; Memon, Salleh, Baharom, 2016). Furthermore, an examination of the findings from the present study establishes that work engagement has a greater effect on turnover intention than on the job outcomes creative performance and extra-role customer service. Thus, these findings are demonstrative of the notion that engagement of millennial frontline employees is crucial for their retention (Park and Gursoy, 2012). Further, this finding from the present study corroborates Park and Gursoy's (2011, 2012) studies, where it was reported that when compared to the Baby Boomer

and Generation X cohorts, employees work engagement serves as a critical factor in the retention of millennials in the workplace.

Overall, results of this study denote that millennial frontline employees who exhibit high vigour, dedication, and absorption levels are more prone to remaining in the employ of the organization, and are more willing to go above and beyond their formal duties to satisfy customers, but appear less likely to generate creative ideas for service improvement. Based on these results, it can therefore be inferred that the continuous enhancement of work engagement levels can be used to influence organizational citizenship behaviours e.g. extra-role customer service, and at the same time reduce turnover intentions among the millennial generational cohort engaged in hotel service industry frontline roles.

5.4.4 Work Engagement as a Mediator between High-Performance Work Practices (HPWPs) and Job Outcomes

Three mediation relationships were hypothesized in the study, that is, work engagement mediates the effects of HPWPs as manifested by training, empowerment, rewards, job security, and career opportunities, on (1) creative performance, **Hypothesis 4a (H4a)**, (2) extra-role customer service, **Hypothesis 4b (H4b)**, and (3) turnover intention, **Hypothesis 4c (H4c)**.

Findings from the study indicated that all hypothesized mediation relationships were supported. Results reported in this study following PLS-SEM analysis show that work engagement is a motivating factor linking determinant HPWPs to the consequent job outcomes of creative performance (indirect effect, $t = 2.612$, $p < 0.01$), extra-role customer service (indirect effect, $t = 2.028$, $p < 0.05$), and turnover intention (indirect effect, $t = 5.107$, $p < 0.01$). These findings are consonant with results of prior research in which it was demonstrated that work engagement mediates the effects of job resources on outcome variables (e.g. Karatepe, 2011c; Karatepe 2013b; Karatepe and Olugbade, 2016).

The first hypothesized mediation path relationship between HPWPs, work engagement, and creative performance (*HPWPs* → *work engagement* → *creative performance*) was found to be significant and negative, following PLS-SEM analyses as depicted in Figure 4.3 (path diagram) in Chapter 4. Therefore, **Hypothesis 4a (H4a)** was supported.

In the present study, a direct negative and significant relationship (path coefficient = -0.186, $t = 3.110$, $p < 0.01$) between HPWPs and creative performance, was found. This finding is contrary to the empirical results of a previous study by Karatepe et al. (2014a). An indirect significant and positive relationship (path coefficient = 0.066, $t = 2.612$, $p < 0.01$) between HPWPs and creative performance through work engagement was also found in the present study. This is in concert with findings from prior studies that support an indirect positive association of job resources with creative performance through work engagement (e.g. Karatepe, 2012b; Karatepe and Olugbade, 2016). Based on Nitzl et al.'s (2016) mediation technique, the relationship was found to represent an instance of 'competitive partial mediation'. That is, work engagement is a partial and positive mediator of the effects of HPWPs on creative performance. This finding is comparable to results from the extant literature whereby work engagement is reported to positively mediate the effects of HPWPs on creative performance (e.g. Karatepe and Olugbade, 2016). This result indicates that the presence of HPWPs in the form of training, empowerment, job security, and career opportunities, decreases millennial frontline employees' creative performance. However, based on the results, work engagement appears to amplify the total effects of HPWPs on creative performance, thus resulting in a increase in creative performance levels among millennial frontline employees, albeit remaining in the negative. This finding affirms that as a mediator, work engagement enhances the impact of HPWPs on creative performance such that millennial frontline employees may prioritize behaviours associated with creative performance in the course of their duties. The rationale for this amplified relationship which still remains in the negative, is that perhaps the effects of HPWPs influence on creative performance could be mediated by some other variable (e.g. job embeddedness or psychological capital), that was not hypothesized in the study.

The second hypothesized mediation path relationship between HPWPs, work engagement, and extra-role customer service (*HPWPs* → *work engagement* → *extra-role customer service*) was found to be significant following PLS-SEM analysis as depicted in Figure 4.3 (path diagram) in Chapter 4. Thus, **Hypothesis 4b (H4b)** was supported.

In the present study, a direct positively significant association between HPWPs and extra-role customer service (path coefficient = 0.175, $t = 2.841$, $p < 0.01$) was found, thereby confirming findings from previous studies that show a significant, positive linkage between job resources and extra-role customer service behaviour (e.g. Karatepe and Karadas, 2012; Sulea,

Maricutoiu, Schaufeli, Dimitru and Sava, 2012; Karatepe, 2013b). An indirect positive relationship (path coefficient = 0.063, $t = 2.083$, $p < 0.05$) between HPWPs and extra-role customer service via work engagement was also found to be significant and corroborated results from prior works on the indirect relationship between job resources and positive job outcomes through work engagement (Moliner et al., 2008; Karatepe, 2011c; Sulea et al., 2012; Karatepe, 2013b; Karadas and Karatepe, 2019). Based on Nitzl et al.'s (2016) mediation technique, this relationship was found to be a 'complementary partial mediation'. This finding indicates that work engagement serves as a partial and positive mediator in the association of HPWPs with extra-role customer service. Specifically, findings of the present study evidence that the availability of HPWPs ensures that millennial frontline employees sustain high vigour, dedication, and absorption levels, in their work. As a result, millennial frontline employees, in turn voluntarily surpass their formal role requirements to fulfil customer needs. This finding is consistent with a limited number of empirical studies cited in the relevant literature (Saks, 2006; Sulea et al., 2012; Karatepe, 2013b; Karatepe and Karadas, 2012). Moreover, this finding supports Huselid's (1995) assertion that HPWPs influence employees to exhibit affirmative behavioural outcomes.

The third hypothesized mediation path relationship between HPWPs, work engagement, and turnover intention ($HPWPs \rightarrow work\ engagement \rightarrow turnover\ intention$) was found to be significant following PLS-SEM analysis as depicted in Figure 4.3 (path diagram) in Chapter 4. Thus, **Hypothesis 4c (H4c)** was supported.

In the present study, a direct, significant and negative association between HPWPs with turnover intention (path coefficient = -0.165, $t = 2.919$, $p < 0.01$) was found, thus corroborating findings from previous studies (e.g. Batt and Valcour, 2003; Yavas and Babakus, 2010; Karatepe and Vatankhah, 2014b). An indirect negative relationship (path coefficient = -0.151, $t = 5.107$, $p < 0.01$) between HPWPs and turnover intention through work engagement was also observed to be significant and consistent with empirical findings from previous research on the indirect association between job resources and positive job outcomes through work engagement (Saks, 2006; Agarwal et al., 2012; Memon et al., 2016; Karadas and Karatepe, 2019). This result was indicative of support for the proposition that work engagement was a mediator of the effects of HPWPs on turnover intention. Based on Nitzl et al.'s (2016) mediation technique, this relationship was also found to represent an instance of 'complementary partial mediation'. Specifically, the empirical findings of the current study

evidence that millennial frontline employees are more prone to display higher work engagement as a form of repayment to the organization for the presence of available HPWPs afforded them. As such, highly engaged millennial frontline employees are emotionally, physically, and cognitively attached to their jobs, and thus less inclined to leave the organization. Results of the present study corroborate prior studies from the existing literature in which the significance of work engagement as a mediator of the relationship between job resources and turnover intention was demonstrated (e.g. Saks, 2006; Agarwal et al., 2012; Memon et al., 2016; Shahpouri, Namdari and Abedi, 2016).

In sum, study findings affirm that work engagement is a partial mediator of the effects of determinant HPWPs on the consequent job outcomes of creative performance, extra-role customer service, and turnover intention (See Table 4.32 in Chapter 4). These findings concerning work engagement as a mediator empirically support the viability and relevance of the Social Exchange Theory (SET) (Cropanzano and Mitchell, 2005) for the extra-role customer service, and turnover intention job outcomes. Based on the theory, employees and employers must respect specific rules of exchange, to which, when adhered to, trusting and high-quality relationships are fostered (Cropanzano and Mitchell, 2005; Saks, 2006). As such, when organizations take care of millennial frontline employees by providing them with training and empowerment opportunities, rewards with recognition, career advancement opportunities, and a stable work environment, they feel obligated to respond in kind by displaying elevated levels of vigour, dedication and absorption in the performance of their duties, in exchange for the available HPWPs afforded them. Under these circumstances, millennial frontline employees are less prone to leaving the organization, and more willing to ensure customer satisfaction by exceeding their in-role job responsibilities. Furthermore, the adduced evidence concerning the mediating function of work engagement is congruent with the motivational pathway in the JD-R model (Bakker and Demerouti, 2008). In particular, millennial frontline employees who work in an environment with job resources such as HPWPs tend towards being highly enthusiastic, dedicated, and more involved in their jobs. This is because the presence of job resources increases employees' work engagement by reducing job demands and fostering opportunities for growth, learning, and development (Schaufeli and Bakker, 2004; Karatepe and Olugbade, 2016). In turn, these employees exhibit positive behavioural outcomes such as lower turnover intention and enhanced extra-role customer service behaviours. These findings lend credence to Bakker et al.'s (2014) study, where they reported that job resources were significant work engagement drivers that

consequently lead to positive outcomes. The present study thus provides substantive empirical support for work engagement as a key underlying mechanism through which HPWPs influences behavioural outcomes among employees in the millennial generational cohort.

5.4.5 The Relationship between High-Performance Work Practices (HPWPs) and Work Engagement: An Importance-Performance Map Analysis (IPMA)

Importance Performance Map Analysis (IPMA) on the relationship between individual HPWPs indicators and work engagement was conducted, to extract differentiated information and supplement the results obtained through PLS-SEM analyses.

IPMA is a useful analysis tool that allows the researcher to identify specific areas of improvement that management can prioritize and address through managerial activities (Hock et al., 2010). Specifically, IPMA uses structural path model estimates, that is, total effects (importance) of the independent (predictor) variable, and contrasts it with its average latent variable scores (performance) (Hair et al., 2014b; Ringle and Sarstedt, 2016). In this analysis, the total effect, denotes the importance of the independent variable on the target criterion variable, while the mean value of their scores (on a scale of zero to 100) represents its performance (Hock et al., 2010). This assessment strengthens the PLS-SEM estimate for the path model relationship and adds a supplementary dimension to the analysis that takes into consideration the latent variable scores (performance). The main objective of this test is the identification of predictor variables that simultaneously exhibit a relative high importance (total effects) for the target construct, but also a relative low performance (average latent variable scores) (Ringle and Sarstedt, 2016). For a specific endogenous (target) construct (dependent variable), this test results in a priority map that specifies different areas that would require managerial attention for improvement. As such, on the basis of the IPMA test results, management is able to focus on those areas that are of relative high importance (total effects), but also with relative low performance (average latent variable scores). Thus, this represents an opportunity for performance improvement (Hock et al., 2010).

For the present study, an IPMA test was conducted at both the construct and indicator level. Specifically, IPMA was used to identify which individual HPWPs indicator, that is, between training, empowerment, rewards, job security, and career opportunities, had the highest importance (impact) for enhancing work engagement (the target endogenous construct), and exhibited a low performance (average latent variable scores). This empirical test was effected to pinpoint the most important areas, that is, specific HPWPs indicators, for managerial

improvement. Following an IPMA test, Ringle and Sarstedt, (2016) recommended that managerial action should be centred on those organizational factors that display higher importance (factors that exert a strong total effect) but with low performance (low latent variable score) on the target construct (work engagement).

The findings of the IPMA test in this study affirmed that training has the most pronounced effect on work engagement, with minimal potential for future improvement, due to its relatively high performance (80.203 of 100 points), compared to empowerment (62.534 of 100 points), career opportunities (62.222 of 100 points), rewards (60.445 of 100 points), and job security (46.980 of 100 points), respectively (see Table 4.34 in Chapter 4). Therefore, due to its relatively high impact on work engagement (importance), this result is indicative of the need for management to continue investing in training and re-training programmes to maintain or further enhance work engagement among millennial frontline employees. However, due to its relatively high performance, management should not prioritize training for enhancing work engagement, but should instead consider other predictor variables that have a relatively high impact on work engagement (importance) and a relatively low level of performance. This is because a low performance represents an opportunity for improvement through managerial activity. Although training should not be prioritized by management, findings nevertheless corroborate prior existing studies (e.g. Salanova et al., 2005; Crawford et al., 2010; Memon et al., 2016), in affirming that training is significantly and positively correlated with higher work engagement levels. Moreover, this outcome supports previous assertions by Wong et al. (2008) and Hauw and Vos (2010) who reported that millennial employees value training opportunities that are geared towards advancing their skill levels. Surprisingly, these results showed that rewards and job security exert a comparatively low impact on work engagement. Further, on the basis of these results, the importance of rewards and job security in influencing work engagement appears to be rather low, and would barely influence the enhancement of work engagement levels among millennial frontline employees. As such, it is recommended that management should consider this finding with caution.

The IPMA results of this study further evidenced that to enhance work engagement levels, managerial activities should be more oriented towards prioritizing empowerment, which is observed to be of relatively high importance but also low in performance. In particular, empowerment is important and essential for explaining work engagement levels among millennial frontline employees, compared to career opportunities, rewards, and job security,

which are not as important, relative to their performance metrics (see Table 4.34 in Chapter 4). Despite its high importance, empowerment exhibits a low (below average) performance index, thereby signifying that it should be afforded the highest priority for improvement, thus, potentially offering management significant scope from which to boost or enhance its performance. Therefore, management would achieve greater efficiency in focusing on improving empowerment, in an effort to enhance work engagement levels among millennial frontline employees.

To extract further insight on how to amplify the performance of empowerment in order to enhance work engagement, an additional, indicator-level IPMA on the manifest variables (underlying dimensions) of the empowerment HPWPs dimension was conducted. More specifically, to improve empowerment, results affirmed that management should primarily focus on allowing millennial frontline employees greater latitude and authority to exercise their judgement in resolving customer problems. In addition, from the results, it was established that allowing millennial frontline employees discretion in their resolution of customer problems, and granting them the authority to do so, will to a great extent, reinforce their empowerment levels and consequently, greatly enhance their levels of work engagement. This finding from extended analysis of individual HPWPs indicators lends support to Karatepe's (2013b) study in which empowerment was uncovered as a critical factor for the enhancement of work engagement among frontline employees.

5.4.6 The Non-linear (Quadratic) Relationship between Work Engagement and Job Outcomes

Non-linear (quadratic) effects were examined in the present study as a post hoc test to extend and further enrich the results of PLS-SEM analyses. This post hoc test was applied to deduce whether non-linear effects were present in a PLS model that conventionally imply linear relationships between latent variables.

Work engagement was tested for its non-linear (quadratic) effects on the three work-based (job) outcomes creative performance, extra-role customer service, and turnover intention. Study findings provide evidence of a curvilinear association between work engagement and turnover intention. However, for the associations between work engagement and creative performance and extra-role customer service, a linear relationship was upheld.

The curvilinear relationship observed between work engagement and turnover intention in this study corroborates similar empirical findings from existing literature (e.g. Caesens, Stinglhamber and Marmier, 2016). This result denotes that although work engagement among millennial frontline employees results in a decrease in their turnover intentions, excessive levels of work engagement may not necessarily be of benefit to them. This is consistent with Pierce and Aguinis' (2013) meta-theoretical principle the 'Too-Much-of-a-Good-Thing' (TMGT) effect, which prescribes that excessive levels of beneficial determinants may result in unfavourable consequences. According to the researchers, the TMGT effect "occurs when ordinarily beneficial antecedents reach inflection points after which their relations with desired outcomes cease to be linear and positive, instead yielding an overall curvilinear pattern" (Pierce and Aguinis, 2013, p. 316). Thus, based on this principle as well as the results from the present study, it can therefore be inferred that millennial frontline employees who are excessively engaged in their work roles expend a considerable amount of effort and therefore expect organizations to reciprocate their input at the same level (Caesens et al., 2016). As such, if highly engaged millennial frontline employees do not receive worthwhile benefits such as rewards and recognition that match their level of investment, they are more prone to leaving the organization (Caesens et al., 2016). Moreover, millennial frontline employees with very high work engagement levels may also intuit that their jobs are stressful, thus making the decision to leave the organization in search of less demanding jobs (Caesens et al., 2016). This present study thus, echoes prior researchers who contended that the work engagement phenomenon might have a 'dark side' (Baker and Leiter, 2010; Bakker, Albrecht and Leiter, 2011; Sonnentag, 2011), such that the over-engagement of employees can result in negative effects.

5.5 Implication of the Results for Research

There are four emergent implications for research emanating from the study findings.

The first implication is that findings from the study dovetail with prior research concerning how job resources assume a motivational function resulting in favourable behavioural outcomes (Karatepe, 2011c; Karatepe, 2012b; Karatepe, 2013b; Karatepe and Olugbade, 2016). In the present study, a conceptual model to empirically assess and explain the relationships among job resources, that is, HPWPs, and consequent job outcomes, through work engagement, was developed. This conceptual model provides a unique and comprehensive way of understanding how and why the selected variables of the study are

interrelated with work engagement. Using the Social Exchange Theory (SET) and the motivational process of the JD-R model as dual underpinning theories, the findings from this study constitute substantive empirical evidence for the establishment of positive organizational behavioural job outcomes (increased extra-role customer service and reduced turnover intention) among the millennial generational cohort in a Sub-Saharan African context.

Secondly, the study's findings constituted new empirical insight into the conceptualization of the work engagement construct and its influence on creative performance among millennial frontline employees. It is empirically evident as demonstrated in this study, that contrary to widespread notions evidenced in prior studies (e.g. Slatten and Mehmetoglu, 2011; Karatepe, 2012b; Karatepe and Olugbade, 2016), work engagement does not necessarily influence creative performance behaviours among individuals in frontline service jobs. As such, researchers ought to consider examining other attributable considerations that would influence or enhance creative performance outcomes or related behaviours among millennial frontline employees in the hotel industry. This will be instrumental in addressing the current knowledge gap on the drivers of creative performance that has largely been neglected in the literature within the domain of hospitality management (Karatepe et al., 2014a).

Another research implication is that work engagement was considered a potential mediating influence between job resources and positive job outcomes and was observed to partially mediate the effects of determinant HPWPs on consequent extra-role customer service behaviours and turnover intention. Further, as demonstrated in this study, HPWPs directly influenced creative performance among millennial frontline employees. Thus, millennial frontline employees' display of creative performance behaviours is largely dependent on the availability of HPWPs in the workplace. However, through the mediation of work engagement, the positive influence of HPWPs on creative performance is reduced, thus resulting in a decrease in display of creative behaviours in the delivery of services. This finding is unorthodox and therefore, important for researchers seeking to better understand mediating mechanisms that influence creative performance in frontline service jobs. This, thus, implies that there are other underlying mechanisms that positively influence creative performance among millennial frontline service employees in the hotel industry that warrant investigation.

A fourth implication is that manifest indicators of HPWPs, that is, training, empowerment, rewards, job security, and career opportunities, were empirically examined as lower-order constructs of the more abstract higher-order construct HPWPs, using the repeated indicator approach (see Section 4.10.1 in Chapter 4) (Wold, 1982; Noonan and Wold, 1983; Lohmoller, 1989; Becker et al., 2012). This approach can be used in subsequent research in human resources management-related studies to precisely assess a hierarchical component model or multi-dimensional construct embedded in a larger nomological network. Moreover, this in-depth analysis as evidenced in the present study through the evaluation of lower-order constructs as manifestations of a higher order construct signifies a more enriching approach to testing a conceptual model with an embedded multi-dimensional construct represented as a hierarchical component model.

Lastly, empirical results of this study constitute additional evidence of a non-linear relationship between work engagement and turnover intention. Although a curvilinear relationship was established between work engagement and turnover intention, further testing of this relationship is required as research and theories on this association is scarce. Through the non-linear (quadratic) effects post hoc test, it is apparent that the conventional view of work engagement resulting in lower turnover intentions as a linear association, is not necessarily the case, thus corroborating prior researchers that cogently argued that work engagement does indeed have a 'dark side' (Baker and Leiter, 2010; Bakker, Albrecht and Leiter, 2011; Sonnentag, 2011). This finding affirms a ceiling to the benefits of work engagement as a positive motivational factor. As observed, higher or excessive work engagement levels are associated with increased turnover intention among millennial frontline employees. That is, the positive effect of work engagement is observed to reach a certain point, after which additional increases in work engagement plateau, thereby leading to adverse effects (Shimazu et al., 2018). This result reorients the common assumption that more is better, i.e. more work engagement results in positive benefits. While the intention is not to discount the positive effects of work engagement on individual employees, this finding signifies a contribution to the research stream of work engagement, as it provides a balanced viewpoint on the role of work engagement in the workplace. Thus, researchers should not assume that linearity assumptions will hold without systematic verification (Morin et al., 2013) and should, therefore, consider examining this relationship further with the aim of strengthening the understanding of the work engagement concept and desirable job outcomes.

5.6 Implication of the Results for Management Practice

The findings adduced in the present study provide numerous valuable implications from a managerial perspective, concerning the management of HPWPs, engagement of millennial frontline employees, and organizational valued job outcomes, in the workplace.

Firstly, the study's results clearly demonstrate that hotel managers should focus on indicators of HPWPs. This study confirms that HPWPs as manifested by training, empowerment, rewards, job security, and career opportunities, are effective human resources practices in the hotel industry, and that management should implement such practices to manage the performance of millennial frontline employees, as well as motivate them. HPWPs send a powerful signal to millennial frontline employees, of the dedication of management to the improvement of service quality and the development of the human resource (Karatepe, 2013b). Implementation of these performance-enhancing practices will affect millennial frontline employees' performance by increasing their abilities and skills, as well as motivating them to devise new concepts for the enhancement of services, exceed their job responsibilities in the delivery of service, and remain within the organization while performing at a higher level. Moreover, such job resources can be instrumental in enabling employees manage the numerous job demands experienced in the industry. Given the acknowledged importance of frontline service jobs (Karatepe, 2011c), these practices will also aid managers in attracting and retaining highly qualified and capable millennial frontline employees, who are key players in the service delivery process. Furthermore, hotel managers should implement training, empowerment, rewards, job security, and career opportunities, concurrently, to not only preserve engaged millennial frontline employees, but also motivate them in providing creative ideas in the service improvement process, as well as provide satisfactory services by going above their job requirements. Notably, and as underscored in the extant literature, management should not compromise on the concurrent implementation of training, empowerment, and rewards (Babakus et al., 2003c; Karatepe and Karadas, 2012). As indicated earlier in the extensive literature (Babakus et al., 2003c; Karatepe and Karadas, 2012; Karatepe, 2013b), and as demonstrated in the findings of the present study, hotel managers can only yield their intended outcomes if these resources are implemented simultaneously. In the present study, it has been demonstrated that the concurrent implementation of training, empowerment, and rewards, enhances work engagement among millennial frontline employees, which in turn results in lower turnover intention, and an increase in organizational citizenship behaviour (that is, extra-role customer service).

Therefore, managers in hotel establishments should simultaneously implement training, empowerment and rewards as valuable human resource practices alongside other related practices that complement and align with each other. Otherwise, implementing the components of training, empowerment, and rewards, on their own without the others will lead to undesirable results (Babakus et al., 2003c).

An additional key implication is the need for managers to appreciate the significance of social exchange behaviour for work engagement among millennial frontline employees. Specifically, managers need to avail worthwhile resources and benefits that will obligate millennial frontline employees to respond in kind with increased levels of work engagement. HPWPs in the form of training, empowerment, rewards, job security, and career opportunities, are examples of resources that organizations can provide millennial frontline employees with, in order to foster an obligatory response that is reciprocated with higher work engagement levels. Therefore, it is incumbent upon hotel managers to provide millennial frontline employees with training and re-training programmes that enhance their technical abilities, decision-making capabilities, and behavioural skills. Such training programmes can either be formal or informal training experiences such as coaching, mentoring, or on-the-job-rotational training. These opportunities for training will ensure that these employees possess the requisite skills necessary to handle customer requests and complains. Moreover, such training programmes will relay a positive message to millennial frontline employees that they are recognized as strategic organizational partners (Karatepe, 2011c), thereby enhancing their service delivery. Further, hotel managers should provide fair rewards policies (financial or non-financial reward), as well as afford millennial service frontline employees with the discretion and autonomy with which to make decisions during the service delivery process. The use of fair rewards policies for exceptional service efforts is indicative of the devotion of management to service quality (Karatepe and Karadas, 2012). Additionally, rewarding millennial frontline employees for their efforts will motivate them to demonstrate higher performance levels, and will be perceived as management's appreciation and value for their efforts. Given that employees in the millennial generational cohort value rewards (Hauw and Vos, 2010; Twenge et al., 2010; Lu and Gursoy, 2013), hotel managers should reinforce desired behaviours by continuously rewarding their efforts. Furthermore, frontline service roles require that employees be able to make instant decisions concerning the service delivery process. As such, hotel managers ought to empower millennial frontline employees and afford them the freedom and discretion to effect decisions without referring to their supervisors or

managers. In addition, given that the millennial generational cohort have high expectations of career development opportunities (Dries et al., 2008; Hauw and Vos, 2010), management must provide attractive avenues for career advancement to current millennial employees as well as prospective hires. The existence of future career prospects enables current employees to have long term plans, thus motivating them to remain with the organization. Moreover, the availability of career advancement opportunities will ensure that the organization retains a pool of qualified and engaged millennial frontline employees. Management should therefore, provide job security to millennial frontline employees in the work environment who display higher levels of performance. Stability in the workplace will further motivate these employees to be more dedicated and involved in their work while maintaining positive views of their future (Karatepe and Vatankhah, 2015).

The availability of resources such as training, empowerment, rewards, job security, and career opportunities, will enable organizations to preserve a cadre of millennial frontline employees who are engaged in their work, and are willing to surpass their formal in-role work responsibilities to effectively handle customer requests and complains, as well as motive them to remain within the organization. Seemingly, management can utilize such resources to directly motivate millennial frontline employees to provide novel ideas and solutions towards improving the service delivery process. However, these resources cannot be sufficiently utilized to influence creative performance among millennial frontline employees through work engagement. As such, hotel managers should find out what behaviours are most likely to influence creative performance among millennial frontline employees. Moreover, hotel managers should consider and recognize that human resources practices such as training, empowerment, rewards, opportunities for career progression, and job security, are effective practices that drive work engagement among millennial frontline hotel employees in the hospitality industry. Therefore, managers in the hotel industry should implement such practices to drive work engagement, which is considered a problem among millennial employees (Gallup, 2016).

A third implication for management is that managers of hotel establishments must recognize that work engagement is a long-standing and continuous process-based phenomenon which involves a series of on-going interactions that foster obligations as well as enforce a state of independent reciprocity (Cropanzano and Mitchell, 2005; Saks, 2006). Thus, management

should continuously provide millennial frontline employees with the obligatory resources and benefits to foster such a state of reciprocity in order to retain an engaged workforce.

Another implication is that through the use of importance-performance priority mapping and visualization tools, which is instrumental to identifying critical problem areas for managerial action, managers can be able to precisely focus their management activities on improving only those specific performance factors that influence or even enhance employee behaviours or attitudes in the workplace. In this regard, findings from post-hoc IPMA tests as evidenced in the present study, indicate that empowerment as an indicator of HPWPs has a profound impact on work engagement with vast potential room for improving its implementation among millennial frontline employees in the workplace. As such, hotel managers ought to invest resources in prioritizing the empowerment of millennial employees in frontline jobs. Given the nature of frontline service jobs, millennial employees need to be afforded the opportunity to make independent decisions concerning the service process. This can be reinforced through supplementary training programmes that focus on enhancing their decision-making abilities and communication skills which consequently enhances the quality of their decisions while at the same time builds their confidence levels. In addition, managers can use rewards to drive empowerment among millennial frontline employees. Rewarding millennial frontline employees for their decision-making abilities reinforces the behaviour and motivates the employees to actively and independently engage in the decision-making process for service improvement.

Last but not least, as shown by the significant linear negative relationship between work engagement and turnover intention, hotel managers should leverage job resources (high-performance work practices) such as training, empowerment, rewards, job security, and career opportunities, to increase work engagement among millennial frontline employees, thus reducing their intention to leave the organization. However, findings from the study also indicate that it may not necessarily be beneficial to enhance levels of work engagement as higher levels of work engagement were associated with increased turnover intention among millennial frontline employees. Accordingly, an important implication is that enhancing work engagement would unlikely mitigate against their intentions to leave the organization. Therefore, management should endeavour to maintain work engagement at optimal levels rather than enhance it to extreme levels. As such, hotel managers should be cautious about excessively increasing the levels of work engagement as a retention strategy for millennial

frontline employees (Caesens et al., 2016). In addition, managers should continuously identify avenues to moderate levels of work engagement among millennial frontline employees who display excessive levels of engagement in order to optimally manage their work engagement levels. Such avenues can include the use of an appropriate effort-rewards structure that caters for these employees (Caesens et al., 2016). Overall, hotel managers should be aware of potential diminishing returns on investment resulting from efforts that are focused on improving work engagement.

5.7 Contributions (Strengths) of the Study

5.7.1 Contribution to Theory

In this study, a research model was developed and empirically tested to investigate the effects of HPWPs as manifested by training, empowerment, rewards, job security, and career opportunities, on three job outcomes, that is, creative performance, extra-role customer service, and turnover intention, through work engagement, positioned as a mediator variable (intervening mechanism).

This present study signifies a theoretical contribution to the literature in the hospitality management domain in several ways.

First, in the study, training, empowerment, rewards, job security, and career opportunities, were empirically examined and established as significant HPWPs indicators in frontline service jobs. The Hierarchical Component Model (HCM) or higher-order, multi-dimensional construct HPWPs, was conceptualized as a higher-order construct with the manifest variables training, empowerment, rewards, job security and career opportunities, as its lower-order, first-order, construct indicators. This conceptualization is aligned to and further reinforces and empirically substantiates the existing literature denoting that training, empowerment, rewards, job security and career opportunities, are among the most effective human resources practices in the workplace (Pfeffer, 1998; Boselie et al., 2005; Karatepe, 2013b; Karatepe et al., 2014a). It is noteworthy that these HPWPs indicators have also been considered relevant and effective human resource practices in frontline jobs in the hospitality service industry (Karatepe, 2013b; Karatepe et al., 2014a; Karatepe and Olugbade 2016).

Second, creative-performance, extra-role customer service, and turnover intention, were examined as consequent job outcomes of work engagement in this study. Extra-role customer

service and turnover intention were surfaced as most relevant to the conceptual model of the study. In theory, and as postulated and demonstrated in the existing literature, extra-role customer service and turnover intention are considered relevant and organizationally valued job outcomes in frontline jobs, particularly in the hospitality service industry (Karatepe, 2013b; Karatepe and Ngeche, 2012). However, by contrast, creative performance was not found to necessarily be a direct consequent job outcome of work engagement, despite its relevance in the hotel industry, as evidenced by prior findings in different contexts (Karatepe, 2012b; Karatepe and Olugbade, 2016). This finding denotes that enthusiastic and dedicated millennial frontline employees who are involved in their job roles do not tend to display creative behaviours such as offering innovative solutions to customer problems or creating new ideas for service improvement (Karatepe, 2012b; Karatepe and Olugbade, 2016). Thus, from a theoretical perspective and on the bases of the findings of the present study, it can be inferred that work engagement is not a driver of creative performance among millennial frontline employees as they do not necessarily prioritize creative performance behaviour despite being engaged in their work. This evidence establishes that creative performance among the millennial generational cohort can be influenced through other attributes e.g. psychological capital (Sweetman et al., 2011), or job embeddedness (Karatepe, 2016) which warrant future investigation.

Third, the study signifies a contribution to the strengthening and empirical validation of the underlying theory by sequentially testing a work engagement conceptual model underpinned by the Social Exchange Theory (SET) (Cropanzano and Mitchell, 2005) and the motivational process of the JD-R model (Bakker et al., 2003b). Specifically, determinant HPWPs, is first tested as a higher-level abstraction with its indicators as its lower order manifestations, which is then linked to work engagement, an emotional response, which is further associated with extra-role customer service, creative-performance, and turnover intention, as its consequent job outcomes. Findings adduced in the present study uncovered that work engagement partially mediated the effect of determinant HPWPs on extra-role customer service and turnover intention. This result was consistent with previous findings from preceding research in which the SET and the motivational pathway in the JD-R model were invoked as theoretical frameworks (e.g. Karatepe, 2011c; Karatepe, 2013a, 2013b; Karatepe and Olugbade, 2016). Findings from the study lend substantive empirical support to SET and the motivational process of the JD-R model by establishing that the availability of job resources or HPWPs, influence work engagement among millennial frontline employees, which in turn results in

favourable job consequences e.g. increased extra-role customer service and reduced turnover intention. Furthermore, the results from the study confirmed the generalizability of the SET and the motivational pathway in the JD-R model to the hospitality (hotel) industry, thus building support for the application of these underpinning theories to explain the relationships among job resources and work engagement, in a varied contextual setting.

Fourth, this study fills a knowledge and evidence gap within the existing literature in the domain of hospitality management concerning the determinants and outcomes of work engagement in frontline jobs. As observed by Karatepe (2013b) and Karatepe and Olugbade (2016), there is a shortfall in empirical evidence pertaining to the determinants and outcomes of work engagement among frontline employees with strong theoretical underpinnings. On the basis of the tenets of the SET and the motivational process of the JD-R model, work engagement was positioned in this study as a potential mediating influence between HPWPs and three organizationally-valued job outcomes, that is, creative-performance, extra-role customer service, and turnover intention. In this study it was observed that work engagement was a partial mediator of the effects of determinant HPWPs on three consequent job outcomes, thus validating the aforementioned underpinning theory by affirming and establishing HPWPs as significant determinants of work engagement, and extra-role customer service and turnover intention as important outcomes of work engagement in frontline jobs. Furthermore, findings from the study affirm that HPWPs as manifested by training, empowerment, rewards, job security, and career opportunities, are indeed important drivers of millennial frontline employee work engagement in the hospitality (hotel) service industry.

Fifth, this study also constitutes a response to Christian et al.'s (2011) research in which they called for the precise and systematic empirical testing of extra-role customer service as a job consequence of work engagement. In their meta-analysis study, Christian et al. (2011) highlighted a need to investigate work engagement as a predictor of extra-role customer service. This study affirms and empirically validates extra-role customer service as an important job outcome of work engagement among frontline service employees. Moreover, this finding constitutes a useful, meaningful, contribution to the existing literature in the hospitality discipline given the dearth of empirical research pertaining to extra-role customer service behaviours (Daskin, 2015).

Sixth, the evidence adduced in this study enhances the existing body of knowledge, through the empirical testing of the work engagement construct conceptualized as a potential mediator

of the effects of determinant HPWPs on three consequent job outcomes, that is, creative-performance, extra-role customer service, and turnover intention. The conceptual model for the study incorporated untested relationships which were empirically examined. PLS-SEM results of the study indicate that all but one hypothesis are supported, thus confirming the viability of the research model. Additionally, this structural model is new and unique in the existing hospitality management literature concerning work engagement as a theoretical concept, and its effects among employees in the millennial generational cohort. This study, therefore, serves as a point of reference for future research.

Seventh, the present study is effectively a response to a knowledge and evidence gap in the existing literature concerning the mechanism through which determinant HPWPs influence relevant and organizationally valued consequent job outcomes. The missing link between HPWPs and outcomes has largely been referred to as a ‘black box’ (Karatepe, 2013b; Karatepe and Vatankhah, 2015). Prior empirical studies have also affirmed a paucity of empirical evidence on the nature of the link between HPWPs and behavioural job outcomes (Karatepe, 2013b; Karatepe and Vatankhah 2014a; Karatepe and Olugbade, 2016). Following the results of the study, the presence of HPWPs in the form of training, empowerment, rewards, job security, and career opportunities, activate millennial frontline employees’ work engagement, thereby resulting in extra-role customer service, reduced turnover intention, and reduced creative performance outputs. This result gives insights to, and illuminates the mediating function of the work engagement construct in the link between determinant HPWPs and millennial frontline employees’ consequent creative-performance, extra-role customer service, and turnover intention. It thus establishes work engagement as an important attitudinal intermediate element essential to unravelling the ‘black-box’ linking HPWPs to job outcomes, e.g. creative-performance, extra-role customer service, and turnover intention.

Eighth, through the examination of the association between work engagement and turnover intention for non-linear (quadratic) effects, this study lends credence to the existence of a non-linear relation between work engagement and turnover intention, as opposed to the conventionally presumed linear relationship between the two variables. As such, researchers in human resources-related research should consider examining potential moderators of this relationship in order to gain a more nuanced interpretation of the effects of over-engagement.

5.7.2 Contribution to Methodology

This present study offers a number of methodological contributions.

Firstly, prior research investigating the concept of work engagement employed Covariance Based-Structural Equation Modeling (CB-SEM) to examine proposed relationships (e.g. Karatepe, 2011c; Karatepe, 2012b; Karatepe, 2013b; Karatepe and Olugbade, 2016). In this study however, Partial Least Squares - Structural Equation Modeling (PLS-SEM), a component-based, second-generation multivariate data analysis device (Hair et al., 2014b), was used to empirically assess the conceptual model of the study, and investigate the relationships between determinant HPWPs, work engagement, and three organizationally valued consequent job outcomes. PLS-SEM was used to examine a work engagement model, which comprised of three distinct components that were operationalized and modelled differently, yet infused into one inter-linked conceptual framework. First, the determinant HPWPs was modelled and tested as a Hierarchical Component Model (HCM) Higher-Order Construct (HOC) (Wetzels et al., 2009; Hair et al., 2014b) to establish its validity and reliability, using the repeated indicator approach (see Section 4.9.1 of Chapter 4) (Noonan and Wold, 1983; Lohmoller, 1989; Becker et al., 2012). Subsequently, work engagement was modelled and measured using the average of three-factor latent variable scores each representing vigour, dedication, and absorption as its dimensions, while consequent job outcomes creative performance, extra-role customer service, and turnover-intention, were measured as stand-alone latent variables each with reflective indicators. These three distinct methods signify a more comprehensive approach to modeling and empirically examining a conceptual model of work engagement given its determinants and outcomes, and can therefore be employed in subsequent human resources-related studies.

Secondly, HPWPs was modelled and empirically tested as a reflective-reflective (Type I) HCM (Becker et al., 2012). That is, HPWPs was operationalized as a reflective higher-order or second-order construct with underlying manifest variables, that is, training, empowerment, rewards, job security, and career opportunities, as its reflective lower-order or first-order constructs. These lower-order constructs are reflective indicators of the second-order construct, HPWPs, as per existing literature (Karatepe, 2013b; Karatepe et al., 2014a). For the first time in human resources studies, confirmatory second-order factor analyses, through first and second-order layers, were used to explicitly examine the manifest variables as indicators of HPWPs, for their empirical significance. Previous researchers theorized various manifest variables as indicators of HPWPs (e.g. Karatepe, 2013b; Karatepe and Vatankhah, 2014a, 2014b; Karatepe and Vatankhah, 2015; Karatepe and Olugbade, 2016) but did not empirically

test HPWPs, explicitly operationalized as a reflective-reflective (Type I) HCM. This approach provides rich empirical insights on testing of the viability of HPWPs as a HCM.

Thirdly, to empirically evaluate the determinants and outcomes of work engagement, the work engagement construct was examined using the Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (UWES) that in sum, comprised seventeen survey instrument measurement items. Specifically, work engagement was measured as a three-factor variable score, where average latent scores of its dimensions, namely, vigour, dedication, and absorption, were computed as the key work engagement construct indicators (Schaufeli et al., 2006). The use of a three-factor variable score, is effectively a methodological response to Karatepe and Olugbade's (2016) research call to examine work engagement as a three-factor score as opposed to a single composite work engagement score. Using the more robust three-factor score, work engagement measures were found to be valid, thus affirming the reliability of the three-factor variable measurement in a distinct contextual setting. The three dimensions of work engagement, namely vigour, decision, and absorption, were reported to constitute a relevant and reliable measure of work engagement. The present study therefore, provides further development and utilization for the UWES, where the work engagement construct was conceptualized and operationalized in a varied and unique context, thus contributing to its reliability and replicability in diverse settings.

Fourth, Nitzl et al.'s (2016) mediator analyses approach was used to test for mediating effects using the bootstrapping procedure in PLS-SEM, as opposed to the traditional Sobel (1982) test, typically applied in testing the mediating effects to determine their significance. Specifically, the effects of HPWPs on creative-performance through work engagement were tested. Similarly, the effects of HPWPs on extra-role customer service and turnover intention through work engagement were tested. These mediator analyses represent multiple mediation relationships examined using a more-robust and reliable statistical approach that is premised upon the empirical assessment of the model's indirect effects using a bootstrapping procedure (Iacobacci et al., 2007; Hair et al., 2010). This approach has typically been overlooked by numerous PLS-SEM-oriented researchers. The use of the bootstrapping procedure to empirically evaluate the indirect effects of the conceptual model yields greater levels of statistical power over the more traditional Sobel test (Hair et al., 2017). Thus, this study represents one of the first instances in human resource management-related research where multiple mediation relationships were examined using the novel Nitzl et al. (2016) mediator

analyses approach, which represents a more comprehensive way of testing work engagement, positioned as an intervening mechanism between a set of determinants (antecedents) HPWPs and consequent job outcomes. Findings from this study set a particularly important benchmark, such that the Nitzl et al. (2016) mediation technique can effectively be applied to empirically detect the presence and significance of mediating effects in subsequent human resource-related studies. Furthermore, findings of this study serve as useful guidelines on how to properly utilize this recently developed mediation technique.

Fifth, post hoc analyses concerning the direct relationship between the indicators of HPWPs as individual construct variables and work engagement were conducted using an Importance-Performance Map Analysis (IPMA) (Hair et al., 2017) in order to extend and enrich PLS-SEM analyses through a priority-mapping technique. Essentially, as one of the pioneering research approaches in hospitality management research, IPMA analysis was conducted to identify which individual HPWPs indicator exhibited a relatively high importance metric for predicting work engagement with a relatively low performance score, to warrant managerial attention and intervention for improvement. Further, using IPMA as a visualization tool, findings were graphically represented to empirically demonstrate the differential interplays between the constructs' importance metrics towards predicting work engagement, and their relative performance indices.

Lastly, post hoc analyses of the association between work engagement and turnover intention for non-linear (quadratic) effects constituted empirical support for both linear and non-linear associations. This result provides a methodological foundation for the empirical investigation of potential curvilinear effects of the work engagement construct on job outcomes, over and above the more conventional notions of linearity in the hospitality management literature. Therefore, useful guidance on how to conduct a statistical test for curvilinear associations between variables, is provided.

5.7.3 Contribution to Practice

This present study offers four distinct contributions to practice.

As a first contribution to practice in the current study, the linkage between HPWPs, work engagement, and job outcomes creative performance, extra-role customer service, and turnover-intention, were sequentially examined as important constructs in an overarching work engagement model. This is a comprehensive approach that could be useful for

practitioners in understanding the specific mechanisms through which available job resources can influence positive job outcomes among the millennial generational cohort working in frontline service jobs. The model represents an effective evaluative assessment framework through which practitioners can accurately identify the impact of determinant HPWPs on work engagement, and consequent valuable outcomes. Of note, this study has been applied to demonstrate to managers that the simultaneous implementation of HPWPs can positively influence work engagement among millennial frontline employees. Thus, management can incorporate the use of HPWPs within the organization's broader strategic HR policy, as effective job resources that drive work engagement among millennial employees and consequently, result in desirable job outcomes.

This study also provides significant insights for managers into the retention of millennial frontline employees and the enhancement of organizational citizenship behaviour (that is, extra-role customer service), and creative performance. The broad analysis conducted in this study (see Chapter 4) provides scientific evidence on the simultaneous implementation of HPWPs as an employee retention stratagem. The findings obtained in the current study indicate that the availability of job resources such as HPWPs is positively perceived by the millennial generational cohort and thus signifies a supportive work environment. As such, management can implement and continuously use such resources as an avenue for retaining millennial frontline employees in addition to motivating them to voluntarily exceed customer needs and expectations through discretionary behaviour, as well as generate innovative ideas for service improvement.

An additional contribution to practice is the empirical application of the IPMA test in the present study. An IPMA post hoc analysis was conducted to empirically examine which individual HPWPs indicator influenced work engagement significantly, but required specific managerial attention due to its low performance. This provided evidence useful to hotel management practitioners, comprising a diagnostic approach through which priority maps can be used as decision-support tools to empirically evaluate the importance and performance of organisational factors (indicators of HPWPs) that require management's attention and resource investment for improvement. This is with an aim of increasing work engagement levels among millennial frontline employees. This dynamic, data-driven, approach to diagnostic analysis is particularly useful to hotel managers in precisely identifying, mapping, and visualizing what potential influencing factors need to be prioritized for improvement, for

the purposes of driving and enhancing work engagement among millennial frontline employees.

A further contribution is that through the examination of the link between work engagement and turnover intention for non-linear (quadratic) effects, evidence of a curvilinear association between work engagement and turnover intention can be viewed by managers as a cautionary benefit of excess work engagement levels among millennial frontline employees. Hotel managers should thus be aware of the negative effect of the excessive levels of employee work engagement. Moreover, hotel managers should actively identify those millennial frontline employees who happen to display excessive levels of engagement in their jobs and tailor human resource practices to match their levels of investment in their work roles so as to optimize their work engagement levels, and minimize the occurrence of undesirable outcomes as a result of excess engagement levels.

5.7.4 Contributions to Context

This present study offers two salient contributions to context.

The first contribution to context is that most of the empirical studies based on work engagement have mainly been centred around Western and Middle-Eastern countries (Saks, 2006; Karatepe and Olugbade, 2009). In addition, research on HPWPs is primarily related to data emerging from Western economies and countries in the Middle East (Gibbs and Ashill, 2013; Karatepe and Vatankhah, 2014a, 2014b; Karatepe and Vatankhah, 2015). Notably, existing literature shows an underrepresentation of hospitality management research on the African continent (Karatepe, 2011c; Karatepe and Olugbade, 2016). Therefore, the present study extended the stream of research on work engagement and HPWPs into developing African countries in particular. The field work for this study was implemented in the context of Kenya, a developing country in Sub-Saharan Africa (SSA). Findings from the study constitute empirical evidence useful for a more nuanced understanding of the determinants and outcomes of work engagement among individuals in frontline jobs, in a developing country setting. Moreover, the evidence uncovered in this study shows the empirical substantiation of HPWPs as significant human resource practices for frontline service jobs in a different context.

As an additional contribution to context in this study, the determinants and consequences of work engagement were evaluated through a survey of members of the millennial generational

cohort in the Kenyan context. The substantive findings of this study signify empirical evidence that is useful and practical for the enhanced understanding of what job resources can be considered as the most significant work engagement determinants among millennial frontline employees, and how work engagement ultimately influences positive organizationally valued outcomes among this generational cohort. Given that this research study counts among the first in which the determinants and outcomes of work engagement among millennial frontline employees in Sub-Saharan Africa are empirically investigated, the study provides a frame of reference for future studies concerning the in-depth empirical examination of the concept of work engagement, among millennial employees.

5.8 Limitations of the Study

In this study, the effects of HPWPs on creative performance, extra-role customer service, and turnover intention, through work engagement, were empirically examined. To achieve this, a cross-sectional survey design was employed. However, as is the case for all research studies, a number of notable theoretical and methodological limitations that arose are observed by the researcher.

Firstly, a cross-sectional survey design (Bryman et al., 2017) was used in the research study. A structured questionnaire instrument was developed and utilized to collect data from the surveyed respondent millennial frontline employees in Kenya. The use of a cross-sectional survey design enables the researcher collect data at a single point in time (Bryman et al., 2017). Thus, the long-term impact of HPWPs on creative performance, extra-role customer service, and turnover intention, through work engagement, over time, is not observable. In addition, although the study hypotheses were developed on the basis of existing empirical research and underpinned by theory, the use of a cross-sectional survey design imposes a limit on the inference of causal relationships between the variables, other than the relationships that are theoretically founded.

A second research limitation of the study is that the collection of data from frontline hotel service employees via their managers is notable in a number of empirical studies (e.g. Karatepe, 2013b; Karatepe and Karadas, 2014; Karatepe and Karadas, 2015). In the present study, only four hotels allowed the researcher to directly distribute the structured questionnaire instrument to millennial frontline employees with consent from management. As such, the distribution of the structured questionnaire instrument in the remaining fourteen

hotels was completed with the assistance of Human Resource and Training managers from the respective hotels. This may have prompted a selection bias. To minimize the selection bias, the researcher provided the Human Resource and Training managers with specific and clear directions on how to distribute the survey instrument to a broad spectrum of millennial frontline employees. However, for future purposes, it is recommended that researchers should directly collect the data from frontline employees to mitigate against this bias.

Another research limitation is that data obtained from the study were exclusively collected using self-reported survey questionnaires. This practice is susceptible to common method bias (Podsakoff et al., 2003). With this realization, the researcher controlled for common method variance using Harman's (1976) Single-Factor Test (Podsakoff and Organ, 1986). However, for future research purposes, and to further mitigate against such potential method risks, it would be of benefit to elicit data using more than one source.

An additional limitation is that data for the study were obtained from millennial frontline service employees working in four-star and five-star hotels in Kenya. Therefore, study findings are not necessarily generalizable to other hospitality contexts, given that research situated in other geographical locations may produce varying results. The replication of this study in various contexts would provide a better, perhaps more detailed understanding of the relationships in the study's conceptual model, as well as further ascertain the validity and generalizability of the results from the present study, albeit across different empirical contexts. While the study provides invaluable findings, prudence is advised where findings are generalized to other hotel categories such as two-star and three-star hotels, in the context of Kenya.

A fifth research limitation of this study is that due to the use of a survey design consistent with empirical positivism, a more nuanced understanding of phenomena was to some degree, limited. Although the use of a quantitative approach to data analysis enabled the researcher substantively answer the study's formulated research questions, it can be argued that the focus on quantitative analysis for the study prevented more qualitative insights into relationships expressed between HPWPs, work engagement, and the job outcomes creative performance, extra-role customer service, and turnover intention. Therefore, to address this limitation, the application of combined philosophical approaches to further investigate study findings, and perhaps uncover further, more qualitative insights is warranted.

Last but not least, this study was designed and implemented as a field research study, thus giving rise to limitations that are inherent in a field survey. For instance, due to logistical and time constraints, funding, and the geographical locations of four-star and five-star hotels, the collection of data from targeted hotels in all the 47 counties throughout Kenya was not feasible. However, for strategic reasons, the study was mainly focused on two large counties and economic hubs, that is Nairobi County, the capital city of Kenya, and Mombasa County, the second largest city in Kenya and a major tourist attraction. These two cities already account for a large number of hotels in the country, thereby providing a wider representation of the four-star and five-star hotels in Kenya.

Despite the aforementioned limitations, this study provided useful insights on the predictors and consequences of work engagement among millennial frontline employees in the hospitality industry. In addition, in this study, novel, rigorous, methodological approaches that may be of significance to future scholars in quantitatively dissecting human resource-related research problems in this context, as well as empirically validating findings of the present study in other contexts, were used.

5.9 Directions for Future Research

Following the aforesaid limitations of the study, several avenues for future research are recommended.

As mentioned in Section 5.8, a cross-sectional study design was used in the present study, thus limiting the inference of causality (Bryman et al., 2017). Future researchers may consider using a longitudinal design in order to examine and observe the long-term impact of HPWPs on the job outcomes creative performance, extra-role customer service, and turnover intention, through work engagement. Moreover, a longitudinal design ensures stronger causal inferences.

Following extensive review of the extant literature, training, empowerment, rewards, job security, and career opportunities, were selected as relevant and significant indicators of HPWPs in frontline jobs in the hospitality service industry. However, there exist other potential indicators e.g. selective-staffing, work-life balance, and teamwork (Karatepe, 2013b; Karatepe and Vatankhah, 2014b; Karatepe and Olugbade, 2016) that may also be useful in frontline service jobs. As an additional recommendation, the incorporation of alternative potentially useful HPWPs indicators in future research would provide additional insights on

the link between HPWPs and job outcomes, as well as provide further insights on the association between these HPWPs and work engagement, and job outcomes, in frontline service jobs among frontline employees in the millennial generational cohort.

In this study, work engagement was examined as a mediator of the effects of determinant HPWPs on the consequent job outcomes creative performance, extra-role customer service, and turnover intention. Thus, it is recommended that future researchers should consider incorporating and testing alternative mediating mechanisms such as job embeddedness, as an alternate potential fundamental mechanism that links HPWPs to creative performance, extra-role customer service, and turnover intention. Job embeddedness is considered as potentially an essential employee retention strategy (Karatepe and Ngeche, 2012; Karatepe and Eslamlou, 2017), which denotes “the combined forces that keep a person from leaving his or her job” (Yao et al., 2004, p.159). Thus, investigating these relationships among millennial frontline employees, can extend existing knowledge on the function of mediating mechanisms that can link antecedent HPWPs to job outcomes. Moreover, the testing of alternative mediating mechanisms may signify useful further extension of existing theory due to the incorporation of supplementary theories to underpin the conceptual model.

Furthermore, creative performance, extra-role customer service, and turnover intention were examined as job outcomes in the current study. However, it is important to recognize that there are other significant job outcomes in frontline service jobs such as service recovery performance (Karatepe and Olugbade, 2016). Service recovery performance refers to the efforts of an employee to restore disgruntled customers to a state of contentedness subsequent to a service mishap (Boshoff and Allen, 2000). It is further recommended that future studies in which the concept of service recovery performance is incorporated into the research model as a job outcome, would constitute additional useful insights on the function of work engagement as a mediator between determinant HPWPs on consequent job outcomes. Moreover, in the present study, it was demonstrated that the work engagement variable did not significantly affect the job outcome creative performance among millennial frontline employees. Therefore, as an alternative, or for comparison purposes, future research can consider incorporating service recovery performance as a job outcome of work engagement.

An additional recommendation is that future researchers can also consider incorporating personal resources in the research model as a determinant of work engagement, in an effort to extend the work engagement model. Existing literature shows that personal resources can

significantly influence work engagement (e.g. Bakker, 2009; Bakker et al., 2014). Therefore, future researchers should incorporate a personal resource, that is, psychological capital into the research model and test the combined effect of HPWPs and psychological capital on creative performance, extra-role customer service, and turnover intention via work engagement. Moreover, upon scrutiny, the extant literature is indicative of limited empirical evidence on the theoretical concept of psychological capital (Karatepe and Karadas, 2014; Karatepe and Talebzadeh, 2016).

Further, it is recommended that future researchers should consider employing a mixed-method approach in examining effects of HPWPs on job outcomes through work engagement. In this study, a positivist approach was used to empirically investigate the effects of HPWPs on job outcomes through work engagement. The use of a positivist-influenced hypothetico-deductive approach (Kaplan and Duchon, 1988), allowed the researcher to explain the relationships between variables by testing theoretical hypotheses using empirical data, to address the study's formulated research questions. However, the use of a more qualitative approach may enrich the findings of the study by providing additional insights into the influence of HPWPs on creative performance, extra-role customer service, and turnover intention, through work engagement as a mediating mechanism.

Furthermore, this study empirically examined the impact of HPWPs on creative performance, extra-role customer service, and turnover intention via work engagement in the context of Kenya. To enrich study findings that empirically support the mediating function of work engagement, future researchers should consider extending the stream of research to more widespread hotel industry contexts, including for example, cross-national studies in Sub-Saharan Africa. This would allow for a quantitative comparison of the study's relationships across different hotel industries across different countries, thus contributing towards the advancement of global best practice in the retention of engaged millennial frontline employees, in addition to ensuring the delivery of quality service. Moreover, future replication of studies in which large sample sizes are utilized in alternative service-delivery settings e.g. airline industry would to a large extent, enrich the interpretation of the relationships in the study and validate the study's empirical model. This would, therefore, be encouraged for future research.

Lastly, in the study, the Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (UWES) was adapted to measure the work engagement construct (Schaufeli et al., 2006). The UWES comprised seventeen

items that represent the tri-dimensional work engagement construct, comprising vigour, dedication, and absorption. To empirically investigate work engagement determinants and outcomes, a three-factor score incorporating the average latent variable scores of these work engagement dimensions was used. For additional insight, future researchers can consider measuring work engagement as a higher (second-order) construct with vigour, dedication, and absorption, as its manifest lower (first-order) indicators, to further determine the reliability of the measures of the work engagement construct.

5.10 Conclusion

On the basis of the tenets of Social Exchange Theory (SET) and the motivational process of the JD-R model, a conceptual model to investigate the effects of determinant HPWPs on the consequent job outcomes creative performance, extra-role customer service, and turnover intention, through work engagement positioned as an intervening mechanism, was developed and empirically tested. These relationships were evaluated using data gathered from millennial frontline employees working full-time in four-star and five-star hotels in the empirical context of Kenya. Study findings evidenced that all but one hypothesis was empirically substantiated.

Study findings showed that work engagement was a partial mediator of the effects of HPWPs on the job outcomes creative performance, extra-role customer service, and turnover intention. In addition, the findings showed that the presence of HPWPs elevated levels of millennial frontline employee work engagement. Such employees in-turn were observed to be capable of displaying a willingness to go above and beyond their prescribed role duties to meet and satisfy customer needs, as well as remain with the organization and having less of a tendency to seek alternative employment elsewhere. However, the results also evidenced that work engagement did not motivate millennial frontline employees to generate creative concepts for service improvement or offer innovative solutions in resolving customer concerns and complaints. This finding was considered unorthodox, in light of prior findings from the existing literature that support a significant and positive relationship between work engagement and creative performance. Moreover, findings also affirmed that work engagement reduced the direct effects of HPWPs on creative performance, thus minimizing the potential for creative performance among millennial frontline employees. This result presented a future research opportunity that warrants further empirical investigation on the drivers of creative performance among millennial frontline employees, an area that has largely

been neglected in the existing literature within the domain of hospitality management (Karatepe et al., 2014a).

From a managerial perspective, empirical findings from the study indicated that it is incumbent upon hotel managers to invest in the provision of these HPWPs to preserve a cohort of millennial frontline employees who are highly engaged and capable of demonstrating discretionary behaviour in service with reduced intentions to leave the organization. Moreover, training, empowerment, rewards, job security, and career opportunities, as manifest HPWPs indicators, were found to be relevant and significant human resource practices for millennial employees in frontline jobs in the hospitality service industry. Thus, implementation of these performance enhancing practices will not only be useful in managing the performance of millennial frontline employees, but also in attracting and retaining highly qualified and engaged millennial employees.

Furthermore, through the use of robust methodologies and rigorous analyses, the empirical findings of the study are essential to providing an in-depth, nuanced, conception of the mechanisms through which HPWPs can influence organizationally-valued job outcomes in frontline service jobs. As a consequence of this research study, researchers and practitioners are better informed to explain and understand the underlying mechanisms through which determinant HPWPs can influence consequent job outcomes in the hospitality industry, in the empirical context of a Sub-Saharan African country.

Notably, it is especially important that in future studies, management scholars continually strive to interrogate the effects of determinant HPWPs, the intervening role of the work engagement construct as a potential mediating influence, in addition to organizationally-valued consequent job outcomes in frontline service jobs. From an evidence-based perspective, this will substantively and effectively address the dearth of empirical evidence that has characterized the hospitality management literature, particularly in the rich developing world context of Sub-Saharan Africa.

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Appendix A Cover Letter and Survey Instrument



Good Day,

My name is Juliana Kibatta, and I am a Doctoral (Ph.D.) student in Human Resource Management (HRM) at the School of Economics and Business Sciences (SEBS), University of the Witwatersrand (WITS), Johannesburg, South Africa.

I am conducting a survey on the effects of High-Performance Work Practices (HPWPs) on Work Engagement and its consequent Job Outcomes among millennial Frontline Employees (FLEs) in the Kenyan hospitality industry.

This study is designed to better understand and explain how to effectively engage millennial frontline employees in an effort to lower their turnover intentions, improve their creative performance, and enhance their extra-role customer service behavior in delivering quality services to customers.

I hereby invite you to participate in this survey by completing the attached questionnaire. You have been chosen to participate in this study because you are a millennial frontline employee (aged between 18-38 years), working in direct contact with customers.

The survey questionnaire comprises 65 statements, which should take approximately 20-25 minutes to complete. There are no right or wrong answers. You have the right to refrain from answering any questions should you wish to do so. Your participation is completely voluntary and involves no risk, penalty, or loss of benefits. You have the right to withdraw from the survey at any stage up until you submit the questionnaire.

The survey will remain confidential and anonymous, and the data obtained will only be used for the completion of the Doctoral (Ph.D.) thesis. Completion of this questionnaire will be taken as your consent to participate. Summarized results of the research will be made available to your organization upon request. No institutional names will be used in the Doctoral (Ph.D.) thesis.

Should you have any questions, please do not hesitate to contact me by telephone on + 254 724 940 681 or +27 69 98 8290. You can also contact me through electronic mail (e-mail) on 1270765@students.wits.ac.za. In case of further queries, please do not hesitate to contact my supervisor Prof. Michael. Olorunjuwon Samuel by telephone on +27 11 717 8124 or +27 79 667 7055, or through electronic mail (e-mail) on olorunjuwon.samuel@wits.ac.za (e-mail).

For concerns or complaints regarding the ethical procedures of this study, you are welcome to contact the University Human Research Ethics Committee (non-medical) by telephone on + 27(0)11 717 1408, or through electronic mail (email) on hrec-medical.researchoffice@wits.ac.za or Shaun.Schoeman@wits.ac.za

Thank you for considering your participation.

Yours Sincerely,

Juliana N. Kibatta
Ph.D. Candidate
Human Resource Management (HRM) Division
School of Economic and Business Sciences (SEBS)
University of the Witwatersrand (WITS)
Johannesburg, South Africa (SA)

SECTION A: Biographical Information

This section is focused on biographical information (your Gender, Age, Marital Status, Family Size, Education, Organizational Tenure, Job Category, Experience in Hospitality, Job Position, and Type of Employment). Please indicate your response by ticking the appropriate boxes below.

1. Gender

Male ☐ Female ☐

2. Age

18 – 21 years ☐ 22 - 26 years ☐ 27 - 31 years ☐ 32 - 38 years ☐

3. Marital Status

Single ☐ Married ☐ Divorced ☐ Separated ☐ Widowed ☐

4. Number of Children (Family Size)

None ☐ 1 to 2 children ☐ 3 to 4 children ☐ 5 or more children ☐

5. Highest Level of Education

Secondary School ☐ Professional Diploma ☐ Bachelor's Degree ☐ Master's Degree ☐

Doctorate Degree ☐ Other Qualification _____

6. Organization Tenure (Length of Time in Current Job)

Less than 1 year ☐ 1 to 3 years ☐ 4 or more years ☐

7. Department (Job Category)

Front Office ☐ Waiter/Waitress ☐ Guest Relation Representative ☐

Bell Attendant (Porter) ☐ Door Attendant ☐ Spa Attendant ☐

Concierge (Guest Transport) ☐ Housekeeping ☐ Bar Attendant ☐
 Other _____

8. For how many years have you worked in the hospitality industry?

Less than 1 year ☐ 1 to 2 years ☐ 3 to 4 years ☐ 5 or more years ☐

9. What best represents your position within your organization?

Employee ☐ Supervisor ☐ Other _____

10. Type of Employment

Full-Time Employee ☐ Part-Time Employee ☐ Other _____

SECTION B: HIGH-PERFORMANCE WORK PRACTICES (HPWPs)

1. Training

Please circle (O) the number that best reflects the extent to which you agree with the following statements relating to the enhancement of your knowledge and skill through training.		Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
1.	I receive continuous training to provide good services.	1	2	3	4	5
2.	I received extensive customer service training before I came into contact with customers.	1	2	3	4	5
3.	I receive training on how to better serve customers.	1	2	3	4	5
4.	I receive training on how to deal with complaining customers.	1	2	3	4	5
5.	I received training on how to deal with customer problems.	1	2	3	4	5
6.	I received training on how to deal with customer complaints.	1	2	3	4	5

2. Empowerment

Please circle (O) the number that best reflects the extent to which you agree with the following statements relating to the freedom and ability given to you to make decisions and commitments while performing your work duties.		Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
1.	I am encouraged to handle customer problems by myself.	1	2	3	4	5
2.	I do not need management's approval before I handle customer problems.	1	2	3	4	5
3.	I am allowed to do almost anything to solve customer-problems.	1	2	3	4	5
4.	I can exercise control over how I solve customer problems.	1	2	3	4	5
5.	I am empowered to solve customer problems.	1	2	3	4	5

3. Rewards

Please circle (O) the number that best reflects the extent to which you agree with the following statements relating to the organization's rewards and recognition of your contribution while performing your work duties.		Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
1.	If I improve the level of service I offer customers, I will be rewarded.	1	2	3	4	5
2.	The rewards I receive are based on customer evaluations of service.	1	2	3	4	5
3.	I am rewarded for serving customers well.	1	2	3	4	5
4.	I am rewarded for dealing effectively with customer problems.	1	2	3	4	5
5.	I am rewarded for satisfying complaining customers.	1	2	3	4	5

4. Job Security

Please circle (O) the number that best reflects the extent to which you agree with the following statements relating to your job security within the organization.		Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
1.	Frontline employees can expect to stay in the organization for as long as they wish.	1	2	3	4	5
2.	It is very difficult to dismiss a frontline employee in this organization.	1	2	3	4	5
3.	Job security is almost guaranteed to frontline employees in this organization.	1	2	3	4	5
4.	If this company were facing economic problems, frontline employees in this organization would be the last to get cut.	1	2	3	4	5

5. Career Opportunities

Please circle (O) the number that best reflects the extent to which you agree with the following statements relating to your opportunities for career advancement within the organization.		Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
1.	As a frontline employee I have clear career paths within the organization.	1	2	3	4	5
2.	Frontline employees have very little future within this organization.	1	2	3	4	5
3.	My career aspirations as a frontline employee within this organization are known by my immediate supervisors.	1	2	3	4	5
4.	Frontline employees who desire promotion have more than one potential position they could be promoted to.	1	2	3	4	5

SECTION C: WORK ENGAGEMENT

1. Vigor

Please circle (O) the number that best reflects the extent to which you feel that you have high energy levels and mental resilience, while performing your work duties.		Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
1.	When I get up in the morning, I feel motivated to go to work.	1	2	3	4	5
2.	At my work, I am full of energy.	1	2	3	4	5
3.	At my work I never give up, even when things do not go well.	1	2	3	4	5
4.	I can continue working for very long periods at a time.	1	2	3	4	5
5.	At my job, I am very resilient, mentally.	1	2	3	4	5
6.	At my job, I feel strong and vigorous.	1	2	3	4	5

2. Dedication

Please circle (O) the number that best reflects the extent to which you feel a sense of significance, enthusiasm, inspiration, and challenge, while performing your work duties.		Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
1.	I find the work that I do full of meaning and purpose.	1	2	3	4	5
2.	I am enthusiastic about my job.	1	2	3	4	5
3.	My job inspires me.	1	2	3	4	5
4.	I am proud of the work that I do.	1	2	3	4	5
5.	I find my job is challenging.	1	2	3	4	5

3. Absorption

Please circle (O) the number that best reflects the extent to which you are fully concentrated and deeply engrossed in your work, such that time quickly elapses and you encounter difficulties in detaching yourself from performing your duties.		Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
1.	Time flies when I am working.	1	2	3	4	5
2.	When I am working, I forget everything else around me.	1	2	3	4	5
3.	I feel happy when I am working intensely.	1	2	3	4	5
4.	I am deeply involved in my work.	1	2	3	4	5
5.	I get carried away when I am working.	1	2	3	4	5
6.	It is difficult to detach myself from my job.	1	2	3	4	5

SECTION D: JOB OUTCOMES

1. Creative Performance

Please circle (O) the number that best reflects the extent to which you generate new ideas and display innovative behaviours while performing your work duties.		Never	Rarely	Every once in while	Sometimes	Almost Always
1.	I carry out my routine tasks in ways that are resourceful.	1	2	3	4	5
2.	I come up with new ideas for satisfying customer needs.	1	2	3	4	5
3.	I generate and evaluate multiple alternatives for novel customer problems.	1	2	3	4	5
4.	I have fresh perspectives on old problems.	1	2	3	4	5
5.	I improvise methods for solving a problem when an answer is not apparent.	1	2	3	4	5
6.	I generate creative ideas for service delivery.	1	2	3	4	5

2. Extra-Role Customer Service

Please circle (O) the number that best reflects the extent to which you are willing to go above and beyond your formal work roles in serving customers when performing your work duties.		Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
1.	I voluntarily assist customers even if it means going beyond job requirements.	1	2	3	4	5
2.	I help customers with problems beyond what is expected or required.	1	2	3	4	5
3.	I often go above and beyond the call of duty when serving customers.	1	2	3	4	5
4.	I willingly go out of my way to make a customer satisfied.	1	2	3	4	5
5.	I frequently go out of my way to help a customer.	1	2	3	4	5

3. Turnover Intention

Please circle (O) the number that best reflects the extent to which you intend to withdraw from your current job.		Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
1.	I often think of quitting my job	1	2	3	4	5
2.	It would not take much to convince me to leave this hotel.	1	2	3	4	5
3.	I will probably be looking for another job soon.	1	2	3	4	5

Thank you for very much for your participation

Appendix B Ethics Clearance



Research Office

HUMAN RESEARCH ETHICS COMMITTEE (NON-MEDICAL)

R14/49 Kibatta

CLEARANCE CERTIFICATE

PROTOCOL NUMBER: H17/11/23

PROJECT TITLE

Work engagement, high-performance work practices, and job outcomes: An empirical study of millennial frontline employees in the Kenyan hospitality industry

INVESTIGATOR(S)

Miss J Kibatta

SCHOOL/DEPARTMENT

School of Economic and Business Sciences/

DATE CONSIDERED

17 November 2017

DECISION OF THE COMMITTEE

Approved

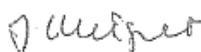
EXPIRY DATE

04 December 2020

DATE

05 December 2017

CHAIRPERSON

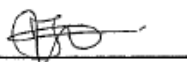

(Professor J Knight)

cc: Supervisor : Professor S Olorunjuwon

DECLARATION OF INVESTIGATOR(S)

To be completed in duplicate and **ONE COPY** returned to the Secretary at Room 10004, 10th Floor, Senate House, University. Unreported changes to the application may invalidate the clearance given by the HREC (Non-Medical)

I/We fully understand the conditions under which I am/we are authorized to carry out the abovementioned research and I/we guarantee to ensure compliance with these conditions. Should any departure to be contemplated from the research procedure as approved I/we undertake to resubmit the protocol to the Committee. I agree to completion of a yearly progress report.


Signature

08/12/2017
Date

PLEASE QUOTE THE PROTOCOL NUMBER ON ALL ENQUIRIES

Appendix C Letter of Approval (Permission) for Data Collection

Heidelberg House - 2nd level Mombasa Road P.O. Box 9977 00100 Nairobi Tel: 0707 402 504/0775 448 306 E-mail: info@kahc.co.ke	 <i>Making Kenya's hospitality globally competitive</i> KENYA ASSOCIATION OF HOTEL KEEPERS & CATERERS www.kahc.co.ke	Social Security House, Nkrumah Road, 8th level P.O. Box 83378, Mombasa Tel: 041 2228208/041 2312504 E-mail: info@coast@kahc.co.ke

13th October 2017

To Whom it May Concern,

RE: APPROVAL OF DATA COLLECTION FROM FOUR-STAR AND FIVE-STAR MEMBER HOTELS IN KENYA: PRINCIPLE RESEARCHER – MS. JULIANA KIBATTA

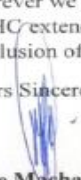
The purpose of this letter is to grant Ms. Juliana Kibatta, a Doctoral (Ph.D.) student at the University of the Witwatersrand (WITS), Johannesburg, South Africa, permission to collect data for her research study, from four-star and five-star member hotels of the Kenya Association of Hotel Keepers and Caterers (KAHC), in the counties of Nairobi and Mombasa. We recognize that her area of specialization is Human-Resource Management (HRM).

The research study titled "Work Engagement, High-Performance Work Practices, and Job Outcomes: An Empirical Study of Millennial Frontline Employees in the Kenyan Hospitality Industry" is targeted at hotel employees who belong to the millennial generational cohort, operating in four-star and five-star hotels listed as registered members of our organization, the KAHC.

As the principal umbrella organization that brings together hotels, lodges, restaurants, membership clubs, and prominent caterers with an aim to render services in the hospitality industry, I wish to confirm that we hereby grant access and permission to Ms. Kibatta to conduct her research and collect data from millennial frontline employees operating in four-star and five-star KAHC member hotels in the counties of Nairobi and Mombasa.

In addition, we wish to extend our support to Ms. Kibatta and will be happy to assist wherever we can. Further, in an effort to promote "Information Exchange", a core service that KAHC extends to its members, we request that the research findings be shared with us upon conclusion of the study.

Yours Sincerely,


Mike Magharia,
Chief Executive Officer.

BOARD OF DIRECTORS

J.S Vohra (National Chairman) • Waike Wasike (Vice National Chairman) • S. Mugwe • H.Kampa • P. Chai • W. Mwadilo • W. Orendo • W. Reif
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Appendix D Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA)

- a. Factorability results of the dimensions of High-Performance Work Practices (HPWPs) and Work Engagement

(i) High-Performance Work Practices: Training

Table D.1. Correlation Matrix: High-Performance Work Practices- Training (TR)						
	TR1	TR2	TR3	TR4	TR5	TR6
TR1	1.000	0.514	0.576	0.567	0.538	0.513
TR2	0.514	1.000	0.537	0.492	0.483	0.468
TR3	0.576	0.537	1.000	0.638	0.594	0.584
TR4	0.567	0.492	0.638	1.000	0.780	0.712
TR5	0.538	0.483	0.594	0.780	1.000	0.830

Results in Table D.1 indicate that all variable items of the training construct inter-correlated with a score of 0.300 (Hair et al., 1998; Hair et al., 2018a) and above with other items within the same construct. Thus, all items were retained for further analyses.

(ii) High-Performance Work Practices: Empowerment

Table D.2. Correlation Matrix: High-Performance Work Practices- Empowerment (EMP)					
	EMP1	EMP2	EMP3	EMP4	EMP5
EMP1	1.000	0.497	0.498	0.517	0.500
EMP2	0.497	1.000	0.620	0.503	0.477
EMP3	0.498	0.620	1.000	0.625	0.611
EMP4	0.517	0.503	0.625	1.000	0.675
EMP5	0.500	0.477	0.611	0.675	1.000

Results in Table D.2 indicate that all variable items of the empowerment construct inter-correlated with a score of 0.300 (Hair et al., 1998; Hair et al., 2018a) and above with other items within the same construct. Thus, all items were retained for further analyses.

(iii) High-Performance Work Practices: Rewards

Table D.3. Correlation Matrix: High-Performance Work Practices- Rewards (RW)					
	RW1	RW2	RW3	RW4	RW5
RW1	1.000	0.647	0.703	0.703	0.687
RW2	0.647	1.000	0.689	0.645	0.622
RW3	0.703	0.689	1.000	0.773	0.771
RW4	0.703	0.645	0.773	1.000	0.837
RW5	0.687	0.622	0.771	0.837	1.000

Results in Table D.3 indicate that all variable items of the rewards construct inter-correlated with a score of 0.300 (Hair et al., 1998; Hair et al., 2018a) and above with other items within the same construct. Thus, no item was excluded.

(iv) High-Performance Work Practices: Job Security

Table D.4. Correlation Matrix: High-Performance Work Practices- Job Security (JS)				
	JS1	JS2	JS3	JS4
JS1	1.000	0.553	0.569	0.387
JS2	0.553	1.000	0.628	0.479
JS3	0.569	0.628	1.000	0.579
JS4	0.387	0.479	0.579	1.000

Results in Table D.4 indicate that all variable items of the job security construct inter-correlated with a score of 0.300 (Hair et al., 1998; Hair et al., 2018a) and above with other items within the same construct. Thus, all items were retained for further analyses.

(v) High-Performance Work Practices: Career Opportunities

Table D.5. Correlation Matrix: High-Performance Work Practices- Career Opportunities (CO)				
	CO1	CO2	CO3	CO4
CO1	1.000	-0.044	0.440	0.485
CO2- Recoded	-0.044	1.000	-0.073	-0.097
CO3	0.440	-0.073	1.000	0.471
CO4	0.485	-0.097	0.471	1.000

Results in Table D.5 indicate that variable item CO2 of the career opportunities construct was found to inter-correlate with a score below 0.300 with other items within the same construct. As such, based on Hair et al.'s (2014a, 2018a) recommendation, item CO2 was excluded from further analyses as an independent variable item can only considered for factor analysis if it correlates with other items of the same construct with a score above 0.300.

(vi) Work Engagement: Vigour

Table D.6. Correlation Matrix: Work Engagement -Vigour (VI)						
	VI1	VI2	VI3	VI4	VI5	VI6
VI1	1.000	0.708	0.484	0.344	0.423	0.563
VI2	0.708	1.000	0.559	0.476	0.502	0.655
VI3	0.484	0.559	1.000	0.572	0.562	0.567
VI4	0.344	0.476	0.572	1.000	0.548	0.513
VI5	0.423	0.502	0.562	0.548	1.000	0.628
VI6	0.563	0.655	0.567	0.513	0.628	1.000

Results in Table D.6 indicate that all variable items of the vigour dimension of work engagement construct inter-correlated with a score of 0.300 (Hair et al., 1998; Hair et al., 2018a) and above with other items within the same construct. Thus, all items were retained for further analyses.

(vii) Work Engagement: Dedication

Table D.7. Correlation Matrix: Work Engagement - Dedication (DE)					
	DE1	DE2	DE3	DE4	DE5
DE1	1.000	0.662	0.558	0.549	0.151
DE2	0.662	1.000	0.690	0.674	0.112
DE3	0.558	0.690	1.000	0.724	0.117
DE4	0.549	0.674	0.724	1.000	0.127
DE5	0.151	0.112	0.117	0.127	1.000

Results in Table D.7 indicate that variable item DE5 of the dedication dimension of the work engagement construct was found to inter-correlate with a score below 0.300 with other items within the same construct. As such, based on Hair et al.'s (2014a, 2018a) recommendation, items DE5 was excluded from further analyses as the threshold correlation score of 0.300 and above was not met for the consideration of factor analysis.

(viii) Work Engagement: Absorption

Table D.8. Correlation Matrix: Work Engagement - Absorption (ABS)						
	ABS1	ABS2	ABS3	ABS4	ABS5	ABS6
ABS1	1.000	0.382	0.365	0.509	0.169	0.282
ABS2	0.382	1.000	0.423	0.378	0.320	0.323
ABS3	0.365	0.423	1.000	0.586	0.263	0.362
ABS4	0.509	0.378	0.586	1.000	0.239	0.415
ABS5	0.169	0.320	0.263	0.239	1.000	0.403
ABS6	0.282	0.323	0.362	0.415	0.403	1.000

Results in Table D. 8 indicate that variable item ABS5 and ABS6 of the absorption dimension of the work engagement construct was found to inter-correlate with a score below 0.300 with other items within the same construct. As such, based on Hair et al.'s (2014a, 2018a) recommendation, items ABS5 and ABS6 were excluded from further analyses as the threshold correlation score of 0.300 and above was not met for the consideration of factor analysis.

b. Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) Measure of Sampling Adequacy and Bartlett's Test Results Per Variable

(i) High-Performance Work Practices: Training

Table D.9. KMO and Bartlett's Test Results: High-Performance Work Practices (HPWPs): Training		
Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) Measure of Sampling Adequacy		0.870
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	1493.515
	df	15
	Sig,	.000

Results in Table D.9 indicate that the dimension (variable) Training, an indicator of HPWPs, attained unidimensionality. A Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) Measure of Sampling Adequacy value of 0.870 (> 0.600) and a significant Bartlett's test of sphericity ($p < 0.05$) were attained, thus providing sufficient empirical evidence to conduct factor analysis. The minimum recommended threshold value for KMO is 0.600 (Pallant, 2010; Brace et al., 2012). Thus, any obtained value greater than 0.800 is considered exemplary (Hair et al., 2018a).

(ii) High-Performance Work Practices – Empowerment

Table D.10. KMO and Bartlett's Test Results: High-Performance Work Practices (HPWPs): Empowerment		
Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) Measure of Sampling Adequacy		0.845
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	886.247
	df	10
	Sig,	.000

Results in Table D.10 indicate that the dimension (variable) Empowerment, an indicator of HPWPs, attained unidimensionality. A Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) Measure of Sampling adequacy value of 0.845 (> 0.600) and a significant Bartlett's test of sphericity ($p < 0.05$) were attained, thus providing sufficient empirical evidence to conduct factor analysis. The minimum recommended threshold value for KMO is 0.600 (Pallant, 2010; Brace et al., 2012). Thus, any obtained value greater than 0.800 is considered exemplary (Hair et al., 2018a).

(iii) High-Performance Work Practices: Rewards

Table D.11. KMO and Bartlett's Test Results: High-Performance Work Practices (HPWPs): Rewards		
Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) Measure of Sampling Adequacy		0.884
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	1550.961
	df	10
	Sig,	.000

Results in Table D.11 indicate that the dimension (variable) Rewards, an indicator of HPWPs, attained unidimensionality. A Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) Measure of Sampling Adequacy value of 0.884 (> 0.600) and a significant Bartlett's test of sphericity ($p < 0.05$) were attained, thus providing sufficient empirical evidence to conduct factor analysis. The minimum recommended threshold value for KMO is 0.600 (Pallant, 2010; Brace et al., 2012). Thus, any obtained value greater than 0.800 is considered exemplary (Hair et al., 2018a).

(iv) High-Performance Work Practices - Job Security

Table D.12. KMO and Bartlett's Test Results: High-Performance Work Practices (HPWPs): Job Security		
Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) Measure of Sampling Adequacy		0.785
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	576.361
	df	6
	Sig.	.000

Results in Table D.12 indicate that the dimension (variable) Job Security, an indicator of HPWPs, attained unidimensionality. A Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) Measure of Sampling Adequacy value of 0.785 (> 0.600) and a significant Bartlett's test of sphericity ($p < 0.05$) were attained, thus providing sufficient empirical evidence to conduct factor analysis. The minimum recommended threshold value for KMO is 0.600 (Pallant, 2010; Brace et al., 2012). Thus, a KMO value of 0.785 (> 0.600) is considered acceptable.

(v) High-Performance Work Practices: Career Opportunities

Table D.13. KMO and Bartlett's Test Results: High-Performance Work Practices (HPWPs): Career Opportunities		
Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) Measure of Sampling Adequacy		0.680
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	240.171
	df	6
	Sig.	.000

Results in Table D.13 indicate that the dimension (variable) Career Opportunities scale, an indicator of HPWPs, attained unidimensionality. A Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) Measure of Sampling Adequacy value of 0.680 (> 0.600) and a significant Bartlett's test of sphericity ($p < 0.05$) were attained, thus providing sufficient empirical evidence to conduct factor analysis. The minimum recommended threshold value for KMO is 0.600 (Pallant, 2010; Brace et al., 2012). Thus, a KMO value of 0.680 (> 0.600) is considered acceptable.

(vi) Work Engagement: Vigour

Table D.14. Table KMO and Bartlett's Test Results: Work Engagement – Vigour		
Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) Measure of Sampling Adequacy		0.874
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	885.023
	df	10
	Sig.	.000

Results in Table D.14 indicate that the dimension (variable) Vigour, a dimension of Work Engagement, attained unidimensionality. A Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) Measure of Sampling Adequacy value of 0.874 (> 0.600) and a significant Bartlett's test of sphericity ($p < 0.05$) were attained, thus providing sufficient empirical evidence to conduct factor analysis. The minimum recommended threshold value for KMO is 0.600 (Pallant, 2010; Brace et al., 2012). Thus, any obtained value greater than 0.800 is considered exemplary (Hair et al., 2018a).

(vii) Work Engagement: Dedication

Table D.15. KMO and Bartlett's Test Results: Work Engagement – Dedication		
Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) Measure of Sampling Adequacy		0.812
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	861.303
	df	6
	Sig.	.000

Results in Table D.15 indicate that the dimension (variable) Dedication, a dimension of Work Engagement, attained unidimensionality. A Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) Measure of Sampling Adequacy value of 0.812 (> 0.600) and a significant Bartlett's test of sphericity ($p < 0.05$) were attained, thus providing sufficient empirical evidence to conduct factor analysis. The minimum recommended threshold value for KMO is 0.600 (Pallant, 2010; Brace et al., 2012). Thus, any obtained value greater than 0.800 is considered exemplary (Hair et al., 2018a).

(viii) Work Engagement: Absorption

Table D.16. KMO and Bartlett's Test Results: Work Engagement – Absorption		
Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) Measure of Sampling Adequacy		0.721
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	405.534
	df	6
	Sig.	.000

Results in Table D.16 indicate that the dimension (variable) Absorption, a dimension of Work Engagement, attained unidimensionality. A Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) Measure of Sampling Adequacy value of 0.721 (> 0.600) and a significant Bartlett's test of sphericity ($p < 0.05$) were attained, thus providing sufficient empirical evidence to conduct factor analysis. The minimum recommended threshold value for KMO is 0.600 (Pallant, 2010; Brace et al., 2012). Thus, a KMO value of 0.721 (> 0.600) is considered acceptable for factor analysis.

(ix) Job Outcomes: Creative Performance

Table D.17. KMO and Bartlett's Test Results: Job Outcomes - Creative Performance		
Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) Measure of Sampling Adequacy		0.902
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	1928.330
	df	15
	Sig,	.000

Results in Table D.17 indicate that the dimension (variable) Creative Performance, attained unidimensionality. A Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) Measure of Sampling Adequacy value of 0.906 (> 0.600) and a significant Bartlett's test of sphericity ($p < 0.05$) were attained, thus providing sufficient empirical evidence to conduct factor analysis. The minimum recommended threshold value for KMO is 0.600 (Pallant, 2010; Brace et al., 2012). Thus, any obtained value greater than 0.800 is considered excellent (Hair et al., 2018a).

(x) Job Outcomes: Extra-Role Customer Service

Table D.18. KMO and Bartlett's Test Results: Job Outcomes - Extra-Role Customer Service		
Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) Measure of Sampling Adequacy		0.862
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	1392.597
	df	10
	Sig,	.000

Results in Table D.18 indicate that the dimension (variable) Extra-Role Customer Service attained unidimensionality. A Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) Measure of Sampling Adequacy value of 0.862 (> 0.600) and a significant Bartlett's test of sphericity ($p < 0.05$) were attained, thus providing sufficient empirical evidence to conduct factor analysis. The minimum recommended threshold value for KMO is 0.600 (Pallant, 2010; Brace et al., 2012). Thus, any obtained value greater than 0.800 is considered excellent (Hair et al., 2018a).

(xi) Job Outcomes: Turnover Intention

Table D.19. KMO and Bartlett's Test Results: Job Outcomes – Turnover Intention		
Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) Measure of Sampling Adequacy		0.726
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	664.004
	df	10
	Sig,	.000

Results in Table D.19 indicate that the dimension (variable) Turnover Intention attained unidimensionality. A Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) Measure of Sampling Adequacy value of 0.726 (> 0.600) and a significant Bartlett's test of sphericity ($p < 0.05$) were attained, thus providing sufficient empirical evidence to conduct factor analysis. The minimum recommended threshold value for KMO is 0.600 (Pallant, 2010; Brace et al., 2012). Thus, a KMO value of 0.726 (> 0.600) is considered acceptable for factor analysis.

Appendix E Evaluation of the Structural Path Model without Control Variables

Control variables gender, age, marital status, highest level of education, and organizational tenure, were tested for their potential confounding effects on the study variables i.e. HPWPs, work engagement, and the job outcomes creative performance, extra-role customer service, and turnover intention.

Results of the structural path model estimated to test the effect of determinant HPWPs as manifested by Training, Empowerment, Rewards, Job Security, and Career Opportunities on Work Engagement, and the effect of Work Engagement on consequent job outcomes Creative Performance, Extra-Role Customer Service, and Turnover Intention, without control variables are presented in Table E.1.

Table E.1. Significance Testing of the Structural Path Model Coefficients without Control Variables

Path	Path Coefficient	<i>t</i> value	<i>p</i> value	Sig. Level	95% CI
<i>Training</i> ← <i>High-Performance Work Practices</i>	0.746	29.450	0.000	***	[0.693, 0.792]
<i>Empowerment</i> ← <i>High-Performance Work Practices</i>	0.708	24.019	0.000	***	[0.646, 0.762]
<i>Rewards</i> ← <i>High-Performance Work Practices</i>	0.786	35.596	0.000	***	[0.740, 0.827]
<i>Job Security</i> ← <i>High-Performance Work Practices</i>	0.574	13.165	0.000	***	[0.481, 0.654]
<i>Career Opportunities</i> ← <i>High-Performance Work Practices</i>	0.704	21.333	0.000	***	[0.635, 0.764]
<i>High-Performance Work Practices</i> → <i>Work Engagement</i>	0.456	11.070	0.000	***	[0.374, 0.538]
<i>Work Engagement</i> → <i>Creative Performance</i>	0.089	1.482	0.138	ns	[-0.202, 0.084]
<i>Work Engagement</i> → <i>Extra-Role Customer Service</i>	0.217	3.893	0.000	***	[0.116, 0.331]
<i>Work Engagement</i> → <i>Turnover Intention</i>	-0.422	9.451	0.000	***	[-0.508, -0.332]

ns = not significant, **p* < 0.10 (*t* > 1.65), ***p* < 0.05 (*t* > 1.96), ****p* < 0.01 (*t* > 2.57)