

**AN EXPLORATION OF
EMPLOYEE ENGAGEMENT AND EMPLOYEE COMMITMENT
IN THE LONDON HOTEL SECTOR:
THE PERSPECTIVES OF
MIGRANT HOUSEKEEPING WORKERS AND THEIR MANAGERS**

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Abstract

This research focuses on the workers employed in the hotel housekeeping sector in London, with the aim to understand the workers' experiences of and perceptions towards work and the factors that shape their decisions to stay and commit to the organisation or leave. This research also captures the management's side of the story. Even though hospitality is one of the largest industries in the UK economy with an alarmingly high staff turnover rate, there is a scarcity of research that investigates the turnover intention among hotel housekeeping workers in recent years. This research topic addresses this gap in the literature.

The research adopts a pragmatic approach, by combining qualitative and quantitative methods, and applying non-probability, convenience sampling technique to collect data from 57 hotels. Quantitative data collected from 106 migrant housekeeping workers through survey questionnaires are analysed to identify factors that positively or negatively influence workers' turnover intention. Statistical test results revealed that factors that negatively affect turnover intentions are mainly the intrinsic job attributes, such as good manager-worker relationship, work appreciation and work enjoyment. Therefore, the intrinsic job attributes were found to outweigh the extrinsic ones in contributing positively to the formation of employee engagement and commitment to the organisation. The demographic variables found to positively contribute to turnover intentions are job position and time spent in the UK.

Qualitative data collected by interviewing 53 housekeeping managers are analysed to understand the manager's role in the employment relationship at two levels: the relationship that the managers maintain with their staff at the micro or departmental-level and the Human Resource Management practices that they implement at the macro or organisational-level. The data revealed that the majority of the managers maintain superior quality work relationships with their staff; however, their perceptions about engagement and commitment provided mixed and inconsistent results. Data confirmed the application of hard HRM practices in the hotel housekeeping context disregarding workers' basic psychological needs, thus, negatively impacting the development of work engagement and commitment to the organisation, and positively promoting staff turnover.

The findings derived from this mixed-methods research are significant because they addressed the gap in the literature by providing a holistic understanding of hotel housekeeping workers' interpretation of work and management. This can be expedient for management to understand workers' perceptions in terms of their priorities, which directly influence their level of engagement and commitment and indirectly affect turnover intentions.

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Acronyms

ERG	Existence, Relatedness and Growth
HK	Housekeeping
HR	Human Resources
HOS	Housekeeping Operational Staff
HRM	Human Resources Management
JD-R	Job Demand Resource
LMX	Leader-member Exchange
NLW	National Living Wage
NMW	National Minimum Wage
OB	Organisational Behaviour
OCB	Organisational Citizenship Behaviour
OST	Organisational Support Theory
PC	Psychological Contract
POS	Perceived Organisational Support
RA	Room Attendant
SDT	Self Determination Theory
SET	Social Exchange Theory
SOP	Standard Operating Procedure

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Declaration

I declare that the research contained in this thesis, unless otherwise formally indicated within the text, is the original work of the author. The thesis has not been previously submitted to this or any other university for a degree, and does not incorporate any material already submitted for a degree.

Quasirat Hasnat

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CHAPTER ONE

Introduction

Hospitality is the third largest industry in the UK, seventh in terms of employment with 3.2 million jobs and 'Accommodation and food service activities', a narrower industrial classification, employs 2.4 million out of the total (UKHospitality, 2018, p.4). This industry's growth, one of the fastest growing, has been impaired by an extraordinarily high staff turnover rate that stands at 30% (Muller-Heyndyk, 2018), costing the industry close to £300 million a year (Witts, 2015). In 2017, KMPG reported that the industry loses up to 30% of its workforce that leaves the sector permanently creating up to 272,000 vacancies yearly. This problem is not specific to the UK hospitality industry, rather, it is a well-recorded phenomenon worldwide. The high turnover of workers is of increasing concern to researchers, theorists and academics alike (Birkin, 2019; Eissner and Gannon, 2018; Kotera, Adhikari and Van Gordon, 2018).

Despite the concerns, investigations on staff turnover to understand the factors specific to particular work contexts, for example hotel housekeeping, are scarce. This mixed-methods research fills this gap in the literature and attempts to understand staff turnover with an explicit focus on a single department within the hotel: *housekeeping*. The choice of the department was mainly directed by two reasons- (i) its unique work characteristics as discussed in Chapter Two and (ii) the paucity of research to analyse and understand staff turnover of hotel housekeeping staff in the UK. Therefore, this research aims to provide insight into staff turnover in the hotel housekeeping sector in London, more precisely, the factors that could contribute to workers' intentions to leave their organisations by consolidating the perspectives of the hotel housekeeping operational staff (HOS) and their managers.

Another crucial factor to consider here is the hospitality industry's extensive reliance on migrant workers. The 2017 KMPG investigation further reported that 37.1% of the housekeeping workforces in London are European migrant workers and this does not take other migrant workers from the rest of the world into account. Even with such high concentration of migrant workers active in the economy, scholars in the field have pointed out that there is a dearth of UK-based literature on migrant workers (Spencer *et al.*, 2007; Anderson *et al.*, 2006), on the implications of migration within each sector (Paraskevopoulou *et al.*, 2012) and on the experiences of migrants working in the UK (Rydzik *et al.*, 2017; Alberti, 2016). In the hotel context, too many studies continue to disregard the 'emotions, feelings, and daily lives' of 'classed, raced and gendered'

migrant workers (McDowell, Batnitzky and Dyer, 2007, p. 21). Existing literature on hotel housekeeping seems to concentrate more on the growth and productivity side of the business and fails to account for the lived experiences of workers in the sector (Sanon, 2013). In response to calls for more research, this investigation focuses on the perceptions of migrant workers employed in the London hotel housekeeping sector and the factors that shape their decisions to stay at or leave their workplaces.

The research combines the simultaneous examination of workers' and their managers' perspectives to identify the factors that may contribute positively or negatively in fostering an engaged and committed workforce by lessening workers' intentions to leave the organisation. The conceptual underpinning of this research is based on a model, explained in Chapter Three, Figure 3.3. At the centre of the model is the psychological wellbeing of workers, where workers are the receivers of the inputs contributed by the management and depending on types and quality of these inputs, they produce desirable or undesirable outputs. Figure 3.3 in Chapter Three explains this. Echoing that notion, the theoretical foundation denotes that higher quality manager-worker relationships and appropriate HR policies can enhance workers' psychological well-being. This, in turn, improves engagement with work and heightened commitment to the organisation, alleviating the turnover intention among workers. Figure 3.4 in Chapter Three elaborates the conceptual model.

The characteristics of hotel housekeeping work that earlier studies have indicated, such as low pay, repetitive work, high job demand, low job control and strict time limitations (detailed discussion follows in Chapter Two), are arguably unpleasant and could dissuade potential workers from joining the sector. However, these are the archetypal factors of hotel housekeeping work that are necessary to maintain service standard and consistency, and economic stability of the business. Could it, therefore, not be wiser to approach the job characteristics that signify hotel housekeeping work pragmatically and explore the ways they are perceived by the workers? This is because by gaining an understanding of the thought processes of the workers, researchers can obtain deeper insights into their perceptions of the work. Moreover, it is possible that workers may not perceive the housekeeping-specific job characteristics as negatively as they appear to people who are not part of this sector. This investigation finds a level of truth in such an assumption.

From the review of the literature, it transpired that employee engagement and commitment are both direct human resource outcomes that influence the eventual outcome- staff turnover. Therefore, to assess staff turnover, one needs to go back to the basics of the employment process, which initiates with two parties, manager (the employer) and employee. Three themes play a critical role in the employment relationship. (i) Workers' personal characteristics, inter alia age, job tenure and kinship responsibilities. (ii) Job-related factors that include income, wage satisfaction, job demand and job resources., (iii) Organisational-level factors, such as managers' relationship with their staff and various Human Resources (HR) policies. In this research, staff turnover in London hotel housekeeping is investigated by probing into employee engagement with work and employee commitment to the organisation, which are further explored by synthesising three different theories to a conceptual model: leader-member exchange (LMX), self-determination theory (SDT) and perceived organisational support (POS). Figure 3.4 in Chapter Three provides visual illustration of the conceptual model.

The literature was contradictory regarding workers characteristics and their engagement and commitment. For instance, some scholars established a significant relationship between one variable of workers characteristics and their engagement or commitment, while others found no association. Sharma, Goel and Sengupta (2017), and Koyuncu Burke and Fiksenbaum (2006) concluded that workers' demographic profile has little, if any, influence on their engagement with work. Meyer and associates (2002) came to a similar conclusion about commitment. Results from the statistical tests reveal that for London hotel housekeeping workers, one demographic criterion that is statistically significant is 'time spent in the UK'. The more time the migrant housekeeping workers spent in the UK the more likely they are to consider leaving the organisation.

For work-related factors, previous UK studies have reported migrant hotel workers frustration with career prospects (Ndiuini and Baum, 2020) and other criteria, such as mistreatment from management, discrimination, work pressure and pay (Janta *et al.*, 2011), that thwart their long-term commitment to the organisation. Not much has been mentioned about the factors that contribute to employee engagement and commitment thereby lessening the turnover intentions of hotel housekeeping workers. This

research has a unique contribution to make in this field of knowledge. The findings demonstrate that the migrant workers employed in the London hotel housekeeping sector prioritise the quality of the manager-worker relationships, the appreciation that they receive from management and how enjoyable the jobs are, over their wage. In the absence of these factors, workers could experience low levels of engagement and have less willingness to commit to the organisation resulting in greater inclination to leave. The distinctive housekeeping work characteristics, as mentioned earlier, did not appear to have any significant influence on their decision to stay at or leave the hotel.

The literature on the management approach in the hospitality industry has highlighted the implementation of hard HRM policies, especially when recruiting migrant workers at lower-ranked positions (Hopkins, Dawson and Veliziotis, 2016; Soltani and Wilkinson, 2010; Forde and MacKenzie, 2009; MacKenzie and Forde, 2009; Holgate, 2005). Correspondingly, hiring workers is influenced by warm body syndrome of the managers (Harrison, 2010; Choi and Dickson, 2009; Simons and Hinkin, 2001; Woods, 1992) whereby they disengage themselves from the process by authorising mediating organisations to recruit staff on their behalf and provide limited training opportunities (Markova *et al.*, 2016; Knox *et al.*, 2015). However, while these are vital findings, why or how these may impact workers unfavourably, especially migrant workers, are not always made obvious. From the extensive assessment of the literature, it was noted that hard HRM is particularly deleterious for migrant workers because they need more support, (social, emotional and career support) to fulfil their basic psychological needs (relatedness, competence and autonomy). Analysing the interview data from the managers, it seems plausible to suggest that hotels in London could benefit by implementing HR policies that encourage work engagement and commitment to the organisation, which may diminish the inclination to leave among the migrant workers in the housekeeping sector.

This research, therefore, has its distinctive standpoint and original contribution to knowledge because it collects data from workers and their managers and collates them to connect employee engagement and commitment with turnover intentions for one specific segment of the labour force, *migrant workers*, in a certain work setting, hotel housekeeping. That said, it is vital to acknowledge the limitations of the research

- This research focuses on one department within the hotel and a particular location, London. Studying workers from one department may have limited the breadth of the research but it also strengthens the investigation as it provides insights into a particular fragment of the labour force that does not ordinarily receive much research attention. Regarding housekeeping work, the core responsibilities are largely analogous all over the world (Vanselow *et al.*, 2010), but the labour market conditions may vary.
- Specific measuring scales, such as Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (UWES) for engagement and Allen and Meyer's (1996) organisational commitment scale for commitment, are not used in this investigation because the research question does not address employee engagement or commitment singularly, rather, it uses both in a model to understand the effects on the employment relationship, more specifically turnover intention. In-depth interview or focus group discussions with the HOS could have accumulated additional information, but were not feasible due to access issues, time restrictions and, most importantly, workers' lack of linguistic ability.
- This research explores the basic HR practices, hiring, socialising, training and rewarding, within the hotel housekeeping sector but it leaves out some other important practices, such as performance evaluation.

This section indicated the scope and the limitations of this research. The following section highlights the aims of the research and the objectives set to facilitate the accomplishment of the aims.

1.1. Research Aims and Objectives

Employee engagement, employee commitment and staff turnover are all well-researched topics but this research combines the topics to create a conceptual model. The model demonstrates that by creating and maintaining a work environment that contributes positively to workers' engagement with work and commitment to the organisation, employers can benefit from numerous advantages of low staff turnover. For example, in the hotel business, low staff turnover would allow the managers more time to concentrate on the quality of work and develop the workers, which translates

to stability, less financial strain and eventually more satisfied customers. It further intends to understand the work relationship, particularly between the managers and staff and the role of human resources management (HRM) policies in the overall employment relationship. On the whole, this investigation intends to provide voice to the segment of the labour force that is rarely heard- migrant workers in hotel housekeeping jobs.

To operationalise the research aims and examine employee engagement and employee commitment in the hotel housekeeping work setting, the following research objectives have to be effectively executed.

- Identify the demographic and work-related factors that contribute to HOS' intention to stay with or leave the organisation.
- Determine the aspects of housekeeping work which are considered important by the HOS.
- Examine the impact of superior or inferior quality manager-worker relationship on HOS' work-related behaviours and attitudes because managers are regarded as the representatives of the organisation.
- Understand managers' perceptions of employee engagement and employee commitment, vital for the investigation to understand the managers' outlooks in real work situations.
- Uncover the influence of organisational-level support by the means of HR practices on workers' levels of engagement, commitment and intention to turnover.
- Understand the hotel housekeeping managers' and workers' overall perception of turnover

The research methods applied to attain the objectives are discussed in the next section.

1.2. Methods Incorporated for the Research

This investigation presents an original analytical and methodological approach in the understanding of employee engagement and employee commitment for migrant workers within the hotel housekeeping context. The theoretical and conceptual examination made it clear that to understand HOS' engagement, commitment and

intention to stay with or leave the organisation, it is necessary to accumulate information from the workers and their managers. However, this was not possible employing one method to gather information from both sources, rather, two separate methods are needed for three reasons. (i) The first research question required analysis of various factors that can only be fulfilled by quantitative methods of data collection and analysis, and the other two questions demanded rich in-depth data, which can be gathered through qualitative methods. (ii) Preliminary research on HOS informed a heavy reliance on migrant workers, which means respondents' language inability could be a barrier for qualitative interviews. (iii) High job demand would also mean that workers would not have time for in-depth interviews.

Taking into account these aspects, it was established that the most appropriate method of data collection from the HOS would be a researcher-administered survey. Because this can be carried out in a short time span (Phillips, 2017), respondents are not required to read and write (Laaksonen, 2018), it generates reliable, accurate and honest answers (Saloniki *et al.*, 2019; Vannette and Krosnick, 2017; Richards, 2016) and item nonresponse error is minimal (Silber and Johnson, 2020). For the managers, semi-structured interview was found to be the most suitable method, because in a semi-structured interview setup it is possible to narrow down the topics and lead the direction of the conversation (Rabionet, 2011) and to elicit individual thoughts with added open-ended probing questions (Adams, 2015).

Random or probability clustered sampling technique is applied to select the hotels. Three selection criteria are set to ensure the participating hotels are somewhat homogeneous and comparable: (i) hotels need to have a star rating of three-and over, (ii) there should be at least 50 guest rooms and (iii) located in London. A total of 57 hotels from various locations of London participated in the research, 21 five-star, 30 four-star and six three-star rated hotels. The data collection phase was greatly challenging, predominantly due to access issues, which could be one of the very reasons for the lack of research on hotel housekeeping workers. This stage spanned nine months, from June 2017 to February 2018. At the end, 106 survey questionnaires were gathered and 53 semi-structured interviews were conducted. The overarching mixed method implemented in this research is 'partially mixed concurrent equal status design' (Leech and Onwuegbuzie, 2009, p. 268).

Quantitative data collected from the HOS through survey questionnaire are used to run statistical tests using SPSS version 24 to analyse whether there are any associations between workers' intention to stay at the hotel and their demographic and work-related factors. Qualitative data gathered from the semi-structured interviews with the housekeeping managers are analysed applying thematic data analysis technique, following a five-step sequence, explained in Chapter Four (Chart 4.5).

1.3. Structure of the Thesis

The thesis is structured into seven chapters. Chapter Two lays out the fundamentals of hotel housekeeping in three sections. The first section presents the core positions in the housekeeping department and briefly details their key day-to-day job responsibilities. The next section highlights some vital characteristics of hotel housekeeping work. The final section indicates some well-known features of the workers employed in hotel housekeeping jobs.

Chapter Three is where the existing literature on employee engagement, employee commitment, turnover intentions, SDT, LMX theory, HR practices is reviewed to establish the connection upon which the research questions are formulated. It is the linking of these separate themes that is used to understand workers' engagement, commitment and turnover intentions. The main conceptual model used in the analysis chapters (five and six) is drawn from the literature exploration in this chapter.

The justifications for the application of mixed methods for the research are described in Chapter Four. It details the steps for data collection along with the challenges encountered and how incorporating random or probability clustered sampling 57 hotels were recruited. The two separate methods used for data analysis are elaborated here too. The chapter delineates my positionality as a researcher and my transition from identifying as an insider to gradually moving to become an outsider. Towards the end of the chapter, research biases and ethical issues are pointed out and the ways they were addressed to ensure compliance with the academic ethical guidelines.

Discussion in Chapter Five is based on the survey data collected from 106 participants, thus quantitative in nature. Various statistical tests are carried out to establish the association, predominantly between HOS' intention to stay at the hotel and other work-related variables. Eight hypotheses are tested by conducting correlation tests to examine the connection between two variables and another hypothesis is tested for the logistic regression model to identify which variables have an impact on HOS' intention to turnover.

Chapter Six is grounded on the data gathered through the semi-structured interviews with 53 hotel housekeeping managers and builds on the conceptual model formulated in Chapter Three. The analysis here is of qualitative nature applying thematic approach. This chapter investigates the HK managers' relationships with their staff, their perceptions of HOS' level of work engagement and commitment and how in some hotels the human resources (HR) practices are positively contributing in the formation of engagement and commitment.

The final chapter echoes the main findings of the investigation and points out the unique context, subject and approach that this research is based on thereby highlighting the original contribution to knowledge. This is followed by a discussion on the limitations of this research and implications of the findings in theoretical perspective as well as in practical working environment. The thesis concludes with scope and suggestions of topics for future researchers based on the limitations of this research.

CHAPTER TWO

Hotel Housekeeping Work and The Workers

This chapter aims to familiarise the reader with the nature of hotel housekeeping work and the people who execute the roles. The data sources used in this chapter are a combination of literature and some information provided by the respondents, which are important in describing the nature of housekeeping work but not necessarily needed to fulfil the main research objectives.

The hospitality industry, a type of service industry (Johnston and Clark, 2008; Barrington and Olsen, 1987), also known as ‘people business’ (Du Plessis, Douangphichit, and Dodd, 2016, p. 1), is one of the rapidly growing sectors (London Loves Business, 2018; Baum, 2002) contributing significantly to the UK economy (Dutton *et al.*, 2008). Hotels take the centre stage of hospitality services and the concept of a *Hotel* can be defined as an ‘establishment offering certain services, principally accommodation and food, and usually on a commercial basis’ (Wood, 1994, p.66). The structure and operation of a hotel can be complex as Guerrier and Adib (2000, p. 690) expressed,

‘A hotel is an institution that is, at the same time, a private space and a public space. It is a domestic space—a home away from home ... a space shared by hosts/ staff and guests who both need their own domestic area and some privacy.’

The core business of a hotel is retailing rooms; thus, it *is* the guestrooms that yield the greatest share of the operating profit (Andrews, 2013; Vanselow *et al.*, 2010; Harris, 2009; Powell and Watson, 2006; Medlik and Ingram, 2000). This revenue-generating unit ‘Housekeeping’ (HK) is the largest department of all and the percentage of workers in this department is much higher than any other (Rosemberg and Li, 2018; Vanselow *et al.*, 2010), thus, considered to be the most important (Batinić, 2015; Andrews, 2013; Sanon, 2013; Harris, Tregidga and Williamson, 2011). Housekeeping department is accountable for ‘the cleanliness, maintenance and aesthetic upkeep of the entire premises, both externally and internally’ (Andrews, 2013, p. XXV), essential for the comfort, hygiene and safety of the hotel guests (Harris, 2009; Powell and Watson, 2006).

The chapter consists of three sections. The first section highlights some of the key positions within the housekeeping department and their job responsibilities. This is important to understand the overall contribution of these individual roles at the macro-

level of the hotel operation. The following section explores some of the key features of hotel housekeeping work, such as skills requirement, the intensity of labour required and the standardisation and repetition of tasks. The final section discusses the type of workers who mainly occupy the entry-level positions in HK. The topics covered in this chapter are important to get a feel for hotel housekeeping work and the workers who do these jobs, which is not directly needed for the research data analysis but is crucial in the overall understanding of hotel housekeeping.

2.1. Hotel Housekeeping Roles and their Responsibilities

HK staff are responsible for the upkeep and aesthetics of the entire property. The core tasks have not evolved much over the years (Harris, 2009) and the work content and work organisation are remarkably analogous across countries (Vanselow *et al.*, 2010). Some key roles are discussed here, although, they vary depending on the size of the hotel. In larger establishments, many layers are inserted between the top and bottom levels. Below are some basic HK role descriptions drawn from the data collected for this research from both HOS surveys and interviews with the managers. The job description is followed by an organogram for easier visualisation.

Room Attendant (RA) position sits at the bottom of the hierarchy. An RA is responsible for cleaning the guestrooms, which is arguably the most physically demanding role within the HK department. The job is rather lonely as the RAs have individual schedule and floor or area to cover (Lundberg and Karlsson, 2011). Responsibilities in each guestroom include making bed or beds for family room, changing the bedsheets and towels, vacuum cleaning the room floor, cleaning or changing the glasses, teacups and saucers, spoons, washing the bathroom floor and cleaning other areas like the toilet, shower cabin, bathtub and sink. They are responsible for replenishing toilet rolls and toiletries in the bathroom (shampoo, bath foam, shower cap, sewing kit, cotton wool kit and so forth), checking and replacing laundry bags in the cupboard, replenishing complimentary tea/coffee and sugar, clearing rubbish and other litters, cleaning and polishing surfaces (work-table, side-table, coffee-table any other shelving unit), mirrors and glass surfaces. They also check all the electronic items in the room (television, alarm clock, music system,

telephone, kettle, coffee maker) are without fault and in working order and finally put all the furniture neatly back to their predetermined places (Lundberg and Karlsson, 2011). The number of rooms to be cleaned and the time allocated for each room depends on factors like star rating, room size and total number of rooms in the hotel. Once all these duties are completed by the RA, a Floor Supervisor then inspects the guest room before allocating it to a guest. The RAs report to the Floor Supervisor.

Evening Room Attendant (ERA) is a more responsible and often a slightly higher paid position because there is no follow-up inspection by a supervisor after an ERA has serviced a room. This position is generally offered to an experienced RA with better English fluency and who is comfortable to interact with guests. This service is called a 'Turn-Down Service' and is typically available to the guests occupying the premium rooms. The responsibilities and purpose of this service typically are described below.

'Turndown service is an especially striking display of labour. Literally folding the corner of the bedding down, of course, serves no useful purpose; the gesture indicates, rather, that an invisible hand has been at work. Other elements of the elaborate turndown service in luxury hotels include switching on lights, turning on the radio, closing drapes, emptying trash baskets, cleaning the bathroom, replacing used towels, arranging the laundry bag and room service menu on the bed, and filling the ice bucket ... evening cookies, a card predicting the following day's weather ... These gestures primarily let the guest know that someone has been labouring on his or her behalf.' (Sherman, 2007, pp. 40-41)

An ERA's shift starts late in the afternoon between three and five and finishes by eleven at night. Workers at this level clean less guestrooms than RAs but reporting level is the same as an RA.

Key Maid (KM) is a new terminology in the housekeeping sphere. This is a more responsible position and frequently paid at a higher scale. The responsibilities of a KM are identical to an RA, but with the added responsibility of inspecting her own rooms after servicing them, hence, they are often called *Self-Checker*. Because of their extra job role, i.e. room inspection, KMs are generally allocated fewer rooms to clean than a typical RA.

Public Area Cleaner (PAC) is regarded as a level up from the RA because it is typically assigned to someone with a relatively better command of English so that they can interact with the guests asking for directions, or about opening or closing times of facilities and restaurants. This role is less physically draining compared to an RA. PACs report to the Floor Supervisor.

Floor Supervisor (FS) is often promoted from an RA and is in charge of delegating rooms to RAs and conducting the final room inspection. They coordinate with Linen Room Supervisor for any related issues, and report and follow up any repair issue with the maintenance department. An FS reports to the Assistant or Deputy Manager. A Floor Supervisor (4-star hotel) described her typical workday to me after the survey

“At 7.30 am I start preparing the room-list, which rooms need to be cleaned and which are stay-overs. The girls (RAs) get the list at 8.30. I then check the guest requests, priorities etc. Around 9.30 I go upstairs to see the girls and tell them which ones are on the priority list. Once a room is cleaned by the RA, I check the room thoroughly according to the hotel standard, the bed is done properly, the toilet is clean, everything is there in the room and nothing is missing, all the electrical items working and there is no fault in the room like a water leak or something. If something small is missing like a pen or a shampoo or if the bed linen not folded right, I don't call the RA back because this wastes a lot of time, rather, I just do it myself. Once I am done checking a room I have to put it in the system as ready so that reception knows that the room is ready for the guests. I supervise 5/6 girls so I have to check about 80 to 90 rooms in a day.”

To explain an FS's duty a Housekeeping Manager (4-star hotel) divulged,

“A lot of people have a wrong perception about supervisors; they think to be a supervisor means you just check rooms. Supervisors don't just check rooms they are leaders as well, they manage their team, motivate them, bond with the team.”

Linen Porter (LP), generally male, is also an entry-level role, reporting to the Linen Room Supervisor. A LP is accountable for receiving delivery of clean linen (bedsheet, pillowcase, towels) and complimentary items provided in the guestrooms, carrying them to the storing units and shelving them appropriately for easier access for the RAs

and presenting the requested items to the guestrooms. The following account of a Linen Porter (5-star hotel) elucidates the job role.

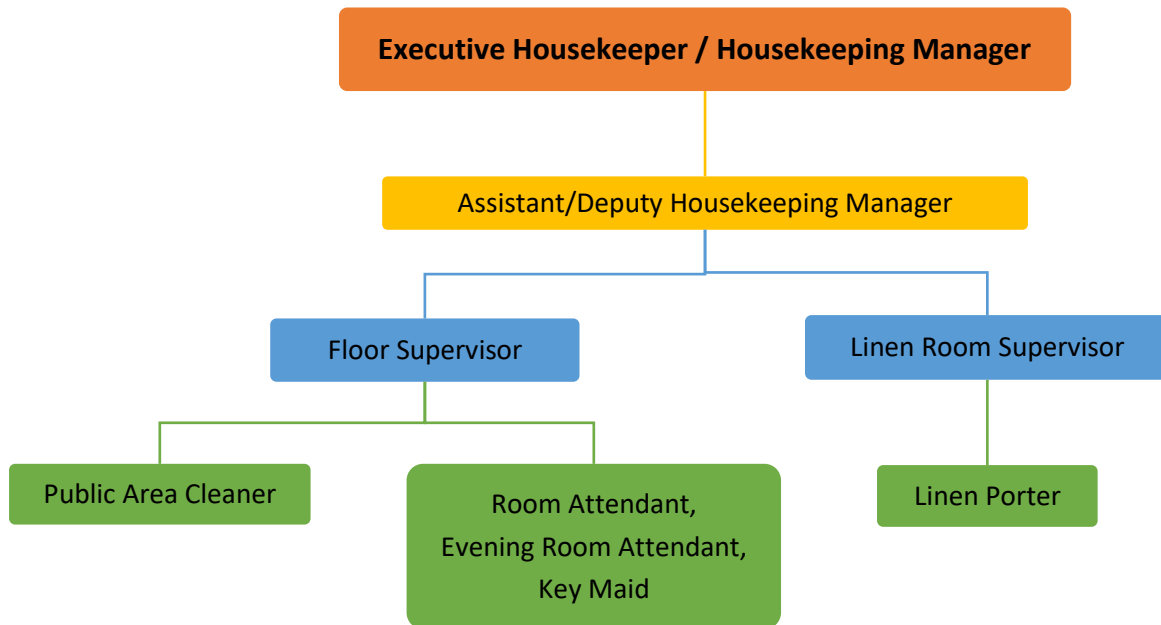
“We take care of the linen storage room. Each floor has one. More than half of the room is filled with towels, bed linens and pillowcases and the rest of the space is filled with the items that go to the rooms such as shampoo, conditioner, cotton buds etc. Every morning we receive linen deliveries from the laundry, which we have to carry to the storerooms. We then check each towel and linen if they are washed properly or not, if they are dirty we need to put them to one side. We need to refill the shelves all day so that the girls (RA) don’t miss anything. We are also responsible for receiving the delivery for the toiletries and other items and refill them the same way. When a guest requests an item that is not provided in the guestroom, for example, slippers or bathrobe, we are the ones to deliver it to the guest room.”

Linen Room Supervisor (LRS) is in charge of assigning duties to all the LPs, monitoring and ordering (if allowed by the management) linen and complimentary items. A LRS reports to the Assistant or Deputy Housekeeping Manager.

Assistant or Deputy Housekeeping Manager (A/DHM) is responsible for managing the supervisors, issues that cannot be resolved need to be reported back to the Manager, preparing rotas and managing holiday entitlements for the staff.

Executive Housekeeper or Housekeeping Manager (HM) typically receives all the day-to-day updates from her or his deputy or assistant. The role leads the department and is accountable for managing major complaints or disputes, planning and budgeting for the department, coordinating with other departmental managers and report to the top-level management.

Chart 2.1: Sample Organogram of Housekeeping Department



Source: Researcher's own design

A HK Manager (4-star hotel) appropriately presented the idea of hotel housekeeping as below.

“Housekeeping is all about presentation. For example, the taps in the bathroom have to be straight; it shows that we care even if they are just small things. When a guest enters the room, it is important that the guest has a good impression. The shoes have to be placed neatly so that when the guest returns to the room, he or she might think, “oh they’ve tidied up my shoes”. Not every guest will notice small things like that, but we have to raise our expectations. My job is to have expectations above the guests’. Some guests can be picky, but if I raise my bar I can escape a lot of complaints.”

The discussion above explained some of the key roles within hotel housekeeping and their core responsibilities. The next section is dedicated to some of the main characteristics of hotel HK roles.

2.2. The Nature of the Hotel Housekeeping Work

Housekeeping workers' quality of work is one of the most pivotal factors in deciding the quality of service provided by the hotel, which directly impacts customer satisfaction and the overall reputation of the organisation (Batinić, 2015). Principally, customer satisfaction and the propensity to revisit are significantly influenced by the standards of accommodation a hotel offers (Powell and Watson, 2006; Lewis and Nightingale, 1991) and among the several influencing factors, cleanliness ranks one of the highest (Lockyer, 2003). This section highlights some of the work characteristics that make HK jobs distinct from many other jobs, even within the same organisation.

Labour Intensive

HK workers need the physical fitness to effectively execute the job responsibilities as housekeeping jobs, particularly room attending, are extremely arduous and require heavy lifting (e.g. moving furniture, change bedding) (Harris, 2009). The workers are required to repetitively lift 100-lb mattresses, vacuum a few miles worth of carpet and push heavily loaded carts, which could have damaging effects on the body (Professional Safety, 2018). As a consequence of such extensive physical labour, HK workers are said to be more prone to occupational injury and ailment in comparison with many other service workers (Parmar and Dalal, 2017; Sarosi, 2017; Sanon, 2013; Eriksson and Li, 2009; Seifert and Messing, 2006; Krause, Scherzer and Rugulies, 2005) and the blame often goes to the designing of these opulent spaces disregarding the related maintenance aspects (Brody, 2017). These cleaning actions also require in-depth understanding of various surfaces along with the most suitable tools or solutions to clean them with to keep the damage level minimal (Andrews, 2013); in addition, the guestrooms need to meet the quality standards of the individual hotel (Hsieh, Apostolopoulos and Sönmez, 2013).

Although, as mentioned earlier, the main duties of housekeeping roles have not altered much over the years (Vanselow *et al.*, 2010; Harris, 2009), some studies have reported gradual increase in the workload over time (Sarosi, 2017; Liladrie, 2010; Vanselow *et al.*, 2010; Eriksson and Li, 2009; Krause, Scherzer and Rugulies, 2005). Hotel star-rating generally translates into additional services, implying extra amenities provided in the guest rooms, such as broader array of personal care items, coffee makers,

multimedia system, thicker mattress and extra pillows, all of which have a direct impact on HK workload 'because each of these features and complimentary items requires attention and maintenance' (Vanselow *et al.*, 2010, p.276).

Time Restriction with Little Room for Error

There are two further aspects that come with the physical labour. The first is the strict time restriction (Savolainen, 2019; Sanon, 2013; Krause, Scherzer and Rugulies, 2005; Ryan, 1998). Some claim that workers in such jobs try creativity to counter the time burden exceeding their actual labour cost (Kensbock *et al.*, 2016). This sort of work intensification is claimed to resemble 'the characteristics of sweatshop work' (Aguiar and Herod, 2006, p.2). The other is the meticulous attention to details, because once the guest has entered the room the RA cannot 'correct any imperfections' (Harris, Tregidga and Williamson, 2011, p.60). This is because of the indivisible nature of service production and consumption, providing little or no leeway to amendment without discommoding the guests (Lewis and McCann, 2004).

Standardised and Repetitive Tasks

Housekeeping work is repetitive in nature (Parmar and Dalal, 2017; Kensbock *et al.*, 2016; Oxenbridge and Moensted, 2011; Vanselow *et al.*, 2010; Harris, 2009) with tasks being standardised and routinized, which are deemed necessary for the smooth functioning and maintaining the standard of service consistency of a hotel (Vanselow *et al.*, 2010), in addition to saving time and money (Harris, 2009). It is usual for hotels to compile a task sequence manual on how to clean a room, for instance, one of the renowned chain hotels has a 66-step manual on how to clean a guestroom in under 30 minutes (Touryalai, 2018), also known as Standard Operation Procedure (SOP). This act of standardisation and routinisation of tasks means that the workers lose job autonomy or job control (Sanon, 2013; Oxenbridge and Moensted, 2011; Harris, Tregidga and Williamson, 2011), where they are only allowed to execute tasks in accordance with the SOP.

Tasks Performed Unseen

HK errands are made unseen, scheduled around the admission and departure arrangements of the guests in an attempt to armour the consumer of the service from the discomfort of being attended (Harris, Tregidga and Williamson, 2011; Vanselow *et*

al., 2010). Making HK work invisible was done purposefully since the beginning of the hotel industry in the 19th century, thus, to the hotel guests, housekeeping workers' endeavours to maintain such lavish spaces often appear effortless (Brody, 2017). Savolainen (2019, p. 116) simplified this phenomenon

'The objects inside a hotel room produce a standard that makes the space look as if there hasn't been a person before the guest. The bedding is always the same, curtains must be drawn to the edge of the window, etc. The relations between different objects are standardised, which ideally makes all the rooms look the same. This way, the signs of the housekeeping work are eradicated, since there is no personal touch in the room.'

Forlorn Work with Increased Risk

Room-attending work is performed by one person in a confined area, typically a guestroom, which means it is essentially a one-person or solo job (Sarosi, 2017; Vanselow *et al.*, 2010). This freedom to work by oneself is perceived by some as autonomy, despite the strict SOPs in place (Vanselow *et al.*, 2010), while others find it isolating (Sanon, 2013) with little or no direct interaction with others which does not suit everyone's personality (Vanselow *et al.*, 2010). That said, it is not always guaranteed that the guestrooms would be unoccupied, because at times guests may decide to let the RA service the room in their presence (Boon, 2007). This is when the risk of lone-working heightens as a couple of studies have pointed out that the isolation and confinement expose the RAs to sexual harassment (Nimri *et al.*, 2020; Sarosi, 2017; Kensbock *et al.*, 2015; Oliveira and Ambrósio, 2013; Boon, 2007; Guerrier and Adib, 2000), because HOS' work 'involves crossing into the guest's domestic space' (Guerrier and Adib, 2000, p.693). This risk amplifies for evening RAs providing 'Turn-Down' services (Nimri *et al.*, 2020).

Dignity Deficient

Hotel work in general carries the stigma of being personal servitude (Ashforth and Kreiner, 1999) and housekeeping work in particular, instead of being eulogised for the workers' diligence, has been stigmatised as being servile (Harris, Tregidga and Williamson, 2011; Harris, 2009; Powell and Watson, 2006), threatening workers' dignity (Winchenbach, Hanna and Miller, 2019). Hughes (1971) expressed that cleaning someone else's personal space is 'dirty work' (p.343); however, traces of

some sort of dirty work can be found in all professions that can potentially degrade or hurt the individual's dignity. This is because every occupation carries a self-conception implying a notion of personal dignity which may transpire to a feeling of 'infra dignitate' (Hughes, 1971, p.343). Despite the associated stigma and the lack of dignity in hotel HK work, there are indications that workers strive to attain positive meaning (Ashforth and Kreiner, 1999), RAs especially recoup their dignity and self-esteem from the pride they experience from their meaningful contribution to the overall business (Kensbock *et al.*, 2016).

Mary E Palmer the author of the book 'Guide to Hotel Housekeeping' published in the early 1900s included painstaking details of HK chores and used the term 'profession'. In one section she stated,

'Hotel housekeeping is a science. The crowning excellence, as all acknowledge, lies in giving strict attention to small things. Successful hotel-keeping is an artistic achievement in which everything is in its right place, is of the proper grade, shade, quality, and cleanliness, harmonizing in every particular' (Palmer, 1908, p. 35).

2.3. The Workers in Hotel Housekeeping Jobs

In the hotel business, the labour force devours a sizeable proportion of the total cost of providing the services and management often perceives this as a variable cost which can be fine-tuned as and when necessary (Mehrez, Israeli and Hadad, 2000). The workers, especially at the bottom level, thus, are frequently managed not dissimilarly to sourcing raw materials and equipment, i.e. workers are hired as economically as possible (Soltani, 2010; Soltani and Wilkinson, 2010) and considered an effortlessly substitutable resource (Powell and Watson, 2006; Wood, 1992) even though the HK service cannot benefit from automation because the tasks need to be executed on-site by human beings (Vanselow *et al.*, 2010; Lai, Soltani and Baum, 2008). There are a few features of the hotel housekeeping workers that often segregate them from the general workforce in other similarly ranked jobs, which are discussed in this section.

Women

Hotel work is purported to be 'women's work, in the sense that it involves activities that in the domestic setting are traditionally carried out by women: cleaning and looking after the home, preparing and serving meals' (Guerrier and Adib, 2000, p. 691). For HK jobs, gender seems to be 'a fixed identity – a female body' (Harris, Tregidga and Williamson, 2011, p. 50). These jobs are frequently regarded as 'women's work' (Vanselow *et al.*, 2010, p.301) or 'female occupation' (Guerrier and Adib, 2000, p. 691), that demand domestic skills presuming hotel as 'an extension of the home' (Andrews, 2013. P. xxviii) and perceive women as intrinsically skilled in them (Adib and Guerrier, 2003; Kinnaird, Kothari and Hall, 1994). This is because societal norms expect housekeeping work to be a paid form of women's domestic work, often performed free of charge at home, thus, not held as skilled labour (Sarosi, 2017) even though the work is complex, demanding and necessitates effective organisation of the workload (Batinić, 2015).

'Chambermaid' or 'Maid' was the customary term used to refer to the people who clean hotel guestrooms (Sarosi, 2017; Kensbock, *et al.*, 2014), but has recently been replaced by 'Room Attendant'. The previous job title has been a controversial topic that appeared in numerous discussions regarding themes like social hierarchy, sexist job, devaluation of women's work and many more (Kensbock, *et al.*, 2014; Onsøyen, Myukletun and Steiro, 2009; Eichler and Burke, 2006; Sarti, 2006; Bosmajian, 1972). According to the Cambridge Dictionary, the meaning of the word Chambermaid is 'a woman employed in a hotel to clean and tidy bedrooms' and Maid is 'a woman who works as a servant in a hotel or in someone's home'. Both are very similarly gendered. An article published in the late 1800s states, 'chambermaids are young persons of the female gender who are paid sums of money to make your bed comfortable for you to sleep in' (A Little Essay on Chambermaids, 1878). There are two points of note here. One, the existence of this type of work in the society can be traced back as early as the 1800s. Two, historically these jobs were taken up by the younger female population, which may not have changed much as numerous studies have indicated the predominance of women in hotel jobs (Kensbock *et al.*, 2016; Sanon, 2013; Liladrie, 2010; Vanselow *et al.*, 2010; Harris, 2009; Hunter Powell and Watson, 2006; Krause, Scherzer, Rugulies 2005; Ryan, 1998).

Migrant Workers

The British hospitality sector relies heavily on workers from the European countries and London is said to be the most reliant on EU nationals (KPMG, 2017; Powell and Watson, 2006). This particularly became the case after the accession of A10 migration to the UK, A8 in 2004 and A2 in 2007, when there was a rapid influx of migrant workers, mainly in London and around one third of the total were employed in the hospitality industry (Vargas-Silva and Markaki, 2017; Gilpin, *et al.*, 2006). Hotel housekeeping positions are dominated by migrant workers (Duncan, Scott and Baum, 2013; Ladkin, 2011; Baum *et al.*, 2007) and almost 37% are Europeans (Rumney, 2017). One of the common reasons for this was stated by a hotel management participant in a similar study, 'migrant women are more willing to put up with arduous working conditions' (Vanselow *et al.*, 2010, p. 279). Another added that migrant workers' work attitude, such as commitment, dedication, reliability, punctuality and acceptance to undertake tasks that are perceived by native workers as beneath them, make them more suitable workers (Yu, 2016; Lyon and Sulcova, 2009; Piore, 1979).

Scholars claim that to mitigate labour shortage of the ever-growing hospitality sector, it is necessary to a certain degree to hire migrant workers (Kim, Choi and Li, 2016; Janta *et al.*, 2011; Choi, Woods and Murrmann, 2000). Labour migration in the developed economies, like the UK, is common because it offers higher earning prospects, well-established social security measures, better-quality social welfare standards and better overall quality of life (Filimonau and Mika, 2019). Nevertheless, when people migrate, they are frequently faced with language barrier and devaluation of educational qualifications in the host countries, hence they tend to occupy jobs that are unappealing to the local labour force like the jobs in hotel housekeeping, but, to them, these jobs fulfil their 'desire for a better life' (Alberti, Holgate and Tapia, 2013, p. 4132).

Recruiting Housekeeping Workers

Studies have presented anecdotal evidence suggesting that employers are recruiting migrant workers from A10 countries 'via alternate channels and are no longer placing their vacancies with Jobcentre Plus' (Gilpin, *et al.* 2006, p.29). Similarly, the Office for National Statistics (2009) also reported that workers from the aforesaid countries are more likely to access work in the UK through recruitment agencies. Later many other

studies claimed that recruiters are hiring migrant workers through unconventional methods (Alberti and Danaj, 2017; Samaluk, 2016; Alberti, 2014; Sporton, 2013; Janta *et al.*, 2011; Fitzgerald and Hardy, 2010; Lucas and Mansfield, 2010; Lai, Soltani and Baum, 2008; Currie, 2008; White and Ryan, 2008; McDowell, Batnitzky and Dyer, 2007; Dench *et al.*, 2006). Research on migrant workers in the UK has claimed that job seekers frequently use staffing agencies to organise their migration (Janta, 2011; Currie, 2008; White and Ryan, 2008) because they perceive the agencies to be credible entities that can provide a channelled route to the labour market (Samaluk, 2016; Currie, 2008). Employers utilise another method of hiring HK workers, from within the community: word-of-mouth, referral or existing workers' social network (Markova *et al.*, 2016).

Hired Requiring Minimal Skillset at Low Wage Level

One common terminology used to describe housekeeping work is low or unskilled job (Harris, Tregidga and Williamson, 2011; Vanselow *et al.*, 2010; Eriksson and Li, 2009; Powell and Watson, 2006; Ryan, 1998; Wood, 1994), therefore, the skill requirement for these migrant workers is often nominal. Literature has also pointed out that HK work requires skill is 'often spurned by their fellow employees' (Wood, 1992, p. 78, cited in Harris, Tregidga and Williamson, 2011, p. 51). Some responses of HK incumbents from a UK based study stated, 'you don't need skills to dust or Hoover', it is 'common sense and basic housework what you would do at home ... most people know how to make a bed and clean toilets' (Vanselow *et al.*, 2010, p. 279). Andrews (2013), however, argued that comparing hotel housekeeping work to general domestic cleaning is not justifiable. He further added, when numerous guestrooms and enormous communal area are added to the equation of cleaning, the domestic cleaning is multiplied into commercial proportions, therefore, the 'task becomes gigantic and more complex' (p. xxv) which requires well-organised approaches and technical understanding by the workers to cope with the volume of work. Besides, as the skill requirement for hotel housekeeping workers is minimal, these workers are typically hired at low or minimum wage level (Rosemberg and Li, 2018; Knox *et al.*, 2015; Harris, Tregidga and Williamson, 2011; Vanselow *et al.*, 2010; Eriksson and Li, 2009; Harris, 2009; Kandasamy and Ancheri, 2009; Powell and Watson, 2006)

2.4. Summary

Housekeeping is not only the largest department but also has the greatest responsibility in the operation of the business because unless a hotel has clean guestrooms to sell, it cannot survive as an entity. Moreover, cleanliness is one of the core factors influencing guests' satisfaction and return. A Housekeeping Manager, 5-star hotel) rightly exclaimed,

“You can have a hotel without a restaurant or a bar, but you cannot have a hotel without guestrooms.”

Hotel HK work requires great physical capabilities with standardised operation processes for individual tasks introduced to save time and more importantly, maintain the consistency in the standard of service provided by each hotel. A RA's job responsibility is to service multiple guestrooms, the work is therefore repetitive by nature and performed solo, typically unseen scheduled to avoid confronting guests with strict time limitations. HK workers' duties have remained largely unchanged but the workers have experienced a gradual increase in their workload.

HK jobs are mainly occupied by women, often by migrant workers, who are sourced by recruitment agencies or utilising existing workers' social network. These workers who perform arguably the most challenging work within a hotel, are stereotyped as low-skilled or unskilled workers, even though there is a need to use a complex variation of skills as many scholars have argued. Their work has also been branded as servile, hence, lacking dignity and deliberately avoided by the local labour force. Workers, however, combat such stereotype by taking pride in their endeavours that play a significant role in the daily operations of the business and the success of the entity.

This chapter was designed to familiarise the reader with the hotel housekeeping department, the work involved and the workers who deliver that work. The next chapter explores relevant literature to formulate the research questions that will fill an existing gap by finding the answers.

CHAPTER THREE

The Review of the Literature

High employee turnover is a well-established fact within the hospitality industry worldwide (Musgrave, 2020; Dwesini, 2019; Markova *et al.*, 2016; Davidson, Timo and Wang, 2010; Wright and Pollert, 2006; Simons and Hinkin, 2001; Hinkin and Tracey, 2000; Deery and Iverson, 1996) and the UK is no different. The average employee turnover in the UK is approximately 15% (Wortley, 2018) while the hospitality industry stands at 30% (Muller-Heyndyk, 2018). A report claims, 'high staff turnover in the hospitality industry has resulted in a productivity crisis costing the sector £272m per year' (Witts, 2015). Staff turnover in the UK hospitality industry was made worse by Brexit because it caused a dramatic drop in the EU worker migration to the UK, which is said to be the lowest in almost a decade (Partington, 2019), with people even returning to their home countries (Dearden, 2019) broadly because of uncertainty about the future. The KPMG (2017) report predicted that this shortage of staff would have a cumulative impact on the UK's ever-growing hospitality industry. The report further testified that official statistics of hotel sector turnover are unavailable due to organisations' reluctance to collect the information needed to analyse and report turnover systematically. As a result, no data on turnover rate for hotel housekeeping workers in the UK were found.

Labour turnover is typically the voluntary departure of employees from an organisation (Ayodele, Chang-Richards and González, 2020), also defined as 'the movement of people into and out of employment within an organisation' (Denvir and McMahon, 1992, p. 143). Some scholars argue that organisations could profit from a lower level of turnover as it momentarily reduces direct labour expenses and generates new ideas (De Winne *et al.*, 2019). In contrast, high labour turnover comes with numerous disadvantages and operational disruptions (De Winne *et al.*, 2019), for instance it has financial costs (Collins and Smith, 2006), emotional costs for the rest of the staff (DiPietro and Pizam, 2008), generates knowledge depreciation (Argote, 2012) and radically diminishes the service quality (Davidson, Timo and Wang, 2010; Iverson and Deery, 1997). Most importantly, intention to turnover is the strongest predictor of actual turnover (Paul and Kee, 2020; Lambert, Lynne Hogan and Barton, 2001).

Despite the awareness of the negative impacts of voluntary staff turnover on the organisation, there exists a gap in research specifically addressing the issue of staff turnover in hotel housekeeping in the UK in recent years. Studies have mentioned the

exceptionally high turnover within the hotel sector but not necessarily investigated it for hotel housekeeping workers. Elsewhere in the world some research has been examined turnover intentions of hotel housekeeping staff. A few examples are, Grobelna and Tokarz-Kocik (2017) analysed HK job characteristics as a predictor of turnover in Poland, Tepavčević, Obralić and Milojica (2020) studied work-life balance and turnover intention in Serbia, Arachchi and Dahanayake, (2020) investigated the impact of human resource practices on turnover intention in Sri Lanka. This research, therefore, aims to fill this gap to analyse staff turnover within the context of hotel housekeeping.

Some scholars state, 'staying or quitting is a *worker* behaviour' (Rothausen *et al.*, 2017, p. 2359) and hotel managers often regard staff turnover as inescapable and beyond their control (Davidson, Timo and Wang, 2010; Lashley, 2001; Wood, 1992; Mok and Finley, 1986; Johnson, 1985). Meanwhile many other businesses often adopt certain policies and techniques to create work environments that encourage workers to stay for a considerable period, known as employee retention strategy (Das and Baruah, 2013; Kyndt *et al.*, 2009). The process of retaining workers begins with effective recruitment process and is sustained by fostering a work environment that fulfils workers' extrinsic and intrinsic needs (Hannay and Northam, 2000). It has been proven that organisational performance can improve tremendously by reducing the rate of employee turnover (Hausknecht and Trevor, 2011; Wang Lawler and Zhang, 2011; Huselid, 1995). I, therefore, propose that by understanding certain human resources outcomes, such as employee engagement and employee commitment, organisations could attain a desirable work environment and minimise 'dysfunctional turnover', which occurs when the best performers leave, while the least performing workers remain (Hannay and Northam, 2000, p. 65).

Another crucial feature of the hospitality industry, which needs mentioning before delving any further, is its heavy reliance on migrant workers (Ndiuini, 2019; Markova *et al.*, 2016; Duncan, Scott and Baum, 2013; Paraskevopoulou *et al.*, 2012; Janta *et al.*, 2011; Ladkin, 2011; Baum *et al.*, 2007). Thus, it is necessary to understand what is meant by the term 'migrant worker'. Labour migration is one of the most critical forms of migration processes (Schrover, 2017), although, definitions of migrant workers are scarce (Schrover, 2017; Simon *et al.*, 2015). Intellectuals in the field often divide

migrant workers into subgroups mostly depending on their motivations. Schrover (2017) proposed two types of migration based on motivation, *primary*- to seek safety, and *secondary*- to seek employment, but agreed that individuals with different preferences use the same networks and routes. In Choe-Smith's (2019) version, economic migrants are people who cross borders to seek mainly economic opportunities or escape poverty or other political turmoil stemming from a variety of different factors, and the majority of such migrants are 'subsistence migrants' (p.180). Simon and associates (2015) mentioned that migrants can be segregated by their motivation, legal status, employment status, temporary or permanent nature of residency status, and highlighted that some may have legal residency along with work permits, while others may have either one or none. Parutis (2014) emphasised that literature often divides migrant workers by their skill levels, high and low, with no explicit explanation of what constitutes a high or low-skilled migrant worker.

There might be various categorisation of migrant workers but a common agreement seems to surface among scholars that the economic vulnerability often triggered by the dearth of decent local work is the fundamental cause that compels people to migrate (Piper and Withers, 2018; Piper, Rosewarne, and Withers 2017; Andrijasevic and Sacchetto, 2016; Howe and Owens, 2016). Acknowledging the lack of universally recognised definition for the term 'labour migration', the International Organisation for Migration (IOM) defines a migrant worker as 'a person who moves away from his or her place of usual residence, whether within a country or across an international border, temporarily or permanently, and for a variety of reasons'. There is an indication in the literature that, in the long run, temporary migrants settle in the host country permanently, which alters their values and expectations (Parutis, 2014; Lees, 1981), but, at what point in time this transition happens, if ever, and their 'migrant worker' status ends or changes is unclear.

Scholars in this arena have put forward various arguments. Some addressed the underlying issues, for instance, ethnic or racial discrimination (see Holgate, 2005), how migrant workers benefit economically (see MacKenzie and Forde, 2009) and subjective factors in the mobility decision (see Andrijasevic and Sacchetto, 2016), but the need to provide a working definition is often overlooked. It is beyond the objective of this research to establish a definition, but the working term to be is 'migrant workers',

who most probably will fall under the general *economic migrant* category with two different motives, but with the same end goal of a better life. i) There could be people who have arrived in the UK for a better career and prosperity and are working in HK while they pursue an educational or vocational degree or simply improve their language fluency. ii) There could also be people who are genuinely subsistence migrants fleeing threatening circumstances in their home countries and may not intend to accumulate skills to progress. Either way, at the time of the investigation, they were employed at a lower level of the hierarchy in hotel housekeeping, implying their future goals are yet to be materialised, hence the categorisation of economic migrant.

The main focus of this research is to understand the factors that influence employee engagement and employee commitment and to make sense of such human resources outcome, it is vital to understand first how the employment process is instigated and evolves. Keeley (1988) proposed to regard organisations as social contracts, and the contract between the employee and the employer is not a one-off contract, but one that is subject to continuous development. He further added that organisations are not persons so they do not have goals, but the participants may have set goals for the organisation and are able to take actions to achieve them. There are three important points to be noted from what Keeley proclaimed that summarise the employment relationship, defined as the relationships that workers build with the organisation and its members (Bentein and Guerrero, 2008). One, organisations need *people* or *human resources* to exist (O'Donovan, 2019) because it is them who transform a lifeless organisation to a dynamic entity with goals and objectives. Two, there is a form of exchange relationship between the employer and employee. The concept of social exchange, also known as social exchange theory (SET), was initially proposed by Blau (1964). He said, 'social exchange is a central principle of social life, which is derived from primitive terms and from which complex social forces are derived' (Blau, 2017, p. xxiii). In organisational settings, SET is a vital framework for exploring the employment relationship, especially from the individual level (Bentein and Guerrero, 2008) and this exchange relationship plays the central role in the understanding of organisational harmony and efficiency (Jepsen and Rodwell, 2010). Three, the relationship needs continuous attention and nurturing.

The social relationship that makes the existence of an organisation possible does not transpire by itself- it is managed by people too. Mintzberg (1989, p. 7) said, 'when we think of organisation we think of management' and it is the management that

'distinguishes a formal organisation from a random collection of people- a mob, an informal group- is the presence of some system of authority and administration, personified by one manager or several in a hierarchy to knit the whole effort together' (Mintzberg, 1989, p.7).

Therefore, 'the process of management does not take place in a vacuum but within the context of organisational setting' (Mullins, 2001, p. 16) and it is the managers who are the representatives and acting bodies of the organisations (Metz *et al.*, 2017). Some theorists have gone as far as labelling a manager as 'the dynamic, life-giving element in every business. Without his leadership "the resources of production" remain resources and never become production' (Drucker, 2012, p. 3). At a later stage Mintzberg (2013, p.11) wrote, 'the manager has to help bring out the best in other people, so that they can know better, decide better, and act better', which puts further emphasis on the role of a manager. So, the question here is, what role does a manager play in the employment relationship?

A manager's role is claimed to be vital in attracting the right human resources and the job responsibility does not contain at that hiring stage only, it stretches to developing and retaining the workers too (Metz *et al.*, 2017; Kidd and Smewing, 2001; Graen *et al.*, 1977). This is because 'the incentives that attract people to organisation are not the same as those that sustain technical excellence in performance and different still are those motives that underlie spontaneous gestures of cooperation among participants' (Farh, Podsakoff and Organ, 1990 p.705). Managers or supervisors interact with workers on a regular basis and are said to serve as bridges, sandwiched between the organisation and its workers (Farh, Podsakoff and Organ, 1990). They are officially accountable for superintending the performance of the subordinates and deciding who merits rewards (Panaccio and Vandenberghe, 2011; Shanock and Eisenberger, 2006). For its workers, an organisation offers far more than just a job contract, it is a place where 'individuals experience and often commit themselves to a distinct way of life complete with its own rhythms, rewards, relationships, demands, and potentials' (Van Maanen and Schein, 1977, p. 1).

Besides, it is the manager that a worker establishes the psychological contract (PC) with (Metz *et al.*, 2017). PC is defined as 'individual beliefs, shaped by the organisation, regarding terms of an exchange agreement between individuals and their organisation' (Rousseau, 1995, p.9). It is an inherently perceptual (Epitropaki, 2013) and unilateral (Rousseau, 1989) reciprocal exchange agreement (Robinson, 1996). The exchange relationship, the core facet of the PC, is similar to that of social exchange theory (SET) (Ahmad and Zafar, 2018; De Cuyper *et al.*, 2008). PC is often referred to as the unwritten expectations that arise between workers and their managers (Schein, 1980), which is vital in the understanding of the employment relationship and its progress over time (Cassar and Briner, 2011). PC is also a key factor in a manager's choice of leadership style because it guides what is asked of people, how they are being controlled, organised and rewarded (Handy, 1999). Along these lines, Meyer and Allen (1997) suggested that relationships within an organisation are forever changing, so, by understanding the development process of employee commitment and how this shapes worker attitudes and behaviours, organisations can better position themselves to manage workers more effectively.

Scholars believe that employment relationships are based on social exchange theory (Jepsen and Rodwell, 2010; Bentein and Guerrero, 2008; Blau, 1964) and that managers play a pivotal role in the employment process (Metz *et al.*, 2017; Mintzberg, 2013; Drucker, 2012; Mintzberg, 1989). The proverb 'as you sow, so shall you reap' seems to hold true, indicating that the organisation's inputs are generally reciprocated by the workers as outputs. With this knowledge, the exploration of literature continues to uncover the inputs in the way of factors that can help shape employee engagement and employee commitment, which may help organisations to lessen staff turnover.

This chapter reviews the existing literature with a focus on engagement, commitment and turnover intentions. The chapter consists of six sections. The first section explains the approach to the research. The following two sections provide conceptual definition for employee engagement and employee commitment respectively. The fourth section compares engagement and commitment in terms of similarities and dissimilarities. The fifth section explores the factors that contribute positively and/ or negatively in the formation of engagement and commitment and consists of three sub-sections. The first sub-section of contributing factors discusses workers' characteristics, such as

age, gender, tenure and kinship responsibilities, the next sub-section explores the job-related factors, for instance extrinsic and intrinsic aspects of the job, and the last sub-section explores the factors that are linked to line management. The final section of the chapter covers the research direction and presents the research questions.

3.1. Approach to the Research

The study of employee engagement has two spheres. One is the views of the academics and the other is the viewpoints of the practitioners (Zigarmi *et al.*, 2009). The two approaches differ in the purpose each is used for and the expected outcome (Wefald and Downey, 2009; Macey and Schneider, 2008). The academic perspective concentrates on defining the concept itself and endorsing the psychological element with a micro-level emphasis (Wefald and Downey, 2009) to gain a deeper understanding of the antecedents that encourage the development of employee engagement (Shuck, 2011). The practitioner perspective regard engagement as a workforce strategy (Truss *et al.*, 2014) where the main focus is the usability of the idea and its practical results that inform macro or organisational-level practices, for instance, enhanced level of commitment, productivity and finally higher level of retention (Wefald and Downey, 2009). Practices, as Cook and Brown (1999) delineate them, essentially are deeds informed by meanings, often held in common by the group and grounded in specific settings. Some studies have pointed out that not only there are disparities between the two approaches, but they are quite a distance apart on the actual concept of engagement (Zigarmi *et al.*, 2009) and the gap keeps widening (Nenonen *et al.*, 2017; Smith, 2006; Torraco, 2005).

Unsurprisingly, the studies on employee commitment have ventured along the same route as engagement. Shepherd and Mathews' (2000) study pointed out that research in commitment is lacking in terms of compatibility of the two views so their research embarked on this topic. The study captured survey responses from 300 UK HRM managers and found that although the practitioners recognise the benefits of committed employees, there is 'clear disparity between the way academics and practitioners conceptualise and measure it' (Shepherd and Mathews, 2000, p.555).

'This gap in understanding represents a void in practice' (Wollard and Shuck, 2011, p. 430).

Truss and associates (2014) proclaimed that many practitioners find academic foundations alien because scholars often debate the theoretical underpinning without reference to the concerns and dilemmas of practitioners and practitioners rarely have access to the philosophy and insights of the academic world. Hence, theorising processes often neglect the practical usefulness of the theories (Corley and Gioia, 2011). In a similar vein, 'many practitioner oriented perspectives focus on providing clients a level of face validity for their chosen method or intervention and are often proprietary in nature, off-limits for scholarly use' (Shuck, 2011, p. 305).

This research intends to explore the commercial domain to learn about the practical side of employee engagement and employee commitment, which may help to fill the void to a certain extent. Because, as Corley and Gioia, (2011) duly stated that merely possessing extensive knowledge has little contribution if that wealth of knowledge is not executed in organisational practice. Cook and Brown (1999, p.381) emphasised that 'knowledge is a tool of knowing, that knowing is an aspect of our interaction with the social and physical world, and that the interplay of knowledge and knowing can generate new knowledge and new ways of knowing'. It is, therefore, not the objective of this research to define and develop the concepts theoretically as a purely academic approach would. Rather, this research focuses on employee engagement and employee commitment in practice with the help of empirical and other primary data collected from London's hotel housekeeping sector. However, without the theoretical knowledge of the concepts of, *employee engagement* and *employee commitment*, the journey cannot begin. The following section explores how social scientists define these concepts.

3.2. Conceptualising Employee Engagement

Studies have reported an array of benefits that engaged workers bring to the organisations. Engaged workers are likely to embark on non-traditional routes and search for alternate means to solve work-related issues (Macey and Schneider, 2008).

Some studies have established a positive relationship between engagement and job performance (Yalabik *et al.*, 2013) and task performance (Steele *et al.* 2012; Yeh, 2012; Christian, Garza and Slaughter, 2011; Leung *et al.* 2011). Engaged workers experience positive emotions (Bindl and Parker, 2010), such as joy, contentment, inspiration, enthusiasm and challenge (Eldor and Harpaz, 2016). Positive emotions like these could augment one's openness to experience new things which lead to outgoing and adaptive behaviours (Fredrickson and Branigan, 2005; Cropanzano and Wright, 2001), which also contribute to other desirable behaviours like proactivity, knowledge sharing and active initiation to attain organisational goals (Shirom, 2010; Grant and Ashford, 2008; Frese and Fay, 2001). Engaged employees could even partake in job crafting, defined as 'changing the number, scope or type of job tasks done at work. By choosing to do fewer, more or different tasks than prescribed in the formal job, employees create a different job' (Wrzesniewski and Dutton, 2001, p. 185). Overall, engagement intensifies the breadth of tasks and actions that workers consider as a part of their roles which enable organisations to gain competitive advantage through people which is difficult for competitors to emulate easily (Eldor and Harpaz, 2016; Macey and Schneider, 2008). Studies have positively related engagement with profitability and productivity (Harter, Schmidt and Hayes, 2002), satisfaction and loyalty among customers (Salanova, Agut, and Peiró, 2005).

It may appear that the construct of employee engagement provides a dual promise of enriching individual well-being and the overall organisational performance (Barik, and Kochar, 2017; Eldor and Harpaz, 2016; Christian, Garza and Slaughter, 2011; Bakker and Schaufeli, 2008; Harter, Schmidt and Hayes, 2002). Now the crucial question is how is employee engagement defined?

Kahn's (1990) work on personal engagement at work is considered one of the best conceptual frameworks on employee engagement (Bailey *et al.*, 2017; Eldor and Harpaz, 2016; Kose, 2016; Truss *et.al*, 2014; Craig and Silverstone 2010). Kahn defined personal engagement as 'the harnessing of organisation members' selves to their work roles; in engagement, people employ and express themselves physically, cognitively, and emotionally during role performances' (1990, p. 694). To him, engagement stands for 'people's psychological presence' or 'self-in-role' during the

performance of an organisational role (Kahn, 1990, p. 717). Many other definitions of engagement followed Kahn.

Schaufeli, (2018) and Schaufeli *et al.* (2002) defined employee engagement as a positive, fulfilling work-related psychological state delineated by vigour, dedication and absorption. Here *vigour* represents a high level of energy and the readiness to invest the energy in work, *dedication* refers to a deep involvement and a feeling of enthusiasm, inspiration, challenge, pride and significance, and *absorption* means full concentration in the work, to the point where an individual experiences the passing of time as rapid and finds it difficult to detach from the work. The authors further added that engagement is 'a more persistent and pervasive affective-cognitive state that is not focused on any particular object, event, individual, or behaviour' (p. 74). Erickson (2005, p. 14, cited in Macey and Schneider, 2008, p.7) expressed,

'Engagement is above and beyond simple satisfaction with the employment arrangement or basic loyalty to the employer- characteristics that most companies have measured for many years. Engagement, in contrast, is about passion and commitment- the willingness to invest oneself and expend one's discretionary effort to help the employer succeed'

Saks (2006, p. 602) defined engagement as 'a distinct and unique construct consisting of cognitive, emotional and behavioural components that are associated with individual role performance'. In a similar vein, Shuck and Wollard (2010) presented their definition as workers' cognitive, emotional and behavioural state that is focused on achieving desired outcome. Yalabik *et al's* (2013, p.2801), definition was concise yet touched all the aspects, as they proposed 'work engagement as an independent, persistent, pervasive, positive and fulfilling work-related affective-cognitive and motivational-psychological state'.

Common to the definitions as Macey and Schneider (2008) pointed out is the idea that employee engagement is desirable, benefits the organisation and has both behavioural and attitudinal elements because it connotes commitment, focused energy, involvement and enthusiasm. Some theorists have suggested that employee engagement is a personal decision (Barik, and Kochar, 2017; Macey and Schneider, 2008; Saks, 2006; Kahn, 1990), while some others have indicated that it is an organisational-level variable (Maslach, Schaufeli and Leiter, 2001). Shuck and

Wollard's (2010) review of employee engagement literature specified that engagement is a personal work-induced experience indivisible from the individualistic nature of human and that it is engrained in the psychology of the employees, thus, it is manifested and observed or measured behaviourally and most importantly it cannot be forced or mandated. Engagement is therefore an account of a worker's experiences that stem from work (Christian, Garza and Slaughter, 2011).

Saks (2006, p. 603) claimed that the theoretical explanation of employee engagement can be located in the SET because workers' decisions are based on perceived costs and benefits (Ethugala, 2011; Cropanzano and Mitchell, 2005). The exchange rules typically entail reciprocity or re-compensation, whereby actions of one entity produce reciprocal actions by the other (Jose, 2012). Social exchange in the workplace embroils a chain of interactions that generate a sense of obligations (Emerson, 1976), so workers' choices to be engaged or not to be engaged is contingent on the resources they receive from their employer (Andrew and Sofian, 2012). The theory of social exchange, thus, is said to be one of the most prominent conceptual paradigms that help make sense of workplace behaviours, including employee engagement (Jose, 2012; Cropanzano and Mitchell, 2005).

To summarise, employee engagement, an 'Individual-level construct' (Shuck and Wollard, 2010, 105), is a positive emotion (Bindl and Parker, 2010) or a psychological state of mind (Kahn, 1990) which fuels an individual to be energised, highly motivated and thoroughly immersed in their work role performances (Schaufeli, Bakker and Van Rhenen, 2009; Schaufeli and Bakker, 2004) and stretch beyond their usual call of duties to achieve organisational objectives (Eldor and Harpaz, 2016). Barik and Kochar's (2017, p.33) review of literature used almost layman's terms to explain the process of employee engagement, 'when an employee starts enjoying his job, gains satisfaction and pride for his employer and perceives that his employer gives value to his performance then we can confirm employee engagement is there in the organisation'. This positive psychological emotion, however, arises through the initiation of social exchange relationships in the organisation (Andrew and Sofian, 2012; Saks, 2006).

3.3. Conceptualising Employee Commitment

Like employee engagement, another similar concept is employee commitment. Scholars have attempted to establish links between commitment and identification (Guo and Qiu, 2019; O'Reilly and Chatman, 1986). Although it has been said that theorists often confuse organisational commitment with organisational identification, they are two different concepts (Reed, Goolsby and Johnston, 2016; Ashforth and Mael, 1989). On this argument, some advice to refer to organisational identification as the process and employee commitment as the *product* of the process (Sass and Canary, 1991), while others say identification is a component of commitment (Wiener, 1982) or they are casually linked in which identification is needed but not enough to be committed. (Reed, Goolsby and Johnston, 2016). To clarify and understand the meaning of commitment, it is necessary to see how commitment is defined.

Commitment is also considered to be a psychological state as opposed to an attitude (Welch, 2011). It is the psychological attachment to an organisation or the bond that connects a worker to the organisation (Cesário and Chambel, 2017; Klein, Molloy and Brinsfield, 2012; Fullerton, 2011; O'Reilly and Chatman, 1986) and the willingness to persevere with a course of action (Cooper-Hakim and Viswesvaran, 2005). Porter and associates (1974, p. 604) defined commitment as 'the strength of an individual's identification with and involvement in a particular organisation'. Similarly, Meyer, Becker and Van Dick (2006, p. 666) described commitment as 'a force that binds an individual to a target (social or non-social) and to a course of action of relevance to that target'. The construct of commitment is said to be based on exchange situation (Gruen, Summers and Acito, 2000), in particular, perceived organisational support (POS) (Satardien, Jano and Mahembe, 2019; Kim, Eisenberger and Baik, 2016), whereby workers' commitment to the organisation is inspired by their perception of the organisation's commitment towards them, which in turn create the feelings of obligation and workers reciprocate by contributing positive work behaviours like commitment (Kurtessis *et al.*, 2017; Campbell *et al.*, 2013; Shore and Wayne, 1993; Eisenberger *et al.*, 1986).

Commitment can be of three different types. *Affective Commitment* (AC) is the emotional attachment to the organisation (Odoardi *et al.*, 2019), more precisely, when

employees feel a sense of belonging and identity that intensifies their participation in organisational activities, their willingness to achieve the goals and their desire to continue working for the company (Cesário and Chambel, 2017; Meyer and Herscovitch, 2001; Meyer and Allen, 1991). *Normative Commitment* (NC) represents a sense of obligation to the organisation as a result of internalised subjective norms that include social normative beliefs or expectations as well as personal normative beliefs or moral standards (Cesário and Chambel, 2017; Fullerton, 2011; Wiener, 1982). Some scholars proclaim it is a 'sense of moral duty rather than as an indebted obligation' (Meyer and Parfyonova, 2010, p. 292). *Continuance Commitment* (CC) develops when employees weigh the costs associated to not being committed versus being committed (Galanaki, 2019) or when they believe that the job is needed and leaving the organisation will be costly (Kaplan and Kaplan, 2018; Bakhshi, Sharma and Kumar, 2011; Shore and Wayne, 1993). These three types of commitments have been nicknamed as wanting (AC), being obliged (NC) and needing (CC) to remain with the organisation (Bergman, 2006; Iverson and Buttigieg, 1999; Allen and Meyer, 1990). Researchers have repeatedly established a positive relationship between POS and affective commitment (Wong and Wong, 2017; Gupta, Agarwal and Khatri, 2016; Kim, Eisenberger and Baik, 2016; Alfes *et al.*, 2013; Shore and Wayne, 1993) because of 'felt obligation owing to reciprocity norm' (Eisenberger *et al.*, 2001)

Committed workers are more likely to execute their work efficiently (Cooper-Hakim and Viswesvaran, 2005; Riketta, 2002), attend work regularly (Meyer *et al.*, 2002, Mowday, Steers and Porter, 1979) and are good citizens to the organisation or portray organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB) (Cohen, 2007; Becker and Kernan, 2003; Meyer *et al.*, 2002; Riketta, 2002). Employee commitment could even produce satisfied customers (Vandenberghe *et al.*, 2007), all of which contribute to the performance of the organisation (Randall, 1990). Several studies have also demonstrated that commitment contributes to employee well-being (Meyer and Maltin, 2010) by promoting physical well-being (Siu, 2002), general health (Bridger, Kilminster and Slaven, 2007; Mor Barak *et al.*, 2006), mental health (Grawitch, Trares and Kohler, 2007; Probst, 2003), job-related well-being (Epitropaki and Martin, 2005), life satisfaction (Lu *et al.*, 2009; Zickar, Gibby and Jenny, 2004) positive affect (Thoresen *et al.*, 2003) and self-esteem (Frone, 2007). It is worth noting that 'affective commitment is expected to have the strongest positive relation, followed by NC; CC is

expected to be unrelated, or related negatively, to these desirable work behaviours' (Meyer *et al.*, 2002, p. 21; Meyer and Allen, 1997). Some studies, however, were unsuccessful in establishing that NC or CC had any significant effect on workers' performance (Kaplan and Kaplan, 2018; Baugh and Roberts, 1994). Continuance commitment has been found to be negatively related to OCB (Chen and Fransesco, 2003), job performance and presentism at work (Meyer *et al.*, 2002), which is said to develop when there is a scarcity of alternate jobs in the market (Devece, Palacios-Marqués and Alguacil, 2016; Ogba, 2008). Another investigation reported a positive relationship between continuance commitment and job performance, thus, advocated that CC should not be regarded as a discouraging or negative aspect (Suliman and Iles, 2000).

In essence, employee commitment is a psychological state (Welch, 2011; O'Reilly and Chatman, 1986), based on the exchange principle of perceived organisational support (POS) (Kurtessis *et al.*, 2017; Shore and Wayne, 1993; Eisenberger *et al.*, 1986), which connects workers with their organisations (Meyer, Becker and Vandenberghe, 2004) and both employees and employers benefit from it (Meyer and Maltin, 2010).

3.4. Employee Engagement vs Employee Commitment

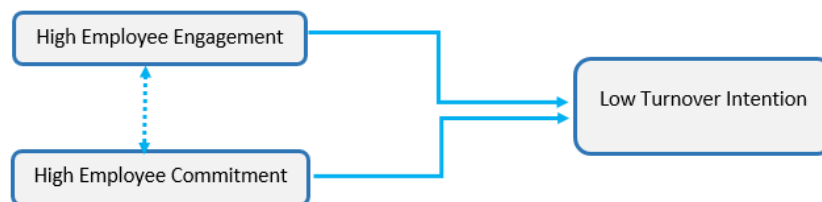
Scholars have established a positive relationship between employee engagement and commitment (Field and Buitendach, 2011; Hu and Schaufeli, 2011; Bakker and Demerouti, 2008; Cho, Laschinger and Wong, 2006; Hakanen, Bakker and Schaufeli, 2006; Richardsen, Burke and Martinussen, 2006; Saks, 2006; Demerouti *et al.*, 2001; Brown and Leigh, 1996), meaning as the state of engagement increases, the level of commitment increases too. It suggests that commitment could be an outcome of employee engagement (Saks, 2006). Yalabik and colleagues (2013), however, claimed that commitment could act as an antecedent rather than a predecessor or an outcome of engagement (Yalabik *et al.*, 2013). One study clearly differentiates the two, *Commitment differs from engagement in that it refers to a person's attitude and attachment towards their organisation. Engagement is not an attitude; it is the degree to which an individual is attentive and absorbed in the performance of their roles* (Saks, 2006, p.206).

The fact that employee engagement could possibly predict employee commitment or vice versa could mean that they are two different concepts. The differences, as I understand from the literature, are discussed here. Engagement, at the micro-level, is considered to be an individual's psychological presence (Kahn, 1990) and absorption in performing the role or the job responsibilities (Schaufeli *et al.*, 2002) and this state of mind may not necessarily connect the individual with the organisation. It appears to be an immediate work-related positive emotion (Adachi *et al.*, 2020; Yalabik *et al.*, 2013). At the macro level, engagement is about connection with the wider group within the organisation (Kahn, 1990), which does link an individual to the members of the organisation. Conversely, commitment is the force that affixes an individual to the organisation (Meyer, Becker and Van Dick, 2006) and since committed workers identify with the organisation, they persist in achieving the organisation's ambitions (Cooper-Hakim and Viswesvaran, 2005). It may be that engagement is what links the worker to the job and commitment is what links the worker to the organisation. For instance, one could be committed to the organisation as in wants to continue working there and thus, wants to do the job right but not necessarily be absorbed in the role. While another could be absorbed in the role because the work itself gives a sense of meaning, pleasure or fulfilment but not necessarily be committed or want to continue. However, it has been stated that 'employee engagement is a broad topic that discusses the symbiotic relationship between employees and the organisation' (Bin Shmailan, 2015, pp.1-2) and that engaged employees have a degree of commitment and emotional attachment towards their work and organisation (Hoxsey, 2010; Demovsek, 2008; Jackson, Rothmann and Van de Vijver, 2006). Correspondingly, strongly committed workers appear to be self-initiated and engaged in their work (Meyer, Stanley and Parfyonova, 2012). This somehow gives the impression that one initiates the other or a worker's strong sense of one, either engagement or commitment, may mean that the other could coexist to a certain degree.

The constructs of employee engagement and commitment are conceptually and theoretically different, but there are obvious similarities between the two. The first is, how they are felt by the individuals: workers experience a positive psychological emotion (Welch, 2011; Bindl and Parker, 2010). The second is, how they affect the individual: engagement and commitment aid physical and mental well-being of the workers (Meyer and Maltin, 2010; Bridger, Kilminster and Slaven, 2007; Mor Barak *et*

al., 2006, Koyuncu, Burke and Fiksenbaum, 2006). The third is, how the individual effects translate to outcome: workers productivity level increases and they get more involved in extra-role or organisational citizenship behaviours (Cohen, 2007; Becker and Kernan, 2003; Meyer *et al.*, 2002; Riketta, 2002). Finally, how the combination of individual effects and outcomes trickle down to the organisation: organisation benefits from increased productivity and profitability (Eldor and Harpaz, 2016; Lightle *et al.*, 2015; Christian, Garza and Slaughter, 2011; Bakker and Schaufeli, 2008; Harter, Schmidt and Hayes, 2002) because positively energised workers are more likely to work towards the attainment of the organisational goals and objective (Bhat and Bharel, 2018; Shirom, 2010; Grant and Ashford, 2008; Frese and Fay, 2001) and are less likely to leave the organisation (Truss *et.al*, 2014). So what happens when workers lack engagement and commitment?

Figure 3.1: Connection between employee engagement and commitment, and turnover intentions



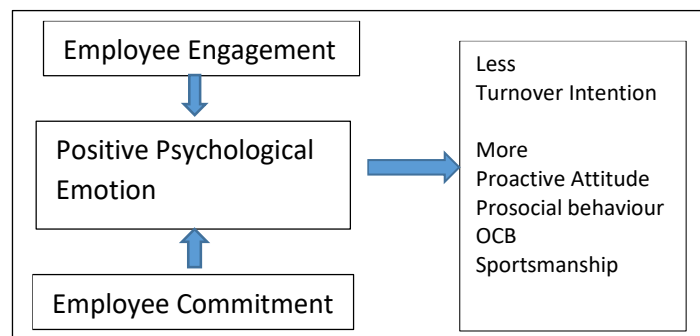
Source: Researcher's own design

Absence of engagement among workers increases the possibilities of voluntary turnover (Bal, De Cooman and Mol, 2013; Shuck, Reio and Rocco, 2011). This is because when organisations fail to promote a meaningful workplace, it has impacts on the level of engagement among workers, increasing the absenteeism rate and in turn escalating the intention to leave (Memon *et al.*, 2014; Soane *et al.*, 2013; Hoxsey, 2010). Likewise, uncommitted workers, as Meyer, Stanley and Parfyonova's (2012) research suggests, are less likely to feel satisfied with their core needs fulfilment and score lower in OCB, autonomous regulation and general well-being scale, hence are less likely to be productive while they continue their jobs, which ultimately ends at their departure from the organisations. The findings were in line with previous studies that claimed that to retain workers and understand workers' on-the-job behaviours,

organisations need to be familiar with workers' commitment profiles (Meyer and Herscovitch, 2001; Meyer and Allen, 1997). A number of studies have linked the lack of commitment to workers' absenteeism (Clausen, Burr and Borg, 2014; Meyer *et al.*, 2002; Somers, 1995; Angle and Perry, 1981; Porter *et al.*, 1974) and intention to turnover (Khan *et al.*, 2016; Stinglhamber, Bentein and Vandenberghe, 2002; Meyer and Allen, 1997; Williams and Hazer, 1986).

The central theme for both the constructs is the positive psychological emotion or well-being of workers that energises them to be engaged in their roles and be committed to the organisation and because of their positive psychology, their actions, such as proactivity, job-crafting and OCB, bring desirable outcomes to the organisational performance. Hoxsey's (2010, p. 551) research on employee engagement proclaimed, 'a happy employee is a healthy employee', while Biswas-Diener and colleagues (2004, p.18) said, 'happiness is more than an emotional pleasantry- it is a psychological tonic that promotes well-being in many domains of life'.

Figure 3.2: Effect of employee engagement and commitment on employee's psychological emotion and other work-related attitudes



Source: Researcher's own design

Therefore, it may be that by promoting the positive psychological emotion among workers, organisations could retain workers. The concept of human motivation might be helpful in the understanding of psychological well-being because 'the psychology of motivation is specifically concerned with activities that reflect the pursuit of a particular goal and in this function form a meaningful unit of behaviour' (Heckhausen and Heckhausen, 2008, p.1). The theories of motivation, in general, are based on the

identification of human needs and the roles these need fulfilments play in explaining employee behaviours and attitudes (Rowley, 1996; Weaver, 1988). Theories of motivation are classified into two types, content theories and process theories (Sahito and Vaisanen, 2017; Campbell *et al.*, 1970). *Content* theories focus on the factors and human needs that affect behaviour; examples include Maslow's hierarchy of needs, McClelland's theory of needs, Alderfer's ERG theory and Herzberg's two-factor or hygiene theory. *Process* theories emphasise the process by which humans' needs and expectations are met (Sahito and Vaisanen, 2017), for example, Vroom's expectancy theory, Locke's goal-setting theory, Skinner's reinforcement theory and Adam's equity theory.

The motivational theory that best explains the psychological aspects of workers is Self-determination Theory (SDT). Because SDT is primarily concerned with 'the psychological processes that promote optimal functioning and health' (Deci and Ryan, 2000, p.262). The SDT theorists consider human needs as 'innate, organismic necessities rather than acquired motives' that are situated at the 'psychological rather than physiological level', therefore according to SDT, 'needs specify innate psychological nutriments that are essential for ongoing psychological growth, integrity, and well-being' (Deci and Ryan, 2000, p.229). The theory postulates that humans have three fundamental psychological needs: relatedness, competence and autonomy (Deci and Ryan, 2000; Ryan, 1995) and that these needs are as vital to the psychological well-being as the needs for food and shelter are for the physical well-being (Ryan and Deci, 2000). On closer inspection it appears that the three basic human needs of SDT can be found in other content motivational theories too, shown in Table 3.1.

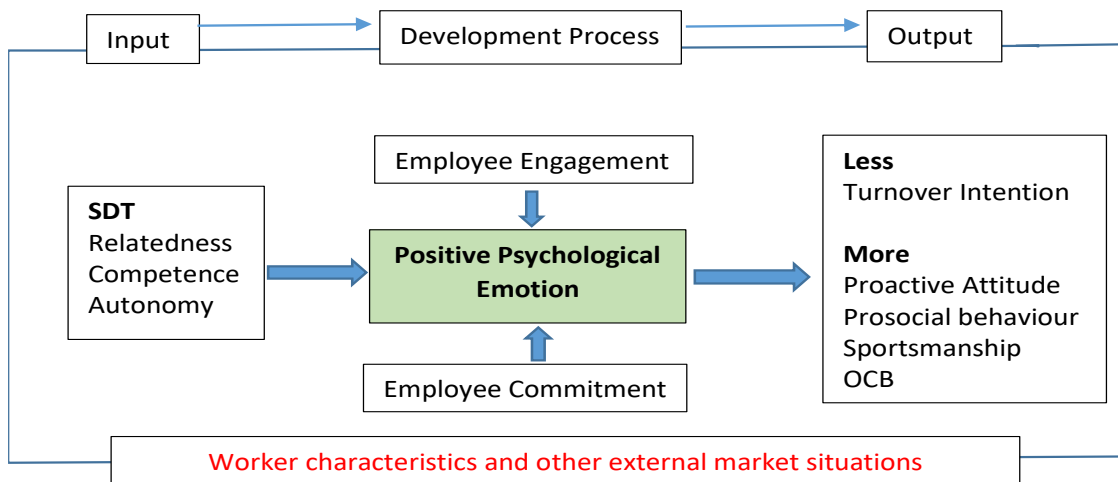
Table 3.1: Similarities between SDT and other motivational theories

	Self Determination Theory (SDT)		
	Relatedness	Competence	Autonomy
<i>Maslow's Hierarchy of needs</i>	Psychological Needs: Belongingness and Love	Self-actualisation or Self-fulfilment	
<i>Alderfer's ERG theory</i>	Relatedness	Need for Growth	
<i>McClelland's theory of needs</i>	Affiliation	Achievement	Power
<i>Herzberg's Two Factor theory</i>	Extrinsic or Hygiene Factor	Intrinsic or Motivation Factor	

Source: Researcher's own design

SDT prioritises the individual's need and how circumstances, for instance management approach and work context, nurture or inhibit the individual's motivation and psychological well-being (Rigby and Ryan, 2018). Because of its construct, SDT is said to be appropriate for addressing workers' engagement and motivation in the workplace (Gagné, Deci and Ryan, 2017). Empirical studies have established that satisfaction of relatedness, competence and autonomy needs positively associates with psychological well-being (Vansteenkiste *et al.*, 2007; Gagné and Deci, 2005; Reis *et al.*, 2000; Sheldon and Elliot, 1999), subjective vitality, 'a positive feeling of aliveness and of possessing personal energy' (Nix, *et al.*, 1999, p. 268) and happiness (Sheldon, Ryan and Reis, 1996). These positive emotions that arise from the three needs fulfilment is said to sustain employee engagement (Hardré and Reeve, 2009) and promote affective commitment (Becker *et al.*, 2018; Olafsen *et al.*, 2017). This highlights the significance of the exchange terms that both employee engagement and employee commitment are based on. Besides, when the human needs for relatedness, competence and autonomy, which are situated at the basic psychological level are neglected or ignored, this could become the reason for work-related stress and even burden workers with enhanced somatic symptoms, resulting in high psychological exhaustion, absenteeism and turnover intention (Olafsen *et al.*, 2017). The diagram below may help visualise the exchange process.

Figure 3.3: The process of positive psychological emotion with SDT components as input and positive work behaviour as output



Source: Researcher's own design

The discussion may imply that by promoting a work context that supports the psychological needs as an input, organisations can foster positive psychological feelings among workers, which may enable them to be engaged or committed and as an output, organisations could benefit from a workforce that dedicates itself in achieving organisation goals. Organisational contributions or inputs are generally through the human resource management (HRM) practices they implement and the organisational behaviour (OB) they promote. HRM is the framework of practices and strategies (Du Plessis, Douangphichit, and Dodd, 2016) that are generally

Discretionary activities that imply employer investment in, and commitment to, employees (e.g. the provision of training and development); trust in employees (e.g. the provision of autonomy and participative practices); or, the reverse, signal a lack of concern for employee well-being (with the existence of job and role stressors) (Edwards, 2009, p. 94)

Furthermore, OB is the human interactions and behaviours in work settings (Reddy, 2004) with a focus on both individual and group level actions and processes (Brooks, 2018). Communications between manager-worker, especially the manager's leadership behaviour and exchange relationships and interactions among group members are particularly important when analysing OB (Robbins and Judge, 2018; Glynn and DeJordy, 2010). Because 'managers are the critical persons in

organisations, as they are responsible for the success or failure of an organisation, by converting input, including people, into desired output' (Rao, 2010, p. 2). This indicates that by implementing HRM practices and encouraging organisational behaviours that are psychosocial need-supportive, organisations may have workforces that are engaged in their jobs and committed to the organisation.

The thought-provoking question that arises here is how do engaged and/ or committed workers behave? Is there any noticeable behavioural change that can convince the manager to believe that the worker is engaged in her role or committed to the organisation? Shore, Barksdale and Shore (1995) revealed that managers' perceptions of employee commitment are often based on workers' display of altruistic behaviours at work. Yusoff and associate's (2017) study provided evidence that organisational commitment is one of the contributing factors influencing the nature and frequency of altruistic behaviours among workers. Altruistic behaviours are actions that benefit others at one's cost and resources (Wang *et al.*, 2020; Fehr and Fischbacher, 2003). Altruism is a 'pervasive and powerful force in human affairs' (Batson, 2011, p.161).

Examples of altruistic behaviours as indicators of workers' attachment to the work and the organisation can be segregated into four types. (i) *Improvement in their own role* by being proactive (van Woerkom, Oerlemans and Bakker, 2016). Proactive behaviour can be described as 'taking initiative in improving current circumstances or creating new ones; it involves challenging the status quo rather than passively adapting to present conditions' (Crant, 2000, p. 436). Studies on proactivity or proactive behaviour are commonly grounded on themes like worker's personal initiative (PI), flexible role orientation (FRO) and role breadth self-efficacy (RBSE) (Beltrán-Martín *et al.*, 2017; Frese and Fay, 2001; Parker, 2000). Personal initiative is a work-related behaviour propelled by an individual's interest in taking the self-starting and active attitude to work and go beyond the formal requirements of a given job (Frese *et al.*, 1997; 1996). Flexible role orientation is an approach whereby workers are expected to participate in a broad array of work roles as opposed to executing narrowly defined jobs (Ma and Peng, 2019; Parker, 2007; Parker, 2000). RBSE refers to the degree of confidence workers feel about executing a broader role, beyond the prescribed tasks (Hwang, Han and Chiu, 2015; Martin, Liao and Campbell, 2013; Parker, 1998). (ii) *Helping*

behaviour towards their co-workers by performing prosocial behaviours. Prosocial behaviour is action taken to improve a help-recipient's situation, a person not an organisation, where the helper is not motivated to fulfil work obligations (Bierhoff, 2002). (iii) *Helping behaviour directed to the organisation* by being good citizens to the organisation or portraying organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB) (Cohen, 2007; Becker and Kernan, 2003; Meyer *et al.*, 2002; Riketta, 2002). OCB is a 'type of discretionary behaviour and contribution which is not explicitly associated with specific job requirement' (Organ, 2018, Chapter 2). (iv) *Enduring external disruptions* by sportsmanship. Sportsmanship is said to be an element of OCB (Demerouti and Cropanzano, 2017) which is workers' disposition to tolerate minor workplace inconveniences and discomfort without complaining (Nielsen *et al.*, 2012; Organ, 1990). These are four ways workers could exhibit their positive psychological well-being when their psychological needs are met by the organisation, which in turn make them less inclined to depart the organisation.

It must also be acknowledged, however, that need-encouraging work context alone does not complete the process; there are external factors that could play a major role too. this process can be compared to farming, a farmer sows seeds (input), nurtures them (development process) and then reaps this crops (output), but, the quality and quantity of the farmer's yield would depend on the environmental factors, such as climate, which is not in his control entirely. Similarly, in the organisational setting, it will be the context, which, to a certain extent, will guide the organisational outcome. Johns (2006, p. 386) defined context as 'situational opportunities and constraints that affect the occurrence and meaning of organisational behaviour as well as functional relationships between variables. Context can serve as a main effect or interact with personal variables such as disposition to affect organisational behaviour'. For this research, at least three contextual aspects would support or thwart the development of the positive psychological emotion by promoting or interrupting the process of formation of the positive psychological emotion. These contexts are (i) workers demographic profile, (ii) some job-related factors, routine and repetition, and (iii) other external market situations, for instance, job availability. Work context has the ability to shape and even constrain various worker behaviours (Griffin, Neal and Parker, 2007; Frese and Fay, 2001). Context is more like a foundation of research, as Johns (2006,

pp. 398-399) stressed, 'the mechanics of context can be quite subtle, and small changes in context often matter greatly'.

The theoretical discourse above warrants a thorough understanding of the factors that may contribute to the formation of employee engagement and employee commitment. The following section is dedicated to that, which is even more important for this research because it explores the practical aspects of employee engagement and commitment in a specific context.

3.5. Contributing Factors

In Chapter Two, a few facts about hotel housekeeping workers and their work were established. These jobs are commonly taken up by migrant women who often hold temporary employment contract or contracts with a third party rather than their actual place of work. They are paid at the minimum legal wage level. Their work is often criticised to be low-skilled with routine and repetitive tasks and often the opportunity to progress further is nil. They are recruited using non-standardised methods and not provided sufficient training. Bearing these in mind, the discussion is structured in three subsection: workers' personal characteristics, job-related aspects and factors related to line management. These three sets of discussion are necessary to grasp a thorough understanding because employee engagement, for instance, is shaped by not just one factor but the work context too, such as workers' perceptions of the work and the organisation, working conditions and the quality of management (Saks, 2019; Craig and Silverstone 2010). Similarly, several other researchers have indicated that personal characteristics, how workers experience their work and the management, and organisational-level factors act as antecedents to employee commitment (Cogaltay, 2015; Eby *et al.*, 1999; Meyer and Allen, 1997; Allen and Meyer, 1996).

3.5.1. Worker Characteristics

Workers' demographic or personal characteristics, such as age, gender, education level, work experience and marital status or kinship responsibilities have been

commonly tested as antecedents of commitment (Joiner and Bakalis, 2006). Mathieu and Zajac (1990) in their meta-analytic study found that affective commitment to the organisation is more prevalent in women than men. Wahn's (1998) study concluded that women showed an increased level of continuance commitment than men, while in the same period Ngo and Tsang (1998) failed to find any link between commitment and workers' gender, which was reconfirmed in a more recent study (Çoğaltay, 2015). Another investigation found that male workers are more committed than female workers (Maleka *et al.*, 2017). Iqbal's (2010) research found no significant correlation between workers' age and commitment.

A few other studies associated workers' marital status or kinship responsibilities to commitment (Iverson and Buttigieg, 1999; Mottaz, 1988; Angle and Perry, 1983). The reason for studying this aspect is based on the assumption that the more the kinship responsibilities are, the greater the reliance would be on the organisation for the fulfilment of the financial requirements (Iverson and Buttigieg, 1999; Angle and Perry, 1983), which is likely to be translated to affective and continuance commitment (Hackett, Bycio and Hausdorf, 1994). Contrarily, Joiner and Bakalis' (2006) study established lower continuance commitment among married workers because of the assumption that a partner's earnings can serve as an economic buffer lowering one's dependence on the job, thus, curtailing the continuance commitment. Some other studies found no relationship (Cogaltay, 2015) or a non-significant (Atif and Zubairi, 2018) relationship between marital status or kinship responsibilities to commitment.

Worker's level of education has been negatively correlated with commitment, meaning the higher the level of education the lower the level of commitment (Iqbal, 2010; Wahn, 1998; Tansky, Gallagher and Wetzel, 1997; Mathieu and Zajac, 1990; Angle and Perry, 1983). The reasoning behind this is, the higher the level of education workers have, higher the expectation will be from the organisation, which is likely to be unmet thereby diminishing the individual's affective commitment (Tansky, Gallagher and Wetzel, 1997). Higher education has been found to be inversely related to continuance commitment too (Joiner and Bakalis, 2006; McClurg, 1999; Mathieu and Zajac, 1990). Bakan and associates' (2011) study, however, contrasted with them all by finding a positive association between all three types of commitment and education level. Their

study revealed that vocational or university educated workers are more committed than those with lower levels of education.

Some other studies found strong statistical links between workers' length of service and commitment (Valaei and Rezaei, 2016; Iqbal, Kokash and Al-Oun, 2011; Iqbal, 2010; Hrebiniak and Alutto, 1972), especially affective commitment (English, Morrison and Chalon, 2010; Meyer *et al.*, 2002). The rationale behind this association is because older and experienced workers develop commitment through work autonomy while the less experienced workers fall short on the commitment scale (Brimeyer, Perrucci and Wadsworth, 2010). Thus, management-level staff generally have a higher commitment than lower-level staff (Iqbal, 2010). An older empirical research linked gender with commitment, claiming that men who hold higher positions are more likely to quit than their lower-ranking co-workers (Martin Jr, 1979).

It appears that the worker characteristics provide mixed results. Some scholars found that workers' demographics provided insignificant variance on the measures of engagement (Sharma, Goel, and Sengupta, 2017; Koyuncu, Burke and Fiksenbaum, 2006). This could be because as Meyer and colleagues (2002, p. 38) rightly claimed, 'demographic variables play a relatively minor role in the development of organisational commitment, regardless of its form'. So, what does the research in the hospitality industry say regarding workers' characteristics and their level of engagement and commitment?

Research conducted in 26 hotels with 371 respondents in Taiwan reported that diversity among workers, especially ethnic minority workers, when treated fairly, could enhance job satisfaction, commitment and retention (Hsiao *et al.*, 2020). Lam, Zhang and Baum's (2001) research in Hong Kong with 288 staff at five different hotels stated that well-educated workers, particularly those with 10 or more years of working experience were particularly unsatisfied with the job because they may have too many unmet expectations. Workers with experience of six months or less were also found to be least satisfied. Management's approach to workers proved to be irrelevant because employees in Hong Kong in general accept autocratic or parent-type management styles in the hotel industry. Their concluding remark was that workers' demographic characteristics play a vital role in understanding their job satisfaction and

turnover intention. An older study (Mok and Finley, 1986) in Hong Kong also concluded with similar remarks. Could this research provide different results considering that the management approach in the London hotels may not be autocratic or parent-type?

In the UK, Ndiuini and Baum's (2020) exploration adopting purposive sampling strategy with a small sample size of 32 migrant hotel workers concluded that the workers often find themselves underemployed despite their related skills and qualifications causing career frustration and other undesirable outcomes. Another investigation of 315 Polish migrant workers from the UK hospitality industry reported that they were generally satisfied with some aspects of their work, however, some specific workplace practices and conditions, for instance bad management behaviour, discrimination, absence of respect, work pressure and issues with pay, hindered the development of their long-term commitment (Janta *et al.*, 2011). In the same year another non-hospitality related study with a randomly selected sample size of 213 migrant workers from Chinese factories by Chan and Qiu (2011) found that the workers' satisfaction and commitment level were high and the levels were much higher among the married and longer-tenured workers. They also pointed out that migrant workers' job satisfaction significantly correlated with commitment and that their turnover decisions were mainly due to the management's attitude towards them.

The take-home message here is that the demographic profile of the workers alone may not disclose much about workers' level of commitment and engagement. It may play a role but more important are the work environment, managerial practices and the context of their work, this is particularly true for migrant workers. Chapter Five investigates if workers' characteristics have any influence in their decision to leave the organisation because as discussed before, it *is* workers' engagement and commitment that bond them to the organisation. But before, it is crucial to understand the work-related factors that can influence the development of engagement and commitment.

3.5.2. Job-related Factors

To make sense of the job-related factors that may contribute to the positive psychological emotion, it is essential to understand the umbrella theme: *job*

satisfaction, which has ramifications for workers' subjective well-being and organisational outcome (George and Jones, 2008; Spector, 1997; Visser, Breed and Van Breda, 1997; Judge and Hulin, 1993; Coster, 1992). Locke (1969) was one of the very few scholars who used a meta-analytic approach to simplify the concept of job satisfaction and defined the concept as follows (p.316):

Job satisfaction is the pleasurable emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one's job as achieving or facilitating the achievement of one's job values. Job dissatisfaction is the un-pleasurable emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one's job as frustrating or blocking the attainment of one's job values or as entailing disvalues. Job satisfaction and dissatisfaction are a function of the perceived relationship between what one wants from one's job and what one perceives it as offering or entailing.

Others defined job satisfaction as 'an affective reaction that individuals have about their job in general or regarding different facets (e.g., job conditions, pay, co-workers, supervisor)' (Truxillo *et al.*, 2012, p. 341), or simply how workers feel about their jobs, especially the extent to which workers like or dislike their job (Spector, 1997). Job satisfaction is said to be the most vital aspect because when an employee is dissatisfied with the organisation or characteristics of the job, such as pay, benefits or line management, then the employee is likely to engage in the job with less effort than if the opposite was true (Harrell-Cook, Levitt and Grimm, 2017). Various studies have linked job satisfaction to both employee engagement (Harter, Schmidt and Hayes, 2002) and commitment (Ozturk, Hancer and Im, 2014; Katsikea *et al.*, 2011; Currivan, 1999; Lok and Crawford, 1999; MacKenzie, Podsakoff and Aheame, 1998; Benkhoff, 1997), which has a strong relationship with turnover (Cantarelli, Belardinelli and Belle 2015; Benkhoff, 1997).

Job satisfaction is in the construct of various motivational theories, but, Herzberg's Motivation-Hygiene or Two Factor theory (Herzberg, Mausner and Snyderman, 1959) is a well-accepted model of job satisfaction (Sell and Cleal, 2011; Tan and Waheed, 2011; Dion, 2006). The theory suggests that the job factors that contribute to job satisfaction are not the same factors that contribute to the dissatisfaction (Miner, 2005) and that some job attributes could invoke short-lived motivation or dissatisfaction and other attributes could promote long term positive state of mind towards the job (Sell and Cleal, 2011). The two factors are *hygiene factors or dis-satisfier* and *motivation*

factors or satisfier. Hygiene factors are usually extrinsic to the job and related to the feelings of dissatisfaction (Herzberg, 1966), such as pay, physical working conditions, relationship with co-workers and company policy. Motivation factors are 'related to the nature of the work itself and the rewards that flow directly from the performance of that work' (House and Wigdor, 1967, p.370), fostering the human needs for self-actualisation and self-realisation, that produce job satisfaction (Alshmemri, Shahwan-Akl and Maude, 2017). Examples include work responsibility, recognition and career advancement options (Herzberg, 1966). Researchers have successfully established a positive and significant relationship between job satisfaction and both motivation and hygiene factors (Singh and Bhattacharjee, 2020), although, motivation factors have a stronger association to job satisfaction than hygiene factors have (Jones, 2011; Russell and Gelder, 2008).

Job satisfaction represents a number of variables or factors that induce the feeling of satisfaction (Judge and Klinger, 2008; Hegney, Plank and Parker, 2006; De Witte and Buitendach, 2005). Research on job satisfaction commonly categorises these variables as extrinsic and intrinsic job attributes (Hirschfeld, 2000; Spector, 1997), similar to the construct of Herzberg's Two Factor theory. *Extrinsic* aspects of job satisfaction are those that are materialistic (Taris and Feij 2001,) and not directly related to the content of the work or the job tasks, for example wage, working conditions and colleagues (De Witte and Buitendach, 2005). *Intrinsic* variables are immaterial aspects (Taris and Feij 2001) that are directly linked to the job tasks, such as task variety, autonomy, skill utilisation (De Witte and Buitendach, 2005).

In terms of research in the hospitality industry, a meta-analytic investigation proposed useful guidance for practical hotel management by establishing the fact that organisational commitment and workers' intention to stay or leave are the main outcomes of job satisfaction (Kong *et al.*, 2018). Another study incorporating Chinese migrant workers in the hospitality industry in South Korea found that three levels of fit-person-job, person-supervisor and person-group, significantly influence job satisfaction, which in turn impacts migrant workers' decision to stay with or leave the organisation (Choi, Kim and McGinley, 2017).

The following subsection explores the literature on both extrinsic and intrinsic aspects of job satisfaction. Pay and satisfaction with pay, and job insecurity are reviewed in the extrinsic section and for intrinsic section, job dimension and job demand resource are reviewed.

3.5.2.1. Extrinsic Job Attributes

Income / Wage and Wage Satisfaction

At the core of any employment contract is the theory of exchange, more precisely, the exchange of work for money, which takes the centre stage because it *is* the one that initiates the contract between the employer and an employee (Gerhart and Milkovich, 1992). This economic exchange relationship is based on exchange or transaction of tangible means over a definitive period of time (Shore *et al.*, 2009) and unlike SET, it is 'impersonal and based on calculus-based trust where the return for benefits received in the exchange is specified' (Kuvaas *et al.*, 2020, p. 411). Locke (1969) established a clear connection among pay, satisfaction with pay and job satisfaction. He said employees require a minimum pay to materialise their needs and 'their pay satisfaction results from comparing their actual pay with both their "practical ideal" (minimum adequate) and the amount that would fulfil all of their economic wants (ideal maximum)' (Locke, 1969, p. 318). Workers' pay and satisfaction with pay can affect their decision to stay or leave their jobs (Yankeelov *et al.*, 2009). The lower the wage the stronger the intention to leave (Albattat and Som, 2013) and likewise the lower the level of satisfaction the higher the intention to quit (DeConinck and Stilwell, 2004; Dailey and Kirk, 1992).

The motivational theory that best explains the exchange process of financial compensation in work setting is Adam's equity theory (Pritchard, 1969). The theory postulates that people knowingly or unknowingly compare their outcome to input ratio with others (Adams, 1965). Inputs include something of value, such as effort, time and outcomes are something of value to the person too that the person perceives as a return for the contributions made (Pritchard, 1969). Input should be proportionate to the output in the exchange process (Arvanitis and Hantzi, 2016).

Equity or fairness exists when the pay-to-contribution ratios are equal (Park, Kim and Sung, 2017). Equity theory is based on the perception of fairness and organisational justice. Greenberg (1987) theorised the concept of organisational justice, which refers to 'the extent to which employees perceive workplace procedures, interactions and outcomes to be fair in nature' (Baldwin, 2006, p. 1). Greenberg (1990, p. 399) added that workers' perceptions of organisational justice are 'a basic requirement for the effective functioning of organisations and the personal satisfaction of the individuals they employ'. Organisational justice has two strands. *Distributive justice* is a fairness perception, which deals with the amount of compensation that a worker receives, and *procedural justice* is the fairness perception of the process that determines the amount to be compensated (Folger and Konovsky, 1989). Workers' perception of organisational justice guides their attitude and behaviour towards the organisation, which in turn influence their work performance and organisational accomplishment (Raja *et al.*, 2018; Heffernan and Dundon, 2016; Baldwin, 2006).

Perception of both distributive and procedural forms of justice have a strong tie with employee engagement (Dirks and Ferrin, 2002; Kickul, Lester and Finkl, 2002; Colquitt *et al.*, 2001) and employee commitment (Ogbu Edeh and Ugwu, 2019; McFarlin, and Sweeney, 1992). The simplest way to explain this is when workers perceive their exchange relationship as just, as in their inputs (efforts) match with their outputs (gains from their work), their sense of individual well-being is enhanced (Baldwin, 2006) thereby improving their level of engagement and commitment.

de Coning, Rothmann and Stander's (2019) empirical research based in South Africa which included 753 participants concluded that wage satisfaction was related to job satisfaction. They found that a low wage is linked to wage dissatisfaction, but a high wage does not guarantee satisfaction. Their conclusion was that it was inconvincible that a worker would be satisfied with the job exclusively because of high wage. Yang and Wang (2013) found that wage affected job satisfaction significantly. Satisfaction with the job overall is related to engagement (Harter, Schmidt and Hayes, 2002) and commitment (Currivan, 1999; Lok and Crawford, 1999; MacKenzie, Podsakoff and Aheame, 1998; Benkhoff, 1997). Although Sharma, Goel and Sengupta's (2017) study reported that workers' income had no relevance to their level of engagement. This cast doubt on the general assumption that pay is the most important predictor of

employees' job satisfaction, as many seemed to have claimed (Duffy, Autin and Bott, 2015; Meyerding, 2015; Carr and Mellizo, 2013; Schweitzer, Chianello and Kothari, 2013).

Ogba (2008) mentioned, over a decade ago, that there was a gap in the literature that establishes the association between employees' income and commitment, which to date stands true as not many studies covered these topics. His investigation on Nigerian banking staff found that higher level of income is associated with low commitment. One of the explanations provided was that employees' expression of commitment to an organisation could be due to the fear that leaving their jobs may lead to limited job alternatives. Could this mean that lower income workers have a higher level of commitment because often low-earning workers lack the qualifications and skills required to be hired for higher-level jobs? This investigation could possibly shed some light on this argument as the housekeeping roles are allegedly low paid jobs. Another later study reported a non-significant association between pay and continuance commitment (Valaei and Rezaei, 2016).

As for related hospitality research, a longitudinal study by Murray (2020) that collected data between 1999 and 2016 in Canada reported that a decent wage all along maintained a high rank in the list of factors that contribute to job satisfaction, followed by good working conditions. He further claimed that 'the value of specific rewards and the motives to satisfy them shift over time, influenced by the relative intensity of needs and the context of external events' (p.1). George, Omuudu and Francis' (2020) study of 208 hotel staff in Uganda reported that financial rewards and career development options are positively related to employee engagement and that engaged workers are committed to their work. Another study that incorporated 190 questionnaire responses from 25 hotels in Ghana (Amissah *et al.*, 2016) revealed that factors that contribute to hotel workers' job satisfaction are pay, training and promotion prospects. Although the workers were slightly satisfied with the benefits and rewards, they were not satisfied with the work itself, which affected their level of commitment. Jung and Yoon's (2015) empirical research results drawn from 314 South Korean hotel workers ascertained that pay and work benefits have a significant effect on engagement and in turn their withdrawal decisions. Along these lines, an experimental study indicated that hospitality firms can attract and retain talent by offering higher levels of benefits and

they must communicate what is being offered to potential hires (Jolly, Self and Gordon, 2020). Others made direct claim that 'money motivates employees to stay' (Vasquez, 2014, p.10). Lam, Zhang and Baum's (2001) study also pointed out that pay followed by career options were the most significant factors that contribute to job satisfaction and that the workers were not satisfied with their monetary benefits.

It appears that wage is a crucial factor for hospitality workers to be satisfied and in turn be engaged and committed, whereas many other non-hospitality related studies failed to establish any correlation among the variables. This is not unexpected as hotel jobs are persistently branded as 'low paid jobs' (Rosemberg and Li, 2018; Knox *et al.*, 2015; Harris, Tregidga and Williamson, 2011; Vanselow *et al.*, 2010; Eriksson and Li, 2009; Harris, 2009; Kandasamy and Ancheri, 2009; Hunter Powell and Watson, 2006). A US-based study that included 143 hospitality workers (Putra, Cho and Liu, 2017), however, testified that extrinsic or financial rewards do not necessarily undermine an individual's intrinsic motivation. This study results suggested that management needed to understand the importance of creating a good working environment and making jobs more exciting and meaningful because these intrinsic rewards help workers to be more engaged at work. In light of this, this research investigates how important wage is to the housekeeping workers and if they are satisfied with their income. This is because it has been established that workers' feeling of satisfaction with organisational inputs contributes to desirable outputs.

Job Insecurity

The term job insecurity refers to workers' feeling of threat of unemployment or drastic and unintentional change to the current job situation (Ali *et al.*, 2020; Karatepe, Rezapouraghdam and Hassannia, 2020; Etehadi and Karatepe, 2019). Job insecurity is the outcome of an HRM approach that attempts to utilise labour resources flexibly by introducing atypical or non-standard or non-formal employment contracts, such as part-time, fixed-term, casual, zero hours work contracts (Gutiérrez-Barbarrusa, 2016; Zeytinoglu and Cooke, 2005). This creates precarious work conditions for workers because such atypical employment contracts translate to economic insecurity due to non-permanent work arrangement (Kalleberg, 2009; Standing, 2008; Fudge and

Owens, 2006). Another common outcome of flexible utilisation of labour force is labour market segmentation or duality in the labour market (Bentolila, Dolado and Jimeno, 2019), initially argued by Atkinson (1987). According to the theory, workers are fragmented into two segments; (i) primary or core workers who have stable jobs with relatively better trainings, rewards and career options, and (ii) secondary or peripheral workers whose job conditions are instable and precarious (Zeytinoglu and Cooke, 2005), also known as contingent workers (Deery and Jago, 2002) or peripheral labour force (Allan, 1998) or casual labour (Standing, 2008).

This segmentation of labour force necessarily divides the managerial attitude and treatment towards workers raising the issue of fairness and organisational justice. 'Justice in the labour market means similar workers should be treated alike ... Injustice exists when an individual (or a group) perceives that similar others get unaccounted-for higher (or lower) rewards' (Moore, 2016, part II chapter 8). Feeling of job insecurity has been linked to organisational justice (Ouyang *et al.*, 2015). Some particularly indicated procedural justice (Loi, Lam and Chan, 2012). Job-insecured workers tend to hold low perception of organisational justice causing distrust in the organisation and eroding the PC between the workers and the employer, which has an impact on their wellbeing (Kausto *et al.*, 2005). Consistent to the uncertainty management model, which postulates that 'people use perceptions of fair and unfair treatment to cope with uncertainty...when people feel uncertain, they have especially strong concerns about fairness' (Van den Bos and Lind, 2002, p.1).

Job insecurity increases workers' psychological strain (Vander Elst *et al.*, 2014) which negatively impact work attitude and challenge their psychological well-being (De Witte, 2005; Sverke and Hellgren, 2002; De Witte 1999), affecting their overall job performance (Darvishmotevali, Arasli and Kilic, 2017; Shoss, 2017) and job satisfaction (Ouyang *et al.*, 2015). This perception of insecurity has been compared to powerlessness (Greenhalgh and Rosenblatt, 1984) which also impedes their self-efficacy (Etehad and Karatepe, 2019). Sverke, and associates' (2002) meta-analytic research comprising of 38,531 responses reported that the absence of job security impacts workers' commitment, job satisfaction and involvement, trust and intention to leave. A later meta-analysis also found similar results (Cheng and Chan, 2008). The detrimental consequences of job insecurity are said to be much more profound among

manual workers (Sverke, Hellgren and Näswall, 2002), temporary contract holders and less educated individuals (Keim *et al.*, 2014; Kinnunen and Nätti, 1994). Job insecurity affects workers performance by affecting their work engagement (Wang, Lu and Siu, 2015). Other studies also established that job insecurity triggers job dissatisfaction, lower commitment and performance and adversely affect workers physical and mental health (Jiang and Lavaysse, 2018; Lee *et al.*, 2018; Rosenblatt, Talmud and Ruvio, 1999) increasing turnover intention (Lambert, Lynne Hogan and Barton, 2001). Because the effect of uncertainty is twofold, cognitive: referring to the inability to predict future events and social: the feeling of not belonging to or valued by team members (Van den Bos and Lind, 2002).

Job insecurity is a widely discussed topic for hospitality workers. A Chinese study that included 257 hotel employees reported that the feeling of job insecurity corrodes work engagement and heightens absenteeism and other undesirable behaviours (Karatepe, Rezapouraghdam and Hassannia, 2020). Job insecurity adversely affects hotel workers' subjective well-being, which in turn affects their performance, a research result with a sample of 250 participants from 13 hotels in Iran reported (Darvishmotevali and Ali, 2020). Another doctoral research that collected 288 survey questionnaires from nine hotels in Cyprus reported that job insecurity as a psychological strain impacts workers performance and that supportive management and workers' intrinsic motivation could work as buffers against the insecurity (Darvishmotevali, 2016). An older study with a sample size of 149 in Serbia also reported similar results (Vujičić *et al.*, 2015) found that hospitality workers' commitment positively correlated with variables of job satisfaction and insecurity was negatively associated with commitment and variables of job satisfaction. This investigation could disclose whether job insecurity is something of paramount importance to the HOS or not.

3.5.2.2. Intrinsic Job Attributes

Job Demand-Resource Model

The Job Demand Resources (JD-R) model is useful to comprehend an important intrinsic aspect of job that contributes to job satisfaction. JD-R theorises that a highly demanding work context, particularly one that burdens workers with high physical and psychological labour, produces excessive energy consumption (Bakker and Demerouti, 2017; Demerouti and Bakker, 2011). Job demands are not always harmful, but could become a job stressor if role ambiguity or time pressure is present and meeting the demands necessitates great effort potentially evoking strain, thereby prompting adverse responses (Hakanen and Roodt, 2012). This could compromise employee well-being, thus, damaging organisational outcome (Urien, Osca and García-Salmones, 2017), such as chronic fatigue, burnout or exhaustion (inverse of engagement) (Bakker and Demerouti, 2007). Job resources refer to the physical, psychological and social resources available to the worker, for instance support from management and peers, autonomy, feedback on performance and time control, which are functional in the achievement of work targets (Bakker and Demerouti, 2017; Demerouti and Bakker, 2011). Sufficient job resources produce positive outcome such as engagement (Rattrie, Kittler and Paul, 2020; Schaufeli and Bakker, 2004), dedication and commitment among workers (Bakker, Demerouti and Schaufeli, 2003). Disparities between demand and resources could lead to poorer commitment, which could give way to turnover intentions (Back *et al.*, 2020).

The concept of JD-R can be compared to Herzberg's motivation-hygiene theory. Without the availability of resources (motivators or intrinsic factors), workers will execute their jobs as demanded, but with suitable resources, workers will increase their contributions and surpass the minimum requirements (Bakker and Demerouti, 2014). This also hints to the notion of the social exchange relationship, whereby workers' belief in organisational obligation fulfilment by the provision of job resources, creates the feelings of PC fulfilment resulting in job satisfaction and commitment to the organisation (Birtch, Chiang and Van Esch, 2016; Karatepe and Ngeche, 2012). Increase in job resources increases job satisfaction among workers (Tims, Bakker and Derks, 2013) and workers are more likely to stay with the organisation (Karatepe and

Ngeche, 2012), because job resources positively influence general well-being, work engagement (Radic *et al*, 2020; Lesener, Gusy, and Wolter, 2019; Xanthopoulou *et al.*, 2009), and lack of job resources causes disengagement and demotivation (Demerouti *et al.*, 2001).

Using the JD-R model on a sample size of 286 hotel workers in Nigeria, Ojedokun and associates (2013) reported that favourable perception of organisational support and high self-efficacy are some resources that buffer workers against job demands by making them less susceptible to burnout. In an earlier study, Karatepe and Ngeche (2012) compared JD-R to the principles of SET. Their empirical research including 212 hotel employees in Cameroon reported that employees with adequate job resources tend to recompense their organisation by being more engaged and reporting other positive organisational outcomes, for instance enhanced performance and low turnover intentions. An older empirical research observed that when workload increased in housekeeping department, staff turnover increased too, however, the statistical tests were futile in showing any significant correlation between occupancy level or workload and turnover (Johnson, 1985). This may suggest that attempting to explain turnover decision based on workload is not as straight forward as it may appear (Kilbridge, 1961). Researchers typically agree that hotel jobs are high in job demand; hence, this investigation could find out HOS' experiences of job demand and the resources available to them.

Job Dimension

The dimensions of the job itself play a vital role in the formation of the feeling of satisfaction among workers (Birtch, Chiang and Van Esch, 2016; Zhao et al, 2016). Hackman and Oldham (1975) proposed a model to analyse job dimensions, known as Job Characteristics Model or Job Diagnostic Survey. According to the model, there are five core dimensions that contribute to internal motivation (motivating potential) of the worker. (a) Skill Variety represents the extent of skills and talents used to carry out the job responsibilities (Hackman and Oldham, 1976). (b) Task Identity signifies the completion of a substantial piece of work, i.e. 'doing a job from beginning to end with a visible outcome' (Hackman and Oldham, 1976, p.257). (c) Task Significance is the

impact of the jobs in the organisation. (d) Autonomy is 'the experience of decision-making power over elements related to the organisation and execution of a task' (Lopes and Garibaldi de Hilal, 2016, p. 291). The higher the autonomy score the greater the experience of responsibility for work outcomes (Hackman and Oldham, 1975). (e) Feedback Internal and External knowledge of results, in other words, the information about the effectiveness of one's performance, is increased when one receives feedback (Hackman and Oldham, 1975).

Hackman and Oldham (1975; 1976) advocated that an increase in any of the core job dimensions will result in an increase in the motivating potential, and that change in any of the three major components- skill variety, task identity and task significance, will change the motivating potential accordingly. This is because core job dimensions elicit three critical psychological states among workers- meaningfulness, responsibility and knowledge of results (Behson, Eddy and Lorenzet, 2000; Rungtusanatham and Anderson, 1996.), that contribute to their job satisfaction (Katsikea *et al.*, 2011), work motivation and in turn enhance their work involvement and reduce turnover intention (Loher *et al.*, 1985). However, practitioners were warned that a job high in motivating potential will appeal to people with strong need for accomplishment and growth, but if people are not that way inclined then they can be 'uncomfortably "stretched" by it' (Hackman and Oldham, 1975, p. 160). This was also confirmed in Loher *et al.*'s (1985) meta-analytic study.

The model recommended job enrichment as an approach to increase the motivational potential of the job, where needed, thereby enhancing the likelihoods for workers well-being and experiences of responsibility, growth, achievement and recognition (Raza and Nawaz, 2011). Job enrichment has been proven to directly influence workers' attitudes and behaviours, such as affective commitment (Magaji, Akpa, and Akinlabi, 2017; Whittington *et al.*, 2013). Another study found a relationship between job enrichment and commitment but not intention to leave, rather, it was the engagement that prevented workers from intending to leave (Putri and Setianan, 2019). This could be because job enrichment is said to benefit workers with high need for growth, but not everyone, which is consistent with the original model (Loher *et al.*, 1985). Therefore, it may be that before redesigning any job, management needs to understand where the workers stand concerning their need and growth profile,

otherwise instead of increasing well-being and positive experiences, it may burden workers with unnecessary stress.

Regarding job dimension in the hospitality work context, numerous investigations have been carried out to assess work attitudes and motivation. A research using 222 hotel employees from northern Poland testified that task significance is the key driver of work engagement among hotel workers (Grobelna, 2019). Ozturk, Hancer and Im (2014) investigated the association between job characteristics and affective commitment and job satisfaction with 252 hotel workers in Turkey, and reported that workplace interaction, job feedback and work autonomy were the main determining factors and that a positive relationship was established between job satisfaction and affective commitment. Another study of 1241 temporary service industry workers in the USA demonstrated that all five job characteristics were positively connected to commitment and job satisfaction (Slattery *et al.*, 2010). Bartlett (2007) indicated that job characteristics theory is a reliable construct to study job satisfaction among the workers in the hospitality industry. The results revealed that workers' perceived job characteristics influence job satisfaction. Lam and Zhang (2003) studied 203 employees from the hospitality industry in Hong Kong to examine job satisfaction, commitment and several job characteristics, finding that both job satisfaction and organisational commitment were influenced by job aspects like job security, friendly colleagues, meaningfulness, sense of achievement and challenge in the work. The question that arises here is, how can management enhance the motivating potential if workers do not have a high growth need? In this case, would job enrichment be feasible at all?

To summarise, job-related factors that can contribute to the development of positive psychological emotions of workers could be understood by understanding the factors that influence the feelings of job satisfaction. Job satisfaction is an umbrella term, representing 'a set of affective responses to job characteristics, is assessed as judgment-based, cognitive evaluations of characteristics or dimensions of jobs' (Hulin and Judge, 2003, p.255). It is complex and multifaceted, and its meaning can vary for different people (Aziri, 2011). Satisfaction with one's job is said to be an emotional reaction to the job (Hirschfeld, 2000; Cranny, Smith and Stone, 1992) guided by one's unique situations, for instance expectations, needs and values (De Witte and

Buitendach, 2005). Therefore it is a personal estimation of the job conditions (Schneider and Snyder, 1975) based on the factors that are important to them (Sempene, Rieger and Roodt, 2002). It, therefore, is not 'an absolute measure but merely an indicator for a range of job characteristics' (Sell and Cleal, 2011, p. 3).

It appears that job satisfaction, comprised of intrinsic and extrinsic job attributes that relate to the fulfilment of numerous ever-changing human needs and organisational-level variables (Rainey, 2009), has a close tie with motivational theories, organisational justice and social exchange theory. Herzberg's two-factor theory posits that hygiene or extrinsic factors prevent dissatisfaction but contribute little to satisfaction and that happiness cannot be purchased with money (Sachau, 2007; Kasser, 2002; Kahneman, Diener, and Schwarz, 1999). The overarching assumption of Herzberg's theory, in line with positive psychology, is that happiness is not just the absence of unhappiness (Sachau, 2007; Aspinwall and Staudinger, 2003; Seligman and Csikszentmihalyi, 2000). But from the discussion in the section earlier, it is palpable that it *is* the extrinsic job factors such as pay and satisfaction with pay and job security that give way to fairness and justice issues. Can intrinsic job attributes overcome workers' injustice perceptions, if this exists?

The factors discussed here were associated to the job directly. There is another crucial facet which impacts heavily on the outcome of workers' employment experience: *line management*, explored in the following subsection.

3.5.3. Factors Linked to the Line Management

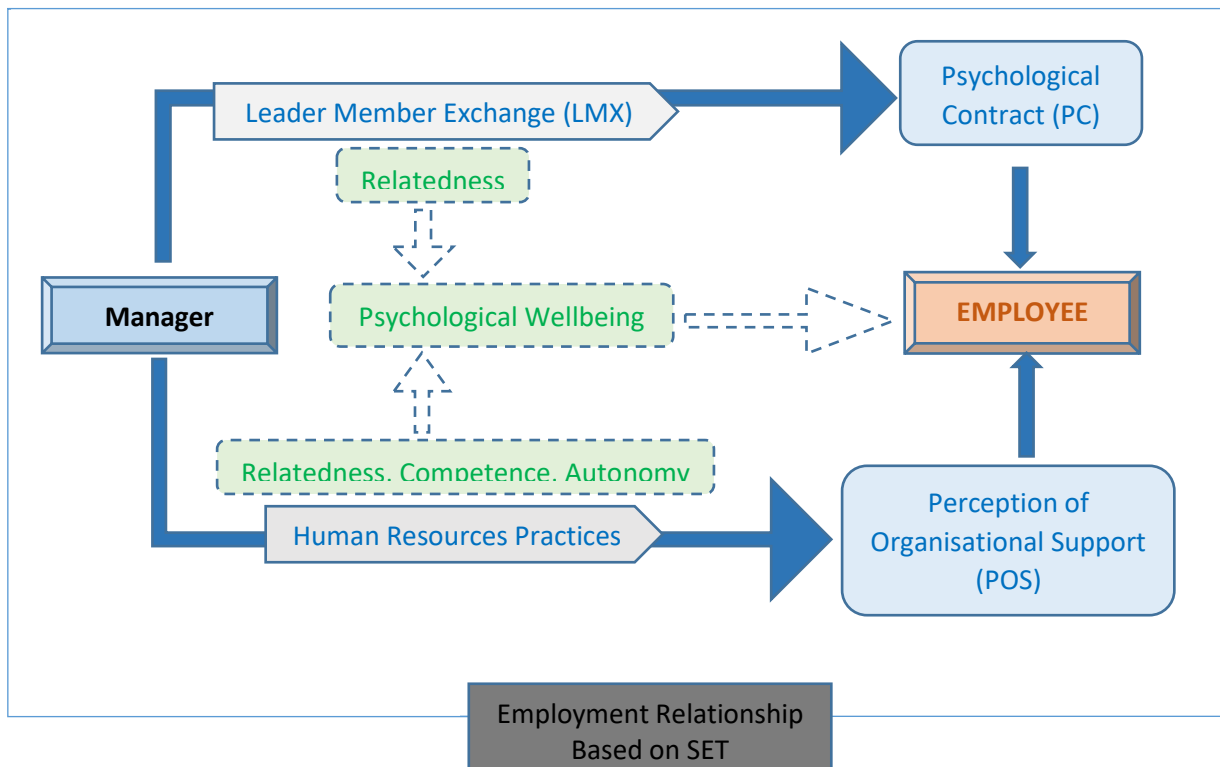
It was established at the start that the employment relationship is formed of people (O'Donovan, 2019), based on social exchange relationship (Jepsen and Rodwell, 2010; Bentein and Guerrero, 2008; Blau, 1964) and it is a process, subject to continuous development (Keeley, 1988). The employment process involves at least two exchange relationships, one with the organisation and the other with the manager (Tekleab and Chiaburu, 2010). But since an organisation is an abstract entity, the more pertinent social exchange that a worker experiences is with the manager (Landry, Panaccio, and Vandenberghe, 2010). Therefore, managers are the ones who initiate

and maintain the employment relationship by supervising and managing the team (Panaccio and Vandenberghe, 2011; Shanock and Eisenberger, 2006; Kidd and Smewing, 2001; Graen *et al.*, 1977) as well as representing the organisation to the workers (Farh, Podsakoff and Organ, 1990). One study demonstrated that manager's support negatively influences hotel housekeeping worker's turnover intention (Arachchi and Dahanayake, 2020).

Earlier in the chapter two types of SET were explored, psychological contract (PC) perceived organisational support (POS). PC has a direct relationship with the manager (Metz *et al.*, 2017; Guest and Conway, 2000; Schein, 1980). POS is the organisational-level support but as the managers are the representing bodies of the organisation, the responsibility of providing support to workers also lies with them. Because organisation is a lifeless abstract, it is the management, comprised of people, who set the organisational goals and objectives and it is the managers who action on materialising the set goals and objectives by implementing suitable HR practices.

The notion that employees' positive psychological well-being leads to desirable organisational outcome, such as employee engagement, is however, 'contingent upon the employee-organisation and employee-manager relationships' (Alfes *et al.*, 2013, p. 344) and based on the psychological needs fulfilment as outlined in the SDT. To holistically understand how the managers support the employment relationship in a way that fulfils the basic psychological needs- relatedness, competence and autonomy, that contribute to the positive psychological emotion of workers, it warrants an understanding of the exchange relationships that take place in the organisation. The discussion in this section is divided into two subsections. The first part explores the role of the PC that plays in the relationship development with the manager and the second part examines how managers help in the forming of workers' perceptions of organisational support.

Figure 3.4: Impact of LMX and HR practices on employee's PC, POS and psychological wellbeing



Source: Researcher's own design

3.5.3.1. Manager's Support- at Individual Level

Psychological contract (PC) is an unwritten (Schein, 1980), subjective (Zhao *et al.*, 2007), implicit and perceived set of exchange-based promises (Conway and Pekcan, 2019), generally developed at an individual level (Edwards and Karau, 2007), between the employee and the employer. PC is the belief process of mutual obligations and 'these obligations grow from the promises made as employment arrangements are started and sustained, from the hiring process through day-to-day interactions' (Rousseau and Schalk, 2000, p.1). PC is also influenced by pre-employment experiences (Coyle-Shapiro and Parzefall, 2008) and the early stage socialisation exercises (Rousseau, 2001). In line with these observations, De Vos, Buyens and Schalk's (2003) four-wave longitudinal study among 333 new recruits reported that during the initial socialisation period new hires make sense of promises depending on the interpretations of the experiences they encounter in the work place. The formation

of the contract is further influenced by the contextual norms, background factors (Guest, 2004) and the social information (Ho, 2005; Rousseau and Schalk, 2000). It is therefore crucial in the understanding of the employment relationship and its progress over time (Cassar and Briner, 2011; Zhao *et al.*, 2007).

Rousseau (2001) proposed to consider PC as schema, which changes over time with new information and experiences. In effect, an employee's PC starts to form even before being hired and once hired, the individual's schema accumulates information from various sources and stages of the employment process. For instance, at the start of the employment with hiring process and early stage socialisation activities, and during the employment with day-to-day interactional experiences, all of which happen within certain contexts and social norms. In this developing process of PC, managers play the role of the primary contract makers (Stanton *et al.*, 2010; Dabos and Rousseau, 2004; Coyle-Shapiro and Kessler, 2000), which is critical in communicating the reciprocal obligations (Guest and Conway, 2000). The manager's attitude and behaviour towards workers partially dictates if the terms of the PC are fulfilled (Metz *et al.*, 2017) and effective communication lessens perceived breach of the contract (Guest and Conway, 2002). PC fulfilment and non-fulfilment have bearings on workers' behaviours and reactions to work situations (O'Leary-Kelly *et al.*, 2014).

Even though PC is not an explicit or legal contract, perceived breach, an 'inherently subjective phenomenon' (Robinson and Morrison, 2000, p. 526), could have dire consequences for the organisation (Turnley *et al.*, 2003; Lester *et al.*, 2002). Because it is based on promises, not just regular expectations, breach provokes intense affective responses, both attitudinal and behavioural, among workers (Zhao *et al.*, 2007; Johnson and O'Leary-Kelly, 2003). For overly committed workers PC breach can prove even more detrimental for their psychological well-being (Reimann, 2016). Studies have linked PC breach to a wide array of destructive outcomes, such as poor in-role performance, low job satisfaction and turnover intentions (Zhao *et al.*, 2007; Turnley *et al.*, 2003; Robinson, Kraatz and Rousseau, 1994). In contrast, perceived contract fulfilment heightens psychological wellbeing (Cassar and Buttigieg, 2015; Briner, 2000) and workers reciprocate by contributing positive behaviours (Turnley *et al.*, 2003; Lester *et al.*, 2002). These positive behaviours include enhanced employee engagement (Bal, Kooij and DeJong, 2013), commitment (Fontinha, Chambel and

Cuyper, 2014; Shore and Barksdale, 1998), work performance (Conway and Coyle-Shapiro, 2012; Rousseau, 2010), OCB (Turnley *et al.*, 2003), organisational identification (Zagenczyk *et al.*, 2011) and employment duration (Rousseau, 2010), all of which reduce the turnover intentions (Collins, 2010; Zhao *et al.*, 2007; Shore and Barksdale, 1998).

There has been indication that PC has its roots attached to psychological needs (Meckler, Drake and Levinson, 2003), so when fulfilled by the employer, it contributes to desirable work-related behaviours and the opposite is true when left unmet. In addition, the construct of PC has also been linked to fairness (Briner, 2000) and organisational justice (Cassar and Buttigieg, 2015; Cox and Griffiths, 2010; Guest, 2004), because breaches send the message that the individual has been denied the desired outcomes and benefits and that the person is not appreciated or cared for by the organisation (Kiewitz *et al.*, 2009), which translates into a feeling of unfair treatment (Kickul and Lester, 2001). Understanding PC could offer managers a practical framework to manage employment relationship (Guest and Conway, 2002).

There are two types of PC, transactional and relational (Robinson, Kraatz and Rousseau, 1994). *Transactional* PC refers to 'short-term, monetizable agreements with limited involvement of each party in the lives and activities of the other' (Rousseau and McLean Parks, 1993, p.10). *Relational* PC is a more long-term agreement based on social and emotional exchange (De Cuyper and De Witte, 2006) that includes both elements, socioemotional, such as support, security, loyalty, and monetizable, such as growth in the organisation and pay for service (Rousseau and McLean Parks, 1993). Now the question arises, where do the managers role fit in this process and how?

The theory that deals with the nature and quality of the relationship that develops between a manager (or leader in theoretical terms) and a subordinate (or follower in theoretical terms) is called leader-member exchange (LMX) theory, which could predict individual, group and organisational-level outcomes (Power, 2013; Gerstner and Day, 1997). The quality of LMX has been recognised as an instrument to express support to workers (Wayne *et al.*, 1999), which acts as an antecedent to workers' perceptions of PC breach (Restubog, Bordia, and Bordia, 2011; Taylor and Tekleab 2004). In the higher rating LMX relationship, leaders provide support, advice, feedback

and growth opportunities to members, and members reciprocate with increased contribution and commitment in return (Sparrowe and Liden, 2005). Contrariwise, low-quality LMX contributes to workers intention to turnover (Borchgrevink, Cichy and Mykletun, 2001; Maslyn and Uhl-Bien, 2001). The perception of similarity aide superior quality LMX (Engle and Lord, 1997) and the perception factor has been found to be more critical than real demographic resemblances, such as age, gender, nationality or ethnicity (Murphy and Ensher, 1999).

The LMX theory posits that the relationship between the manager and each worker is likely to vary in quality, thus, creating an 'in-group' with open and trusting relations and an 'out-group' with poor interpersonal relations (Lunenburg, 2010; Sparrowe and Liden, 2005; Yu and Liang, 2004; Graen and Uhl-Bien, 1995). In-group members' relationships are based on mutual respect, trust and obligation (Graen and Uhl-Bien, 1995). As a result, they exhibit higher levels of self-efficacy and are perceived as likable and similar in personality by the manager (Murphy and Ensher, 1999). Out-group members' relationships are founded merely on the terms defined in the contract of employment (Furnes *et al.*, 2015; Bolino and Turnley, 2009; Graen and Uhl-Bien, 1995) with nominal trust and support-based exchanges (Deluga, 1998). This in-group and out-group dyad is alleged to be undesirable because out-group members might resent the differential treatment by the manager or inferior status in the organisation (Yukl, 2010; McClane, 1991). The idea of in-group and out-group shares similarities with transactional and relational PC, where in-group members are privileged with relational PC, while out-group members' relationships represent transactional PC.

Studies have found that high-quality LMX promotes employee commitment (Konja, Grubic-Nesic and Lalic, 2012; Nystrom, 1990), influences the process of employee engagement, thus enhancing work role performance (Chaurasia and Shukla, 2014) and job satisfaction (Hapsari, Stoffers and Gunawan, 2019; Chen, Lam, and Zhong, 2007) and could partially mediate turnover intention (Agarwal *et al.*, 2012). One investigation by Breevaart and colleagues (2015) reported that LMX could increase the availability of job resources, which could directly enhance employee engagement by the quality of LMX (support from management- Bakker and Demerouti, 2017; Demerouti and Bakker, 2011) and indirectly through the influence of LMX on the accessibility of resources to the workers, such as through growth opportunities. The

indirect route applies particularly to workers who have trouble building their own resources (peer support, time control- Bakker and Demerouti, 2017; Demerouti and Bakker, 2011) due to strict work rules of the lack of proactive behaviour. A meta-analytic research (Gerstner and Day, 1997) concluded that a superior relationship between manager and worker could positively impact the whole work experience which may include performance and other affective outcomes. Studies have suggested that LMX is an important factor contributing to workers' psychological need satisfaction (relatedness, competence and autonomy), which in turn enhances positive work attitudes, because workers who claim high-quality LMX seem to have higher sense of need satisfaction (Graves and Luciano, 2013).

Rousseau (1998, p.151) rightly addressed 'the parallels between PC to LMX are striking. There is no relationship without trust and no contract will be entered into without a base of good faith and fair dealing'. Some scholars consider LMX as a leadership style (Erdogan and Bauer, 2014; Liu *et al.*, 2013) while others claim LMX is 'a model of leadership which shows how patterns from dyadic leadership relationships affect work unit structural differential into emergent leadership groups and non-leadership groups' (Seers, 2004, p.17). My understanding is LMX defines the strength of relationships between the manager and workers in organisational settings (Barbuto and Hayden, 2011), but the manager can still decide on an approach to manage the team depending on the context.

Theorists in this subject have proposed a few leadership styles that managers implement and a few researchers have linked employee commitment to the leadership approach or style (Yiing and Ahmad, 2009; Lok and Crawford, 2004; Yousef, 2000). A manager's leadership style is a relatively consistent pattern of behaviours and attitudes to resolve various organisational issues (Randeree and Chaudhry, 2012; Awan and Mahmood, 2010; Omolayo, 2007; Dubrin, 2004). Leadership is also called a social influence process (Bhatti *et al.*, 2012; Omolayo, 2007). It has been claimed that organisational success is derived from managing its people effectually more than anything else because to achieve profit through human resources involves constant leadership attention (Pfeffer, 1998). From the relationship point of view, at the heart of the leadership theories is the theory of leader-member exchange (LMX) (Dansereau, Graen and Haga, 1975), which considers leadership as a process involving interaction

between the two parties (Kaminskas, Bartkus and Pilinkus, 2011) or more like a social influencing process (Naile and Selesho, 2014) that occurs within a particular organisational context (Seers, 2004).

Theorists in the leadership literature have proposed a few styles with two sides of the spectrum. There is *Task-oriented Vs Interpersonally Oriented*, which posits that some managers decide to focus more on the tasks or the production side of the business, while others focus on the interpersonal relationship or the people (Eagly and Johannesen-Schmidt, 2001; House, 1996; Luthar, 1996; Bass, 1990). Then there is *Transactional and Transformational Leadership* which suggests that some managers focus primarily on the transactional exchange relationship with workers (Bass, 1990), while others decide to act as a role model by developing trust-based relationships, mentoring and empowering workers and transforming them (Eagly and Johannesen-Schmidt, 2001). There is *Autocratic vs Democratic Leadership*; Autocratic managers like directing and discourage workers in the decision-making process, while democratic managers encourage worker participation in decision-making (Eagly and Johnson, 1990). Although, the notion of leadership styles has revolutionised, historically, it started with 'command-and-control' that prevailed during the 1980s, followed by 'empower-and-track' through the 1990s to the mid-2000s and then came the 'connect-and-nurture' (Buchanan, 2013), none of the theories is entirely irrelevant (Khan, Nawaz and Khan, 2016).

Literature has also pointed out that different leadership styles can be performed by the same manager in various circumstances, for instance, a manager can be autocratic in some situations and be open and participative in other occasions (House and Mitchell, 1975). A manager's skills play a role, for example, a manager who has a higher level of interpersonal skills may be more inclined to lead the team democratically, whereas a manager lacking such skills is likely to lead autocratically (Eagly and Johnson, 1990). The effectiveness of the manager will be affected by the characteristics of the workers and other environmental factors, so to be effective the manager needs to behave in accordance with the situation (Stogdill, 1974).

Leadership research in the hospitality sector did not fall behind. Amisshah *et al.*'s (2016, p.179) study established that leadership approach is one of the contributing factors for

hotel workers' job satisfaction. Their respondents expressed that they want their managers to be 'cordial, always available to provide direction and who understand and know the job'. Incorporating 234 new starters from 63 hotels in Taiwan, Chen and Wu's (2020) research conveyed that managers' transformational leadership approach positively affects newly started employees' perceived supervisor support, performance and intention to continue. Although, Patiar and Wang's (2016) study based in Australia on hotel managers, stated that hotel managers rely heavily on transactional leadership. A relatively older research by Clark, Hartline and Jones (2009) that drew data from 199 hotels based in the USA reported that dictatorship or autocratic style is unsuited to the requirements of the hotel environment, which supported claims made by other scholars (Hartline and Ferrell 1996; Bowen and Schneider 1985). They also pointed out that the participative approach does not achieve many positive outcomes because even though workers were allowed input in the decision-making process, their inputs were not implemented. They concluded with a recommendation that the transformational approach would suit the service environment better.

To summarise the key topics discussed in this subsection, it is apparent that understanding the construct of PC could offer managers a useful framework to manage the employment relationship (Guest and Conway, 2002). PC is also a key factor in a manager's choice of leadership style because it guides what is asked of people, how they are being controlled, organised and rewarded (Handy, 1999). Therefore, to decide on an appropriate leadership approach depending on the contextual clues, it is essential to ensure that a high-quality LMX relationship is being promoted. Because high-quality LMX is based on support, trust and feedback (Sparrowe and Liden, 2005) which contribute to the fulfilment of psychological needs (Graves and Luciano, 2013) and provide positive justice perception to workers (Cassar and Buttigieg, 2015; Cox and Griffiths, 2010). When workers feel that their PC have been met they reciprocate with desirable organisational outcomes, such as engagement (Bal, Kooij and DeJong, 2013) and commitment (Fontinha, Chambel and Cuyper, 2014; Shore and Barksdale, 1998). More importantly, what is implied here is that a manager's relationship with workers and the approach of managing the team can support the basic psychological need of relatedness. My questions for the research here is: what sort of LMX relationship exists in London hotel housekeeping?

3.5.3.2. Manager's Support- at Organisational Level

The social exchange theory that is particularly dedicated to organisational-level exchanges is called Organisational Support Theory (OST). The theory postulates that an organisation receives its employing workers' commitment depending on the extent to which workers believe that their socioemotional needs are being fulfilled and that the organisation values their contribution and cares about their psychological wellbeing (Rhoades and Eisenberger, 2002; Eisenberger *et al.*, 1986). Workers' perceptions of the organisational-level support or POS is formed depending on the level of support available to them. Higher level of POS is likely to result in increased sense of obligation and affective attachment to the organisation (Shore and Wayne, 1993). Numerous theoretical and empirical studies have linked POS to job satisfaction (Liu *et al.*, 2018; Eisenberger *et al.*, 1997), engagement (Gupta, Agarwal and Khatri, 2016), affective commitment (Wong and Wong, 2017; Gupta, Agarwal and Khatri, 2016; Wayne, Shore and Liden, 1997; Eisenberger, Fasolo and Davis-LaMastro, 1990) and citizenship behaviours (Kurtessis *et al.*, 2017; Bell and Menguc, 2002; Shore and Wayne, 1993). Some studies have indicated that POS mediates the impacts of organisational justice and trust in organisation on workers' turnover intention (Khan, Khan and Ullah, 2017; Wong and Wong, 2017), while other studies found a direct link with POS and turnover intention (Liu *et al.*, 2018).

It can be said that there are three types of organisational support. (i) *Social Support*- reduces stress, uncertainty and psychological strain (Bentley *et al.*, 2016; Eriksson *et al.*, 2009; Osca *et al.*, 2005). (ii) *Emotional Support*- reduces emotional exhaustion (Ladebo, 2009). Sometimes social and emotional support can be intertwined and become socio-emotional support (Babalola, 2010). Friendship opportunities, respect, care and approval are examples of social and emotional support that organisations can provide. By supporting workers in a way that reduces their social and emotional stress organisations would satisfy their need for relatedness and even competence at times. (iii) *Career Support*- enhances workers' growth potentials (Tan, 2008) by increasing the competence, identity and role effectiveness (Tansky and Cohen, 2001), which satisfy their need for competence and autonomy.

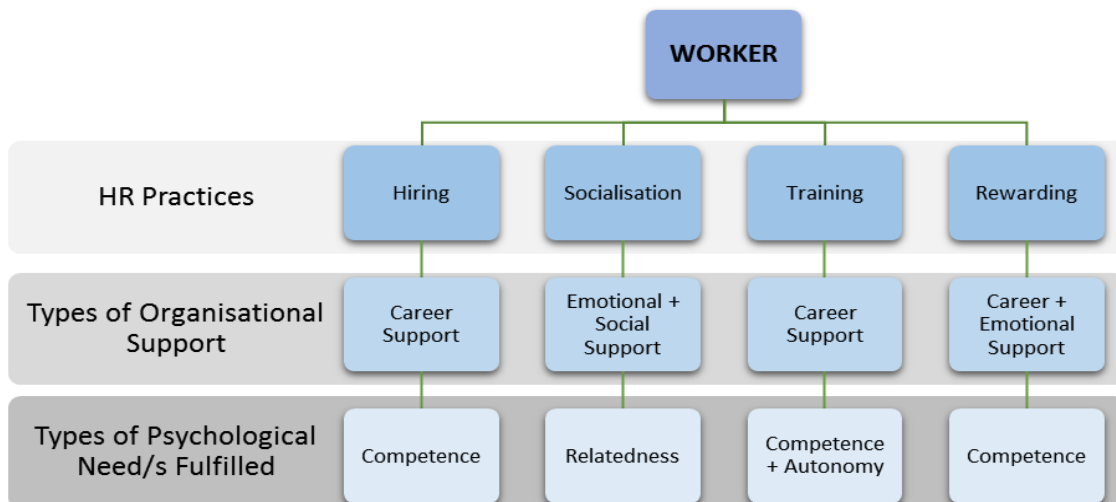
Workers' POS can affect organisational outcome heavily, but how do organisations increase their level of support to their workers? Research suggests that workers regard organisational actions, human resource practices in particular, as emblematic of personified organisational commitment towards them (Whitener, 2001; Wayne, Shore and Liden, 1997). Consistent with other social exchange theories, when workers receive greater support, they react favourably and reciprocate accordingly. Workers' perceptions of the degree to which HR practices fulfil their needs and goals is related to their commitment to the organisation and this applies to both peripheral or contingent and core or permanent workers (Chambel, Castanheira and Sobral, 2016). Although, contingent workers are said to experience work-related stress more, consequently, seek more social support (Madden *et al.*, 2017).

HRM is principally a philosophy about how people should be managed in organisational setting (Armstrong and Taylor, 2014). To put it simply, HRM is 'anything and everything associated with the management of the employment relationship of the firm' (Boxall and Purcell, 2003, p. 184). HR practices are a blend of practices implemented by organisations typically to enhance organisational performances (Boselie, Dietz and Boon, 2005). To a large extent, HR practices determine the employee-employer relationship and play an important role in moulding a worker's PC (Aggarwal, Datta and Bhargava, 2007) and signal workers that the organisation is supportive (Allen, Shore and Griffeth, 2003). Employees with a positive perception of the HRM practices are more likely to be engaged at work (Edwards, 2009) and engaged employees get more involved in citizenship behaviours and less inclined to leave the job when they have a positive relationship with the manager and feel supported by the organisation overall (Alfes *et al.*, 2013). The core message here is that- employee performance improves as the employment relationship improves (Muse and Stamper, 2007).

It has been claimed that HRM is too critical to be left to the operational-level management, thus, managers take control of the effective delivery of the policies (O'Donovan, 2019; Foot, Hook and Jenkins, 2016; Gilbert, De Winne and Sels 2011; Sanders and Frenkel 2011; Blyton and Turnbull, 1992). A manager's HR responsibilities may include communicating with workers, monitoring performance, setting objectives and goals and encouraging involvement and engagement at work

(Storey, 2007). This subsection explores the basics of the HRM cycle- hiring, integrating, training and rewarding, assuming that each of these practices will represent a form of organisational support to the workers, which together form and strengthen the employment relationship.

Figure 3.5: HR practices as a means to provide organisational-level support to workers



Source: Researcher's own design

The Hiring Process

The first and most important step of HRM is recruiting the right people (McCaleb, 1980). The foundation of the exchange relationship, that an employment relationship is based on, begins during the hiring process and continues all the way through the worker's tenure in an organisation (Aggarwal, Datta and Bhargava, 2007). Scholars have suggested a long chain of actions starting from realising the need to drafting the job description and person specification to finally hiring the person (Foot and Hook, 2008). Every stage of the process must be carefully planned to ensure that the right individuals are hired because 'the right people is likely to lead to strong engagement, in turn leading to retention, following back through to recruitment' (Brown, 2011, p.6). The saying 'first impression is the last impression' is very appropriate for this initial phase of HRM.

There are two stages that sum up the entire hiring practice. One, *the process-how the recruitment takes place*. Interview is said to be the most important step in this stage because of the communication that takes place between the two parties (Ferris, Berkson and Harris, 2002). Rynes, Bretz Jr and Gerhart (1991) explained that job choices often transpire with incomplete information about the employer, recruitment experiences supply signals of the unobservable characteristics of the employer and the overall organisation. They further added that recruitment experiences provide stronger signalling value when (i) not enough information is available about the employer, (ii) interviewers are present in the same functional area and (iii) the experiences take place at the site of the work. A study using hotel managers demonstrated that by hiring candidates through interview with the manager, matching the person with job attributes and providing a realistic job description, organisations could prevent premature departure of new recruits resulting from mismatch (Choi and Dickson, 2009). In addition, at this stage where workers start their PC development because this is when promises are made (Aggarwal, Datta and Bhargava, 2007) and based on the experience and communication about the role, the candidate would start forming PC expectations.

The other stage is *the product- who is being hired*. The most important factor to consider during this stage is the concept of person-job fit before finally hiring the person. Person-job fit denotes how closely workers' skills, knowledge and abilities are matched with the job demands (Kristof, 1996; Edwards, 1991). The closer the match between workers' skills and abilities and the requirements of the job, the better the overall result for both the organisations and the workers (McKee-Ryan and Harvey, 2011; Fine and Nevo, 2007; Kristof-Brown, Zimmerman and Johnson, 2005). A mismatch in person-job fit leads to negative job attitudes (Maynard, Joseph and Maynard, 2006; Burris, 1983). Such as diminished organisational commitment (McKee-Ryan *et al.*, 2009), low job satisfaction, higher level of discontent (Verhaest and Omey, 2006; Johnson, Morrow and Johnson, 2002; Battu, Belfield and Sloane, 2000) and overall decreased mental and psychological well-being, for example, self-esteem, optimism, locus of control, general life satisfaction and so on (Feldman, 1996). All of these contribute to workers' intention to leave (Maynard, Joseph and Maynard, 2006; Verhaest and Omey, 2006; Johnson and Johnson, 1995). When a person is hired with a good person-job fit, the initial stage PC would be completed here.

At the *process stage* of the hiring, clear knowledge of what is being asked of a worker would partially fulfil one's knowledge of competence, one of the basic psychological needs as per SDT. Workers' job performance is influenced by their competence need fulfilment. When workers experience a better fit of their skills and capabilities with the job requirements, they feel a sense of competence in executing the role thereby performing more effectively (Greguras *et al.*, 2014; Greguras and Diefendorff, 2009; Saether, 2019).

However, having stated that the recruitment process involves two stages, this may not apply to employers who recruit using unconventional routes, such as recruitment agencies, or hire low-skilled workers. An older investigation by Diamond and Bedrosian (1970) reported that many organisations hire low-skilled workers informally with no job description and person specification being one or two persons' personal ideas, which makes the hiring standard subjectively determined and personal. Their analysis results found little or no association between hiring standard and the job requirements. Could this be the case for hotel housekeeping worker recruitment, as I have disclosed in the earlier chapter that the hospitality sector follows a rather atypical hiring practice and that housekeeping jobs are stigmatised as low skilled or unskilled? Literature on this particular topic is scarce. Ample research was found that reported the use of recruitment agencies in hiring migrant workers in the UK (Alberti and Danaj, 2017; Samaluk, 2016; Alberti, 2014; Sporton, 2013; Fitzgerald and Hardy, 2010; Lucas and Mansfield, 2010; Lai, Soltani and Baum, 2008; McDowell, Batnitzky and Dyer, 2008; Dench *et al.*, 2006) but there is a dearth of research explaining how the actual recruitment takes place. For instance, to hire a HOS, what information is passed on to the agency in terms of job description and person specification and what selection criteria do these agencies implement. In addition, when work arrangements are being brokered by another mediating organisation, workers develop dual commitment complicating the employment process (Connelly, Gallagher and Gilley, 2007; Lee and Faller, 2005; Liden *et al.*, 2003; Gallagher and Parks, 2001)

It has also been claimed that word-of-mouth or referral or existing workers' social network is also used as a hiring instrument and that recruiting manager's migration background play a major part in the decision-making process (Markova *et al.*, 2016). Use of network to recruit migrant workers for low-wage jobs in the UK is said to be an

attractive channel for both the employer and the employee because this approach provides quick, easy and cost-effective access to potential workers (McCollum and Apsite-Berina, 2015; Forde and MacKenzie, 2009; Jentsch, De Lima and MacDonald, 2007). On the downside, job information becomes restricted providing job opportunities to the current ethnic, which can become 'an exclusionary practice that gives the firm a nepotistic cast' (McGovern, 2007, p.227). These unconventional hiring practices occur in the absence of a written contract, thereby depriving the workers of any awareness of the contractual agreement (Wright and Pollert, 2006). When organisations recruit workers unselectively prioritising the aspects of cost efficiency and convenience, it is known as 'warm body syndrome' commonly associated to hospitality managers (Harrison, 2010; Choi and Dickson, 2009; Simons and Hinkin, 2001; Woods, 1992). A study on the use of migrant workers by ACAS (the representing body of workplace relationship in the UK) found that organisations with well structured HR policies who formally outline how to recruit such workers, but in practice, the policies were not implemented particularly when hiring low skilled workers (McKay, 2009).

Organisations' application of hard HR practices when employing low-skilled migrant workers has been noted too (Hopkins, Dawson and Veliziotis, 2016; Soltani and Wilkinson, 2010; Forde and MacKenzie, 2009; MacKenzie and Forde, 2009; Holgate, 2005). Hard HR practices are based on calculative and resource-based notions with an assumption that workers are disposable and interchangeable units of labour (Cregan *et al.*, 2020; Jenkins and Delbridge, 2013; Forde and MacKenzie, 2009; Watson, 2007). It appears that what Diamond and Bedrosian (1970) reported half a century ago might still be true well in the 21st century and this would mean that the new recruits would miss out on the initial stage of PC development. This is because studies have proclaimed that workers' PC with the organisation starts to form at the hiring stage (Coyle-Shapiro and Parzefall, 2008; De Vos, Buyens and Schalk, 2003; Rousseau, 2001).

Socialisation Process

The literature claims that the initial entry to an organisation is a sensitive situation and can have consequential effects on the perception of organisational and job characteristics, as this is when workers' expectations are converted into realities (Burböck, Schnepf and Pessl, 2016; Wanous, 1976). Organisational socialisation refers to the new recruit's learning phase that includes accumulation of information about the skills and knowledge required to perform the tasks, the work group and knowledge about the organisation (Burböck, Schnepf and Pessl, 2016; Phillips, Esterman and Kenny, 2015; Saks and Ashforth, 1997; Fisher, 1986). The learning experience process helps in alleviating newcomers' emotional vulnerability, such as stress, anxiety, ambiguity and job uncertainty, encouraging social interaction among colleagues, stimulating learning and adapting to the new surrounding (Albrecht *et al.*, 2015; Kennedy and Berger, 1994). Bauer and Erdogan (2011) termed the process as 'onboarding' where a new worker transitions from being an organisational outsider to an organisational insider. Yang (2008, p. 430) summed up the process into 'three perspectives: role transition, learning content, and adjustment to new settings'.

During the early-stage socialisation phase newly hired workers actively seek and 'make sense of promises based on their interpretations of experiences encountered in the work setting', this sense making contribute to their PC formation (De Vos, Buyens and Schalk, 2003, p.553). This is where organisational orientation sessions are vital to inform and assimilate new entrants about the organisational practices, culture and norms and their role-specific tasks within the organisation (Myers, 2005; Anderson and Thomas, 1996; Van Maanen and Schein, 1979). Orientation or induction programmes start the socialisation process that encourages workplace friendship, which is crucial for the workers and the overall organisational performance (Kusluvan *et al.*, 2010; Anderson, Cunningham-Snell and Haigh, 1996; Riordan and Griffeth, 1995). This launches a ripple effect: 'socialization affects identification, which in turn affects internalization' (Ashforth and Mael, 1989, p. 27). Orientation programmes are thus an essential tool to foster a sense of identification between new entrants and the organisation (Cheney, 1983) and create the environment for workers to gain emotional support to perform their job responsibilities (Kram and Isabella, 1985).

By making emotional support available and making further efforts to integrate workers in the work setting, organisations fulfil workers' psychological need to belong and be related in the social environment (van Vianen, 2018). Satisfaction of needs increases workers' internalisation of organisational objectives (Vekeman, Devos and Valcke, 2018) which in turn contributes to workers' perceptions of various fits (van Vianen, 2018). Theorists have indicated few other forms of fits, such as person-group fit-harmony between individuals and their work groups (Kristof, 1996), person-organisation fit- compatibility between workers' characteristics and their organisation (Memon *et al.*, 2018; Vekeman, Devos and Valcke, 2018) and person-environment fit-compatibility between individuals and their working environment (Stoermer *et al.*, 2018; van Vianen, 2018). A new recruit's fit with the wider organisational aspects enhances the attachment to the organisation (Tyagi and Gupta, 2005).

Migrant workers' socialisation process entails 'double socialisation' (Li, 2000, p. 61) because along with the general socialisation processes at work, they are expected to participate in language learning as well as cultural practices in a new country (Roberts, 2010). This may imply that if the organisational socialisation process is not tailored to meet the needs of migrant workers, they could run the risk of social exclusion, which signifies the process that leads to a collapse of the relationship between an individual and the society (Barnes, 2002). Migrant workers' susceptibility to social exclusion has been well documented (Polanco and Zell, 2017; Rodriguez and Mearns, 2012; International Labour Organisation, 2004). It appears that migrant workers' organisational-level fit, being culturally different along with language inability, can be problematic. So, the question that surfaces here is how do hotel housekeeping managers ensure the organisational socialisation process fulfils workers' socioemotional needs prompting organisational-level fits?

Training and Developing Workers

Training is one of the key strategies for organisations to ensure that employees have the essential knowledge, skills and abilities required to perform their jobs and tackle work-related challenges (Tai, 2006). The core purpose of training is to initiate the process of workplace learning (Ashton, 2004). This is important for management

because they often view employee training as another route to increase the return on investment (Hughey and Mussnug, 1997). The theory of human capital, 'the stock of an individual's skills and knowledge' (Baum and Devine, 2007, p.271), advocates that people are intangible possessions (Donate *et al.*, 2016) whose worth can be enriched through investment (Shaw, Park and Kim, 2013). The theory is based on the premise that firms may have access to human capital, but they do not own it, workers do, thus to gain access management need to deploy strategic HRM practices (Wright, Dunford and Snell, 2001). Investing in employee training and development programmes, one of the most strategic HRM practices (Braun, Dietz and Boon, 2005), is one way to gain access. Besides, according to the Knowledge-based View (KBV) theory, knowledge is regarded as a rare resource that a firm can use to gain a competitive edge that improves performance outcomes, hence effective training schemes add to human capital or employee knowledge and increase their capabilities (Mackelprang, Jayaram and Xu; 2012). In today's world, knowledge and capability have become the keys to success for any organisation due to the easily emulated nature of physical products and infrastructures (Pfeffer, 1998). It is, thus, the human resources that make all the difference and give the company the competitive edge (Furunes, 2005; Enz and Siguaw, 2000; Nankervis and Debrah, 1995; Pfeffer, 1994).

Job specific training increases workers' self-efficacy (Mingyue *et al.*, 2020; Orpen, 1999; Martocchio and Judge, 1997), the belief that the person can achieve desired goals (Bandura, 1997). Self-efficacy is a self-judged personal belief about one's job-specific and task specific capabilities (McCormick, Tanguma and López-Forment, 2002). It is also the belief that governs workers' 'functioning through cognitive, motivational, affective and decisional processes' (Bandura, 2002, p. 270), which is said serve as 'the power of I can' (Hefferon and Boniwell, 2011, p. 104). Several studies have established association between self-efficacy and job satisfaction (Demir, 2020; Yakın and Erdil, 2012; Lent and Brown, 2006; Luthans Zhu and Avolio, 2006; Caprara *et al.*, 2003; Judge and Bono, 2001). Increased level of self-efficacy belief has proven to enhance workers' commitment, motivation, job involvement (Demir, 2020) and engagement (Yakın and Erdil, 2012). Also, to be noted here, job involvement is linked to commitment (Loui, 1995) and said to be closely related to engagement too (Brown, 1996).

Training in a one-to-one setting is perceived as the most effective form of training by many hospitality managers (Furunes, 2005). Shadowing, an effective one-to-one training, is described by Martin, Kolomitro and Lam (2014, p.16) as, it 'involves a trainee closely observing someone perform a specific job in the natural job environment for the purpose of witnessing first-hand the details of the job'. They further claimed that for a single trainee, natural working environment or on-the-job training is the most cost and time effective method. Shadowing virtually costs nothing to the company (Tyler, 2008). Besides, 'shadowing is an active and highly cognitive activity' (Hamada, 2011, p. 60) that seems to tick all the three boxes of key sensory means used in conveying training content, (i) visual: learning by seeing, (ii) auditory: learning by hearing and (iii) kinaesthetic: learning by doing (acronym VAK) (Martin, Kolomitro and Lam, 2014; Lujan and DiCarlo, 2006). Research on shadowing in the hotel housekeeping context, however, remains an untapped area, even though it is one of the most effective forms of training.

Organisations induce career support by provisioning job-related training, thereby fulfilling workers competence need and to a certain extent autonomy need. Because when a worker knows how a job is done, she could use her sense of autonomy to do it her own way. The question that arises here is, considering the demographic profile of the hotel housekeeping workers, i.e. migrant workers from various parts of the world, what sort of career support is available to them? Hospitality firms are already well-known for not making enough effort to formally train workers, which applies more to the workers at the lower end of the hierarchy (Markova *et al.*, 2016; Knox *et al.*, 2015; Harris, Tregidga and Williamson, 2011; Soltani and Wilkinson, 2010; Veijola, 2009; Ryan, 1998). It had been claimed that hospitality managers are often unconvinced that training yields results, they question 'will the time and expense devoted to training increase productivity, profitability, employee satisfaction, and guest satisfaction enough to warrant the expenditure?' (Choi and Dickson, 2009 p.104). Whereas career related supports for migrant workers are often essential because many of them lack education or professional training (Baum, 2012) or their qualifications are not recognised in the host country (Hopkins, 2017; Markova *et al.*, 2016; Parutis, 2014; Clark and Drinkwater, 2008). However, I suspect that only being trained on the hard skills to perform the tasks may not be enough for this population. Being migrated from a different country calls into question their host country language

proficiency, interpersonal or communication capabilities and cultural adaptability. Migrant workers may require even more support in soft skills development to manage themselves and handle interactions with others, but studies have identified managements' neglect of social skill training in hospitality sector (Janta *et al.*, 2011; Baum 1996).

Some UK-based studies have pointed out the need for language training for migrant workers (Heyes, 2009; Spencer *et al.*, 2007), as without the language fluency, their growth potentials could become constrained (French, 2012). This is because employer preferences are often shaped and reinforced by the English linguistic capital of migrant workers affecting their employment prospects (Polanco and Zell, 2017). On language barrier, another report found that training using pictorial materials imparts better knowledge and understanding than text-only versions (Cameron *et al.*, 2011). Besides, migrant workers' desire to improve English language skill for career growth has been noted in several studies (Janta *et al.*, 2011; Anderson *et al.*, 2006; Dench *et al.*, 2006). So, by providing language skill training to workers with pre-existing need, organisations will not only offer career support but also social support, because linguistic proficiency has the ability to impart a sense of belonging which serves as a prerequisite for social inclusion (Johansson and Śliwa, 2016; Pavlenko, 2005). Migrant workers' English linguistic capital is a crucial social dimension that acts as an indicator of social status and occupational desirability guarding them against social exclusion (Polanco and Zell, 2017). This is because the process of second language acquisition is said to be closely related to social identity development (Ochs, 1993), because as per the theory of language socialisation, learning a new language is a process of simultaneous attainment of linguistic along with sociocultural knowledge (Li, 2000). This would particularly apply to migrant workers. In organisational context, this social identity refers to organisational identification, that is, the tie between a worker and the organisation (Ellemers, *et al.*, 2003). Moreover, apart from language training, migrant workers in hotel housekeeping might also need to be trained on the contextual use of language and gestures enhancing their interpersonal skills and cultural diversity training (Malik and Manroop, 2017) because the hotels, being situated in a global city, London, would be housing travellers from all over the world. It would probably be the mixture of hard and soft skills training that would make the workers self-believe in their level of competence or self-efficacy.

A study conducted in Sri Lanka on hotel housekeeping staff reported that training and development programmes negatively impact turnover intentions (Arachchi and Dahanayake, 2020). There is, however, a dearth of research on this topic so this investigation could shed some light on the understanding of the actual practice of career support available to the workers and if the training programmes (if available) have any impact on workers' social stance.

Rewarding Workers

To manage human resources effectively, managers need to understand how the workers can be motivated through a well-designed rewarding policy (Kanungo and Mendonca, 1992), one of the fundamental pillars that support the employment relationship (Kessler, 2005). The core purposes of reward policies are to attract, retain and motivate workers (Shields *et al.*, 2015; Hsieh and Chen, 2011). Defining reward Shields *et al.* (2020, p.13) asserted,

A reward may be anything tangible or intangible that an organisation provides to its employees intentionally or unintentionally in exchange for the employee's potential or actual work contribution and to which employees as individuals attach a positive value as a satisfier of certain self-defined needs.

The provision of rewards signals workers that the organisation commits to a social exchange relationship with them, forming a psychological affiliation between the two parties (Williamson, Burnett and Bartol 2009; Malhotra, Budhwar and Prowse 2007). The exchange theory that best explains workplace reward practices is the Effort-Reward Imbalance (ERI) model, which suggests that it is not just effort that leads to work induced strain, but also the perceived imbalance between workers' effort and rewards they receive (Siegrist, 1996). The reciprocal disparity or absence of reciprocity (Feldt *et al.*, 2013), may give way to work-related distress and strain (Siegrist *et al.*, 2004; Siegrist, 1996), thus, adversely affecting workers health and well-being (Derycke *et al.*, 2010). Workers, by nature, do not passively endure an effort-reward imbalanced situation, instead they attempt cognitively and behaviourally to minimise their work efforts and/or increase their rewards (Van Vegchel *et al.*, 2005). Where the imbalance persists, it erodes workers' engagement (Wolter, *et al.*, 2019; Feldt *et al.*,

2013; Kinnunen, Feldt and Makikangas, 2008), commitment, motivation (Godin and Kittel, 2004) and increases turnover intentions (Derycke *et al.*, 2010).

Rewards may come from numerous sources and in various forms, but the principal message should always be that people are being valued at work (Tetrick and Haimann, 2014, cited in Gilbert and Kelloway, 2018, p. 524). Workers seek three types of rewards from their organisation: extrinsic, intrinsic and social (Williamson, Burnett and Bartol 2009). *Extrinsic* rewards often have a monetary value attached to them (Jones and Perkins, 2020; Shields *et al.*, 2020), such as cash bonus, vouchers, holiday packages and other tangible goods and benefits. *Intrinsic* rewards are generally derived from the content of the job itself (Jones and Perkins, 2020) or work that has 'self-generating outcomes' (Kessler, 2005, p. 317). These types of rewards can be

The interest and challenge that a job provides, the task variety and autonomy, the degree of feedback, and the meaning and significance attributed to it. It follows one of the most important determinants of the level of intrinsic rewards in any organisation is the way in which its jobs are designed (Shields *et al.*, 2020, p. 13).

Social rewards, not necessarily counted as a form of benefit, emerges from the interaction and connection with others, for instance a supportive relationship with the manager and colleagues (Newman and Sheikh, 2012). It can be said that by offering extrinsic rewards, organisations show appreciation of one's contribution and competence; intrinsic rewards satisfy one's relatedness need through the meaning and enjoyment that the work generates and social rewards arise from social support satiating one's relatedness need too.

Rewards can be an effective means to control workers' behaviour (Sansone and Harackiewicz, 2000), especially extrinsic reward is said to control human behaviour as long as the reward contingency is effective (Deci, Koestner and Ryan, 1999). Studies have established that when rewards, such as bonus, pay rise, promotion and recognition, are conditional on employee performance, they generate higher work performance and satisfaction (Keller and Szilagyi, 1976; Cherrington, Reitz and Scott, 1971; Toppen, 1965), but, 'unmet reward expectancies following high extrinsic efforts are most likely to provoke poor subjective well-being' (De Jonge *et al.*, 2000, p.1325). A study undertaking laboratory and field experiments (Deci, 1971) established that monetary rewards undermine subjects' intrinsic motivation for a given activity, but

when positive feedback or verbal reinforcement was added, subjects' intrinsic motivation generally increased. The justification provided for the results was that not all activities require external rewards because sometimes rewards are inherent to some activities, this was proven in multiple other studies too (Cameron and Pierce, 1994; Deci, Koestner and Ryan, 2001; Deci, 1976). Positive feedback is a type of intrinsic reward because it fosters workers' 'internal feelings of competence and self-actualisation' (Deci, 1976, p.69).

Not many researchers have investigated the application and perception of organisational rewards on migrant workers. To and Tam's (2014) study that surveyed 775 migrant workers from two generational cohorts in China reported younger generation workers' perceived social job rewards has a significantly positive influence on their job satisfaction. They challenged the general public perception that monetary rewards are a major source generating positive outcome among younger migrant workers. Contrary to this, collecting data from 199 migrant workers in two manufacturing factories in China Frenkel, Li and Restubog (2012) found that workers anticipate certain extrinsic and intrinsic rewards for their efforts, but their primary expectation is extrinsic and intrinsic is secondary. They justified their findings by acknowledging that the work culture and context play a vital role in shaping workers' perceptions and outcomes. Using 900 questionnaire surveys from migrant workers in Italy Capasso and Zurlo (2015) established that high job demands contributed to psychological stress while rewards and perceived job satisfaction appear to reduce such psychological outcome. The literature on organisational rewards, therefore, provides mixed results and there seems to be a void in literature concentrating on migrant workers in the UK. The question that this research attempts to find the answer to is, what sort of extrinsic, intrinsic and social rewards are on offer to the hotel housekeeping workers and is there one or more than one type that have substantial effects on workers' engagement and commitment?

The above discussion provided the theoretical perspective underpinning the research. The discussion in the next section provides the contextual information.

3.6. Research Direction and Research Questions

Concentrating on the UK based literature, Parutis' (2014) work on migrants' experiences is a good starting point as she has defined a three-stage migration process. Conducting semi-structured interviews with 64 migrant hospitality workers employed at the lower end of the hierarchy, she claimed that these workers do not stay in one job, instead they move jobs to improve their economic position within the labour market. She noted a three-steps ladder that migrant workers can go through in the labour market. i) 'Any job': workers search for any available job to attain financial stability, ii) 'better job': a job that provides better working conditions and social status and iii) 'dream job': a job that is a perfect fit for their future plans (p.41). *Any job* is possibly the phase when the workers find themselves hired at labour intensive entry-level jobs with poor remuneration, high job demand, long hours and limited growth options (Baum, 2008; Jayaweera and Anderson, 2008), where they often face discrimination despite their legal rights in the labour market (Wright and Pollert, 2006; Spencer *et al.*, 2007). These jobs are also called 'migrant jobs' (Green *et al.*, 2010, p.115) that are easy to enter because of the relaxed job prerequisites. Anderson *et al.* (2006) related migrant workers' job situation to economic trade-off because compared to their home country these low paid jobs in the host country pay them well but the high pay comes with work impermanency and insecurity leading its way to precarity. Besides, workers' language barrier along with their often-irregular work pattern means that their engagement in social participation is heavily reduced, in other words, migrants' economic participation in the labour market impedes their social participation (Spencer *et al.*, 2007), instigating social exclusion (Rodriguez and Mearns, 2012). A vast majority of the workers consider these *any jobs* as a stopover while searching for something better rather than a career choice, although this does not necessarily mean that they do move upward to a *better job* (Anderson *et al.*, 2006).

Managers, on the other end, perceive migrants as 'good workers' (MacKenzie and Forde, 2009, p.155) and preferred them more over the local labour alternative (Markova *et al.*, 2016; Lyon and Sulcova, 2009). Managers assume that typically migrant workers accept jobs that the local labour force, branded as having inferior work ethic, high absenteeism and discipline issues and low commitment, do not want to do (Lyon and Sulcova, 2009; Tannock, 2015). From management's point of view, it

may seem that there are at least four ways an organisation can benefit from hiring migrant workers. (i) Financial: cost effectiveness (MacKenzie and Forde, 2009), (ii) HR outcome: high level of commitment, (Markova *et al.*, 2016), low absenteeism (Hopkins, 2017), (iii) job aspects: worker flexibility (Soltani and Wilkinson, 2010), foreign language fluency and (iv) workers' personal attributes: positive and ethical work attitude (Hopkins, 2017; Markova *et al.*, 2016), dedication, punctuality, respectful of authority and hardworking (Lyon and Sulcova, 2009). The perceived benefits, however, do not hold the management back from implementing hard or calculative HRM practices (Hopkins, Dawson and Veliziotis, 2016; Soltani and Wilkinson, 2010; Forde and MacKenzie, 2009; MacKenzie and Forde, 2009; Holgate, 2005). Workers are frequently hired through recruitment agencies (Alberti and Danaj, 2017; Alberti, 2014; Sporton, 2013; Fitzgerald and Hardy, 2010; Lucas and Mansfield, 2010; Lai, Soltani and Baum, 2008; Dench *et al.*, 2006) or referral and work-of-mouth and often in the absence of a formal contractual agreement (Wright and Pollert, 2006) with hiring manager's migration background playing a significant role in the decision-making process (Markova *et al.*, 2016). For many employers, migrant workers provide a consistent supply of quick labour but for some others they could be regarded as a 'short term fix' (Green, Jones and Owen, 2007, p.48). Training provisions for migrant workers employed at the bottom level of the hierarchy are very limited (Markova *et al.*, 2016; Knox *et al.*, 2015). Taking these into account, it seems less than surprising that the hospitality industry is plagued by high staff turnover as many studies have testified (Markova *et al.*, 2016; Davidson, Timo and Wang, 2010; Wright and Pollert, 2006; Simons and Hinkin, 2001; Hinkin and Tracey, 2000; Deery and Iverson, 1996)

My understanding here is it is not just the migrant workers who are involved in trade-offs, the organisations seem to be in a similar position too. They appear to be trading-off between hard core HR practices that acquire presumably hard-working employees with good work ethics rather hastily, and the possibility of building a PC based on a positive trust worthy relationship, which can defend the organisation from losing its valued human resources. This is where the understanding of the theoretical construct of employee engagement and employee commitment and the ways they affect the employment relationship and organisational-level outcome, such as turnover intention, comes into play. However, literature on migrant workers' engagement and commitment in the UK has not received much attention. Research has been done on

migrant workers' perspective and their experiences (Parutis, 2011; Anderson *et al.*, 2006; Wright and Pollert, 2006), attainment of empowerment (Samaluk, 2016; Samaluk, 2014; Vershinina, Barrett and Meyer, 2011), engagement in the labour market (Samaluk, 2016), engagement in the welfare benefit system (Osipovic, 2010), political engagement (Però, 2008) and employers' perspectives of migrant workers (Markova *et al.*, 2016). What seems missing is the investigation of the exchange relationship that takes place between the employee-employer dyad, uncovering the influencing factors that affect the overall employment relationship. While the accounts of workers' life and work experiences, migration process and management perspectives are vital, I believe that to understand the dynamics of the employment relationship that develops between the employee and employer, this needs to be investigated in chorus rather than in isolation, which will provide a holistic picture and justification for many eventualities.

Considering the sheer numbers of migrant workers employed in the UK, specifically in the hospitality industry, the literature does not seem to do justice to trying to understand much about this cohort. There exists a lack of literature on migrant workers in the UK, which had been pointed out by numerous other scholars in the field (Spencer *et al.*, 2007; Anderson *et al.*, 2006). The literature gets even scarcer when I narrow it down to migrant workers in the UK hotel housekeeping, whereas more elements add to the context, for instance, physical labour, extensive use of women and dignity deficiency (Powell and Watson, 2006). Nimri *et al.*'s (2020) qualitative research, although not based in the UK, has captured the abstraction of dignity in housekeeping work rather well. They affirmed that the housekeeping work itself is a socially tainted one, lacking status and involving a servile relationship to others. They further posited that the workers are made to feel socially unequal by exploitation through physical job demands and marginalisation by their placement at the bottom level of the organisational and social hierarchies.

The available studies on migrant workers in the UK, conducted post-EU Enlargement of 2004, are predominantly characterised by a distinct pursuit of ethnic matching (for example, Parutis, 2014, 2011; Janta *et al.*, 2011; Samaluk, 2016, 2014; Ndiuini and Baum, 2020; Ndiuini, 2019). Research centring at the migration process or migrant experiences is mainly conducted by researchers who have one or more common

grounds with the study participants, known as ethnic matching. This term has long been applied in psychological research and practice because shared ethnicity can be regarded as shared experiences and can help build trust (Karlsson, 2005; Morrow, 1977). Erens (2013, p.62) proclaimed that when researching ethnic minority groups, 'ethnic matching may help to improve overall response rates ... by increasing the levels of trust, legitimacy and credibility in the survey, and potentially mitigating perceptions that the study is irrelevant'. Violetta Parutis (Parutis, 2014, 2011) - of Polish-Lithuanian origin- who has examined East European migrant workers' perceptions and the migration process, mainly focused on Polish and Lithuanians; similarly, Hania Janta (Janta et al., 2011) studied Polish migrant worker experiences in the UK hospitality industry; Barbara Samaluk (Samaluk, 2016, 2014) examined the migration entry process and experiences of Polish and Slovenian workers in the UK and Ann Ndiuini (Ndiuini and Baum, 2020; Ndiuini, 2019) studied career experiences of Kenyan migrant hotel workers in the UK.

Selecting sample is crucial for any research because it is not feasible or practical to include the entire population (Marshall, 1996), however, sampling is often not rigidly prescribed in qualitative studies, even though sampling profoundly impacts the ultimate quality of the research findings (Coyne, 1997). The sampling strategies adopted in the reviewed migration studies in the UK are not clearly discussed, for example, Parutis (2014; 2011) and Janta et al. (2011) did not discuss their sampling strategies, while Samaluk (2016; 2014) and Ndiuini (2019) applied purposive sampling. It has been claimed that by applying purposive sampling, researchers could deliberately craft a sample to obtain the desired results (Koerber and McMichael, 2008) and this is more applicable when studying a population where the researcher is an insider. Because the sampling strategies are not elaborated in the aforementioned studies, it leaves the way open to criticism of the rigour of the studies.

Parutis (2014; 2011) mentioned that being a Polish-Lithuanian student, she was considered an insider to these communities, which provided her with privileged, context-specific and easy access to respondents. Samaluk (2016; 2014) explained that her own position as a migrant woman created a fictional resemblance between her and the potential interviewees, which permitted her easier access to participants, making them comfortable to talk. Ndiuini (2019) disclosed her insider position and

personal contacts within the hospitality industry; her personal and professional relationships facilitated the recruitment of participants, making the process less challenging. Janta et al. (2011), however, did not provide details of her researcher positionality or how exactly the participants were accessed other than the fact that they were mainly reached through social media.

Access to data and the associated challenges are often not extensively discussed and data are commonly collected outside of the research participants workplaces. Parutis (2014; 2011) interviewed participants at Polish and Lithuanian social venues (embassies, churches and birthday parties), public spaces (cafe's or parks), in the respondents' homes and on the phone. Janta et al. (2011) used on-line survey and interview location not discussed. Samaluk (2016; 2014) did not discuss in detail the locations for data collection. Ndiuini (2019) mainly used Skype and some face-to-face interview but locations are not disclosed.

The surveyed studies have extensively utilised qualitative data. Parutis (2014; 2011) conducted ethnographic research by collecting data from 64 semi-structured in-depth interviews. Janta *et al.* (2011) collected 315 online questionnaires and six interviews, which were analysed using thematic analysis. Samaluk (2016; 2014) collected 35 semi-structured interviews, which were then analysed using coding a procedure. Ndiuini adopted life history approach with data collected from 32 interviews.

Parutis (2014; 2011) did not discuss the mode of data collection, Janta *et al.* (2011) translated data into English and Samaluk (2016; 2014) and Ndiuini (2019) interviewed in English. Data Translation comes with an array of consequences, which are particularly valid for the qualitative research paradigm (Al-Amer et al., 2016; Behr, 2015). Even more so 'when participants and the main researcher have the same non-English native language and the non-English data lead to an English publication' (Van Nes *et al.*, 2010, p.313). Translated data might provide distorted meanings because language is fluid in nature with several layers of meanings (Derrida, 2001) and texts are located within cultural, historical, institutional and political contexts (Al-Amer *et al.*, 2016; Bryman and Bell, 2007). Therefore, meaning in one language could lose its accuracy in the process of translation which then might be understood differently in another language (Abalkhail, 2018; Van Nes *et al.*, 2010).

There are three core themes here that could make an 'outsider' researcher reluctant to embark on studies that include migrant workers, who are not from her ethnic group. One, the surveyed 'insider' researchers had easier access to data because of their ethnic matching, which could make an 'outsider' researcher without any ethnic similarity, anxious about studying such important topics or populations. Two, there seems a lack of variation in the research methods implemented by the 'insider' researchers, mainly qualitative in nature with data drawn by in-depth or semi-structured interviews. This was convenient for them because of the lack of language barrier. But, these examples illustrated by the four scholars could yet again make the 'outsider' researcher diffident about approaching certain migrant groups because of the presupposed ethnic barriers. Three, the missing details on the sampling strategies, the data collection process and the places of the fieldwork might discourage an 'outsider' researcher. Kitson *et al.* (1982) criticised qualitative researchers for not sufficiently explaining their sampling strategies, which makes the research findings difficult to interpret and complicate the replication of the study.

Unlike the existing studies on migrant workers in the UK, this proposed investigation was conducted two years after the EU Referendum in the UK, when the hospitality sector has been fraught with BREXIT-related anxieties and the points-based system was in its making. Moreover, the current research adopts a mixed-method approach. It does not classify participants by their ethnicity, but includes instead any foreign-born worker, who is employed in the HK department of mainly three-and-over star rated hotels in London. No degree of ethnic matching was pursued, nor it was considered feasible. A clear sampling strategy was designed and implemented, and data - both qualitative and quantitative - was collected at the workplaces of the study participants. Translation of the collected data was not required as the questionnaire was designed and administered in simple English.

With all this knowledge, theoretical, contextual and empirical, I propose to investigate a part of the employment relationship acknowledging that a holistic understanding of the overall employment relationship is beyond the objective of this research as it is vast and complex. More specifically, the factors that contribute to the formation or prevention of migrant workers' engagement and commitment in London's hotel housekeeping sector. By understanding what contributes to an engaged or committed

workforce, hotel housekeeping managers could be in a better position to manage or lessen the high staff turnover that currently prevails.

With this objective in mind, the overarching question this research aims to answer is:

What are the factors in the employment relationship that, positively or negatively, affect employee engagement and employee commitment of the migrant workers in London's hotel housekeeping sector?

To answer the overarching question thoroughly, three supporting questions are set out.

From the questionnaire survey of the housekeeping staff I expect to find answers to:

(1) What are the factors that positively or negatively affect workers' choices of staying at the hotel or leaving the hotel?

This was a proxy question to understand workers' engagement with their work and commitment to their organisations because it was understood from the discussion earlier in this chapter that when workers are engaged and committed, they tend to stay at the organisations and when the reverse is true, they leave. Applying statistical data analysis methods, answers to this question will capture if any of the factors, such as workers' demographic profile, work tenure, wage, satisfaction with wage, workload and satisfaction with the manager, play a role in workers' decisions to leave or stay at the hotel.

From the semi-structured interviews with the housekeeping managers I aim to find answers to:

(2) What sort of leader-member relationship exists among the hotel housekeeping workers and do the managers see their staff as being engaged with their work and committed to the organisation?

Using qualitative data analysis methods, the answer to this question will inform me about the strength of LMX relationships that exist in the hotel housekeeping department and any other social, emotional or career support that the managers may provide to their staff. Also, when managers say that their staff are or are not engaged or committed, what actually makes them decide this? Are there specific behaviours or attitudes that inform a manager's decision?

(3) What are the organisational forms of support, devised by HR practices, offered to the housekeeping workers?

With the application of qualitative methods, this question will provide answers to the worker hiring process, socialisation, training provisions and rewarding practices in the hotel housekeeping department. These are important to understand how an organisation supports the exchange relationship with its workers.

The next chapter discusses the research methodology followed by the justification for the use of the particular methods for data collection and analysis to answer these research questions.

CHAPTER FOUR

Application of Mixed-Methods in Researching London Hotel Housekeeping

Reflecting on the literature reviewed in the previous chapter, it became apparent that to understand employee engagement, commitment and turnover intentions in the hotel housekeeping sector holistically, it is imperative to collect information from both the parties involved in the employment relationship, the employee and the employer. To materialise this, mixed-methods research proved to be the most befitting approach for this investigation due to the differences in the nature of data required and the demographics of the population.

Leedy and Ormrod (2001, p. 14) defined research methodology as ‘the general approach the researcher takes in carrying out the research project’ and this chapter aims to do just that by segmenting the details in eight sections. The first section talks through the rationale for opting for the mixed-methods approach, followed by the explanation of the methods chosen for data collection. The third section dispenses the sampling strategies applied to prepare for the collection of research data and the piloting the methods for optimum results. The next section elaborates how exactly the data were collected from two different sources and methods. This section also includes the profile of the HOS and their managers and ends with highlighting the challenges encountered. The fifth section narrates the overall data analysis approaches, more specifically the methods used to answer the research questions. The following section then presents my reflective accounts as a researcher in terms of positioning myself during data collection and analysis stages. The last two sections highlight research bias and relevant ethical issues and the measures taken to address them, respectively.

4.1. Adoption of Mixed-Methods

Research starts with mapping out the research paradigm that helps align the ontology, epistemology and methodology allowing readers to understand the justification for the chosen methodology (Bauer, 2017). Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill (2015) proposed an onion-like structure comprised of six layers that represent the entire research process. Research philosophy is the first layer of this onion structure that ‘refers to a system of beliefs and assumptions about the development of knowledge’ (Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, 2015, p. 124). Philosophical commitment in researching business

and management topics is said to be particularly important because the researcher's choice of philosophical underpinning immensely influences what the person does and how the topic of the investigation is understood and interpreted (Johnson and Clark, 2006).

This is a mixed-methods research. Scholars rightly advocate the implementation of mixed-methods research for situations where use of a single method could have provided limited understanding (Shannon-Baker, 2016; Creswell and Clark, 2011; Morse and Niehaus, 2009). Mixed-methods research typically follows one of the four types of paradigms: transformative-emancipation, dialectics, critical realism and pragmatism, (Shannon-Baker, 2016, Freshwater and Cahill, 2013; Hesse-Biber and Johnson, 2013; Creswell and Clark, 2011)

The transformative-emancipation approach concentrates on power, privilege and aim to provide voice to marginalised members of the society (for example see Canales, 2013; Mertens, 2010; Chilisa, 2005; Mertens, 2003). Dialectics is often used to address conflicts and divergences in ideas or data (Betzner, 2008; Mathison, 1988), which not only provides the researcher with the opportunity to merge potentially contradictory ideas, perspectives and data, but also encourages change (Shannon-Baker, 2016). Researchers applying critical realism focus on specific events or situations as opposed to addressing patterns (Maxwell and Mittapalli, 2010) with the belief that theories only represent partial reality, thus, high importance is placed on different or new perspectives and viewpoints (Shannon-Baker, 2016) (for example see Douglas, Gray and van Teijlingen, 2010; Modell, 2009). Pragmatism is known to be result or product oriented (Biesta, 2010) and emphasizes on determining the meaning (Johnson and Onwuegbuzie, 2006) to produce practical solutions and explanations to social problems (Shannon-Baker, 2016). Using this approach, researchers can maintain 'both subjectivity in their own reflections on research and objectivity in data collection and analysis' (Shannon-Baker, 2016, p. 322).

At the end of the literature review, three research questions were proposed for the study. To answer the first research question – '*What are the factors that positively or negatively affect workers' choices of staying at the hotel or leaving the hotel?*', scientific tests are required to analyse the association between factors or variables.

The epistemological orientation here is, thus, positivism, which 'assumes that there are social facts with an objective reality apart from the beliefs of individual' (Bahari, 2010, p.22). This epistemological assumption is typically sought by testing hypotheses to systematically 'build and refine universal "laws of nature"' (Staiton-Rogers, 2006, p.80). On ontological stance, the objectivist view of knowledge would be the basis of the answer to this question, because by implementing scientific tests or quantitative methods it is demonstrated that 'social phenomena and their meanings have an existence that is independent of social actors' (Bryman, 2004, p. 16).

The other two research questions, '*What sort of leader-member relationship exists among the hotel housekeeping workers and do the managers see their staff as being engaged with their work and committed to the organisation?*' and '*What are the organisational forms of support, devised by HR practices, offered to the housekeeping workers?*' necessitate rich, in-depth descriptive information. This takes interpretivism as the epistemological position, defined as 'the belief that social reality is not objective but highly subjective because it is shaped by our perceptions' (Collis and Hussey, 2014, p. 45). Therefore, the ontological orientation for the answers to these two questions are subjectivist, because social phenomena are being analysed here through the lenses of the actors involved facilitating the researcher to gather more in-depth data (Bryman, 1984).

This research integrates qualitative and quantitative methods, a combination recognised by many different names, such as 'integrated research' (Teddlie and Tashakkori, 2011, p.285), 'multi-methods (Brannen, 1992), multi-strategy (Bryman, 2004), mixed methods (Creswell, 2003; Tashakkori and Teddlie, 2003), or mixed methodology (Tashakkori and Teddlie, 1998)' (Bryman, 2006, pp. 97-98). Because of this, it can be said that this research adopts the pragmatist approach. Pragmatism was introduced to philosophy by Charles Peirce in 1878 (James, 1975). Pragmatism as a research philosophy recognises the various ways of understanding the reality, that no particular view can ever offer the full picture and that multiple realities co-exist (Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, 2015). Since its inception, it has been acknowledged as a philosophy for the practical world, rather than abstract distinctions (Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, 2015) and 'organisation and management studies is an intensely practical domain where practical problems demand practical solutions' (Elkjaer and

Simpson 2011, p.39) which justifies the applicability of pragmatism for this particular research. Research from a pragmatist angle initiates with a problem and proposes to contribute practical explanations and resolutions that may enlighten future practices in the field and beyond (Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, 2015). In similar vein, this investigation starts with a problem in the hospitality industry, *high staff turnover*, and intends to contribute to the understanding of the factors that may inform professionals in the industry about practical solutions or even minor changes in the work settings.

The mixed-methods approach integrates research methods to produce multiple segments of data that are arranged into one research investigation (Gaber and Gaber, 2007). Although exactly how this combination should take place is unclear (De Block and Vis, 2019), mixed-methods research is recognised as a valuable approach because of its capability to benefit from the strengths of quantitative and qualitative methods (Östlund, et al., 2011; Teddlie and Tashakkori, 2011). Scholars argue that qualitative and quantitative research methods are not mutually exclusive (Sobal, 2001). Rather, they are compatible and complement one another (Williams, 2007; Tashakkori and Teddlie, 1998), therefore can be applied together as an extension as opposed to a replacement (Johnson and Onwuegbuzie, 2004) to analyse and understand a particular phenomenon better (Creswell and Clark, 2011) and enrich the validity and credibility of the outcomes (Bryman, 1992). For this research, the following three factors guided the decision for the adaptation of mixed-methods approach

- (a) The first research question, examination of factors, demands quantitative data to answer the question by analysing two or more variables for association, while the other two research questions seek rich comprehensive data that can be collected through qualitative methods.
- (b) Language barrier is a well-established topic with the hospitality workers because the majority of workers, particularly at the lower level of the hierarchy, are migrant workers with insufficient local language (English) proficiency. Therefore, even a structured interview question would have had a greater possibility of failure due to the respondents' inability to explain themselves or likelihood of missing the crucial details with limited knowledge of the language. Hence, survey was found to be the most appropriate method to collect data.
- (c) Time restriction was considered when drafting the initial research proposal. A HOS would struggle with time for an interview but a quick survey might just serve

the purpose. In contrast, managerial staff are more likely to have the luxury of time to sit down for interview.

There are at least three other merits that can be attained through the application of mixed-methods.

(a) Triangulation (Östlund *et al.*, 2011; Greene, Caracelli and Graham, 1989) was one of the main aims, as multiple sources of information for the same topic has the ability to offset the weaknesses that one specific method might possess (Johnson and Onwuegbuzie, 2004), thus warranting to gather holistic details of the phenomenon under study.

(b) Diversity of perception (Bryman, 2006) was another mandatory aspect required for this study because perception is subjective, hence variable. For instance, a member of HK staff might not perceive a service received as a benefit whereas a management staff member might clearly perceive it as a work perk.

(c) Integrity (Bryman, 2006) of findings is believed to be enhanced by adopting mixed-methods.

Applying mixed-methods often seem appealing to researchers, but scholars have warned that researchers should never be misguided by the assumption that more is better (Morse, 1996), instead 'the completeness of any study, must be judged without resorting to methodological fads or fetishes' (Sandelowski, 2000, p. 254). Bearing the warning in mind, mixed-methods research was chosen, which proved integral and possibly the only route for this study.

Research data are gathered from two sources. (i) Housekeeping Operational Staff (HOS), to understand workers' point of view regarding their work, management and other work-related experiences. (ii) Housekeeping management representatives, to capture managers' relationship with staff and organisations' approach to human resource management. The information needed from each cohort is not similar in nature, thus, two different methods of data collection and analysis were applied. Moreover, the research design falls under the 'partially mixed concurrent equal status design', defined as a typology of mixed-methods research wherein quantitative and qualitative data collection take place concurrently with nearly equal emphasis, data analysis is done separately and the integration takes place at a later stage in the study

(Leech and Onwuegbuzie, 2009, p. 268). Detailed discussion on research methods and execution are as follows.

4.2. Justification for the Chosen Methods

Quantitative Data

Preliminary desk research, drawing mainly from journals and commercial articles on hotel workers confirmed that the target population (HOS) is most likely to be immigrants with minimal local language proficiency, the majority are women and their jobs require swiftness due to time constraint. These factors made it obvious that the data collection method for the HOS needed to be swift with simple language, which can be achieved through quantitative methods, where participants could choose their answers from a checklist, categories, ranking and other types of numerical options for answers (Cooksey, 2020).

Surveys are one way of collecting quantitative data that can be conducted face-to-face, via telephone or internet and by post (Regmi *et al.*, 2016). Laaksonen (2018, p.5) defined the survey as 'a methodology and a practical tool used to collect, handle, and analyse information from individuals in a systematic way'. It is a versatile data collection tool because of its 'adaptability of questionnaire and sample designs to address a particular research question in a particular setting' (Font and Méndez, 2013, p.15). Internet or web-based surveys can be inexpensive and time-efficient (De Leeuw, 2005; Couper, 2000; Dillman, 2000), however, being 'probability-based sample survey', this could prove to be problematic to reach specific population (Couper, 2000, p. 467), which is essential for this research. Postal or telephone survey is not feasible as it would require a database of people who work in London hotel housekeeping and even if the right respondents are reached, it cannot be guaranteed that the persons would have the time to have a conversation or be able to read and understand the questions. Face-to-face mode of survey is said to be the one that generates the greatest response rates by building superior level of trust and rapport between the researcher and respondents and the most efficient mode to gather accurate and honest answers (Vannette and Krosnick, 2017). Another commonly used quantitative method is the structured interview, which can be used in three different

ways, but would not suit the purpose of this research because this method is very time consuming for larger sample size, like this one (Leedy and Ormrod, 2001).

Considering the demographic profile of the HOS and the context, the quantitative method deemed appropriate was face-to-face researcher-mediated survey for four reasons. (i) Respondents are not required to read and write because the researcher is present to help with the understanding of the questions (Laaksonen, 2018). (ii) Survey is a speedy method (Phillips, 2017). (iii) Face-to-face mode provides good completion rates with reliable and high-quality data (Saloniki *et al.*, 2019; Richards, 2016). (iv) In researcher-administered survey, item nonresponse error, defined as the 'lack of a valid response to an individual question' (Shoemaker, Eichholz and Skewes, 2002, p.193), is minimal because in this setting the respondent needs to let the researcher know that he or she declines to respond to a specific question (Silber and Johnson, 2020).

Qualitative Data

To gain a holistic understanding of the HK realm, the viewpoints of the management were sought, especially those who were directly involved in managing the HOS. The data requirement from this cluster was meaningful explanations from complex phenomena (Jennings, 2001), which by nature are qualitative data that can provide rich and valuable description of the social world (Denzin and Lincoln, 2011). Qualitative researchers could choose from 'ethnographic prose, historical narratives, first-person accounts, still photographs, life history, fictionalised "facts", biographical and autographical materials among others' (Denzin and Lincoln, 2011, p.10). For this research, qualitative data were collected through first-person accounts, also known as lived experiences (Stelter, 2010; Varela and Shear, 1999), which has its roots in phenomenology (Giorgi, Giorgi and Morley, 2017; Stelter, 2010). Phenomenology 'attempts to get to the truth of matters, to describe phenomena, in the broadest sense as whatever appears in the manner in which it appears, that is as it manifests itself to consciousness, to the experiencer' (Moran, 2002, p.4).

Interviews, the most commonly used qualitative method, are said to be more than a method to gather information, they are considered to be dialogues where researchers

become immersed in the world of the interviewees in an attempt to understand the real meanings associated with their lived experiences (Mahama and Khalifa, 2017). Interviews can be of two types, semi-structured and unstructured. Semi-structured allows the researcher to narrow down the topics and lead the direction of the conversation, which is not feasible with an unstructured interview (Rabionet, 2011). Semi-structured interview is particularly useful when open-ended probing questions are asked to elicit individual thoughts and when there is a probability that the interviewee may not be candid in a group setting (Adams, 2015). Other qualitative data collection methods, such as Observation Method, Document Review and Focus Group Discussion were analysed for suitability but they all came with various setbacks, which made them incompatible for this research.

The most suitable data collection method for the housekeeping managers was semi-structured interview based on three assumptions. (i) A manager would be less likely to have language barrier and more likely to be able to explain situations and express themselves well. (ii) Questions were semi-structured meaning that even though the majority of the questions were predetermined, it would still provide the opportunity and freedom to ask follow on questions if needed for clarification or further understanding of the situations (Griffiee, 2005). This method is known for its ability to elicit highly meaningful narratives (Hollway and Jefferson, 1997). (iii) As the time limitation would not be of a great concern if the managers were reached at the right time when they are less busy, this method would initiate a natural conversation, which in Griffiee's (2005, p.36) words is "talking," and talking is natural'.

The next section elaborates the participant selection criteria and the piloting of the chosen methods of data collection.

4.3. The Preparation Phase

Research studies regardless of their nature and objectives require complete and precise data, and the very first step is to answer these two essential questions '(i) what exactly do I want to know and (ii) how do I plan to analyse the data' (Morley, 1995, p. 365). Above all, it is imperative that the right choices are made concerning research

methods as they influence the results, interpretation and significance of a study. This section includes three subsections. The first subsection discusses the participant selection processes, followed by how the HOS questionnaire survey was devised and pilot-tested to ensure efficiency, and the last section discusses how the semi-structured interview questions were designed and again pilot-tested for clarity.

4.3.1. Sampling Strategy or Selection Process

Hotel Selection Process

This study is based in London, one of ‘the most culturally diverse cities in Europe’ (Pantelidis and Wrobel, 2008), for three main reasons.

(i) *High occupancy rate* - Historically, hotel occupancy rate in London has been 9% higher on average than the rest of the UK (Johnson, 2020). PwC’s 2018 report predicted over 80% occupancy in London in line with the previous years’ forecasts, while the occupancy rate for the rest of UK stands at 76%. The high occupancy rate is a result of London being a well-connected global centre favoured equally by businesses and tourists (PwC, 2016), which for this research context, could mean greater exposure and availability of hotel housekeeping staff.

(ii) *Its ‘super-diversity’* (Vertovec, 2007, p. 1043) - London is branded as the ‘the world in one city’ (Freedland, 2005) because

More than 300 languages are spoken by the people of London, and the city has at least 50 non-indigenous communities with populations of 10,000 or more. Virtually every race, nation, culture and religion in the world can claim at least a handful of Londoners (Benedictus, 2005).

The diversity in the population could represent diversity in the research respondents.

(iii) *Familiarity and convenience*- I have been residing in London for the last 10 years and have worked for a hotel chain where I still know some people, so the contacts might be useful in reaching participants for this research.

The target population for this research was the HK workers in London hotels and the first inclusion criterion was hotels with three-and-over star rating because of the homogeneity in terms of job aspects, overall service standards, quality and cleanliness of the property. In Britain, the hotel star-rating service is offered by the Automobile

Association (AA) and Visit Britain (Visit Scotland and Visit Wales). To gain complete accreditation, hotels need to undergo annual overnight inspection for a fee (Which? 2018). Hotels must satisfy the quality standards of Hospitality, Service, Bedrooms, Bathrooms, Cleanliness, Food, Exterior, Public Areas and Dining Room/Restaurants to obtain a certain star rating (Hotel Quality Standards, Recognising Excellence, 2012).

In any research it would be exceptional to reach the entire population, but in most circumstances that is not feasible because of the vastness of the population (Etikan, Musa and Alkassim, 2016), rather, participants need to be selected rationally to achieve the specific research purpose that could answer the research question (Cleary, Horsfall and Hayter, 2014). This makes the application of sampling techniques a mandatory and crucial aspect of a research. The word *sample*, when used in a research context, especially for quantitative research, typically means the slice of a population of the universe that is being studied (Tailor, 2005). The validity of empirical research rests to a large extent on the appropriateness of the sampling strategies to meet the study goals and objects (Uprichard, 2013).

A sampling frame could suffer from over-coverage or under-coverage, which is why it is necessary to include eligible population only (O'Muircheartaigh, 2017). With this in mind, the sample or the participating hotels were selected through four consecutive steps. The first step involved applying a random or probability sampling tactic. In this sampling method, each member of the target population has an equal probability of being chosen (Fink, 1995), which can also be expressed by saying they do not have a zero possibility of being included in the sample (Henry, 1990). Indeed, the initial sampling frame consisted of the full list of London hotels, of which London and Partners' (2015) published statistics indicate that there are 1,494. Second, from this initial frame, a narrower sampling frame was developed. I considered only 297 three-star rated hotels at first. Third, at this stage, a clustered sampling tactic was applied which categorised the hotels according to their location (North, South, East and West), to ensure that all the areas of London would be covered in the research. The fourth step added a final criterion to be considered for the study, hotels needed to have at least 50 bedrooms, i.e. to be medium to large size. This introduced a non-random element known as purposive sampling, where the researcher deliberately opts for a

participant due to the qualities the participant possesses (Etikan, Musa and Alkassim, 2016).

The initial sampling strategy included 264 3-star rated hotels, with at least 50 bedrooms, identified within a list of a total of 1,494 London hotels. In the summer of 2017, I began approaching hotels from the initial list I had compiled, relying heavily on cold calling or emailing. It was exactly a year after the EU Referendum, with hotel managers already experiencing the anxiety of potential labour shortages. It was getting increasingly difficult to persuade HK managers in three-star rated hotels to participate in my study. After struggling for months with not a single interview, I decided to seek help from a former colleague who had contacts with hotel managers. The first participating hotel that I managed to interview its HK manager was a 4-star rated hotel which defied my initial sampling strategy. Access issues were anticipated at the commencement of the investigation, because of that, the sampling strategy had to be broadened to include hotels with four and five-star rating. The sampling strategy needed to be amended after the first interview to include hotels with three-and-over star rating. This resulted in 646 hotels potentially fitting the criteria of the research, of which 264 were 3-star rated, 297 were 4-star rated and 85 were 5-star rated hotels.

To summarise, the hotels researched were selected from a list of regionally clustered 646 three-and-over star rated hotels with at least 50 guest rooms from different regions of London. The final sampling strategy applied was non-probability, convenience sampling.

Participant selection: challenges and necessary compromises

HK Managers

Difficulties in gaining access to research participants is a well-known issue, which 'often come as a rude surprise to the researcher', as access appears to be only a tangentially related obstacle yet a critical part of doing actual research (Feldman, Bell and Berger, 2003, p. viii). Access to data was reported in other similar UK hospitality-focused studies. For example, Janta *et al.* (2011) mentioned that there is an absence of reliable population frames for Polish hospitality workers, which makes them "a hard to reach' population' for academic researchers" (p.1011). Ndiuini (2019) explained that

even though she was given access to her fellow Nigerian hotel workers, there were still challenges of arranging and honouring scheduled interviews.

This becomes an even greater issue when 'elites' are involved (Morris, 2009; Burnham *et al.*, 2004). Scholars have tentatively defined elites as people with industry-specific expertise (Burnham *et al.*, 2004) or 'those with close proximity to power' (Lilleker, 2003, p. 207), including people from professional, corporate and political realms (Becker, 1995). Interviewing elites often accounts for added challenges, first, in gaining entry and second, participants tend to govern the agenda (Burnham *et al.*, 2004). In this research, HK managers fell in the elite category because of their industry-specific expertise along with their close proximity to power.

Gaining access to the hotel management proved to be more challenging than it was initially anticipated. There were layers of primary gatekeepers, such as switchboard operators and receptionists, who made the establishment of contact with the HK managers difficult and at times almost unachievable. Many contacts made to the hotels did not get past this initial obstacle, which is typical in the presence of gatekeepers (Feldman, Bell and Berger, 2004). Multiple points of entry were sought, such as by paying unsolicited visits, making phone calls and asking to speak to the HK manager - this practice is commonly known as cold calling, by sending emails with all the project details. Snowball approach was attempted too, which only worked once. The reasons I was given on the numerous unsuccessful attempts were '*HK Manager has finished for the day*' or '*currently at a meeting*' or '*too busy to speak or see anyone*' or '*on leave*' or '*on a day off today*', and '*HOS are not allowed to give interviews*' or '*speak to an outsider whilst at work*'. Eventually, it became clear that unsolicited visits and cold calls would be the best avenue to reach potential respondents. Having said this, a single attempt to reach a hotel rarely brought a result; in most cases, multiple attempts were required.

However, it is important to acknowledge that safeguarding research subjects' privacy and dignity is one of the core ethical principles guiding any research (Bell and Bryman, 2007; Beattie, *et al.*, 2002) and cold calling is said to defy that (Tyrer *et al.*, 2003). Some medical studies have reported a negative effect on patients due to cold calling, such as distress and anger (see Taylor *et al.*, 2019). In this investigation, cold calling

and unsolicited visits were used as the first step to establish contact with the prospective participants, but these approaches were not used as final methods of data collection. Cold calls and unsolicited visits were made to get the HK manager's verbal consent to proceed with the investigation or a promise that the person would participate in the study. This was unquestionably a compromise with academic rigour but the only way to collect the required data.

Once the initial hurdles were conquered and I managed to reach the HK managers, there were problems with cooperation. As stated by Wanat (2008, p. 201), gatekeepers' degree of cooperation often relies on their perception of 'benefits and threats to participation' in the study. Besides, not all gatekeepers would approve the access and some would attempt to prevent access entirely (Clark, 2011). In similar vein, some HK managers had pertinacious resistance to my persuasion to participate, while most who participated in the study, needed extensive persuasion to convenience to partake. Even among those who agreed to be interviewed, nine did not grant access to their staff. In some hotels, I was required to seek permission from the HR manager who requested a signed letter from the supervisor on the university's letterhead paper explaining the purpose of the request. This is not uncommon as 'extensive bureaucratic delays' with exchange of letters was one of the 11 preventive gatekeeping tactics proposed by Spencer (1973, p.97).

The appropriate selection strategy incorporated for the management participants were judgment sampling, a type of purposive sampling, because the participants conformed to certain selection criteria (managers from three-and-over star rated hotels with at least 50 guest rooms in London) (Blumberg, Cooper and Schindler, 2014). Furthermore, because the HK managers who agreed to participate in the study were the ones that were available at the given time and had the willingness to participate, it presented an element of convenience sampling (Dörnyei, 2007). Convenience sampling is where a sample is readily available and the focus of the researcher is on ease or convenience (Bajpai, 2011; Greener, 2008), which suffers from non-probability selection and the study findings may not be generalisable (Bell, Bryman and Harley, 2018; Blumberg, Cooper and Schindler, 2014; Greener, 2008). However, for this investigation, convenience sampling became operative at the middle stage of the HK manager sampling strategy, to mitigate the initial low response rate.

Furthermore, it can be argued that managers from different star-rated hotels may have different perception, management style and organisational culture, which are not directly comparable. However, strict sampling technique to include HK managers with similar or comparable background only would have exacerbated the access problem making the investigation unattainable. There is a scarcity of literature discussing this matter, Pine and Phillips (2005) proclaimed that the higher star rating often means better performance (here performance refers to the financial performance of the establishment), which is often because higher star-rated hotels tend to hire more experienced management staff and use modern technology. Whereas, Oliveira, Pedro and Marques' (2013) study established that hotel star ratings are irrelevant to the performance efficiency of the hotels. These studies are in direct contrast to each other, and not exactly related to my investigation. More extensive investigation is needed to establish whether star-ratings have any bearing on the worker performances or not.

HOS

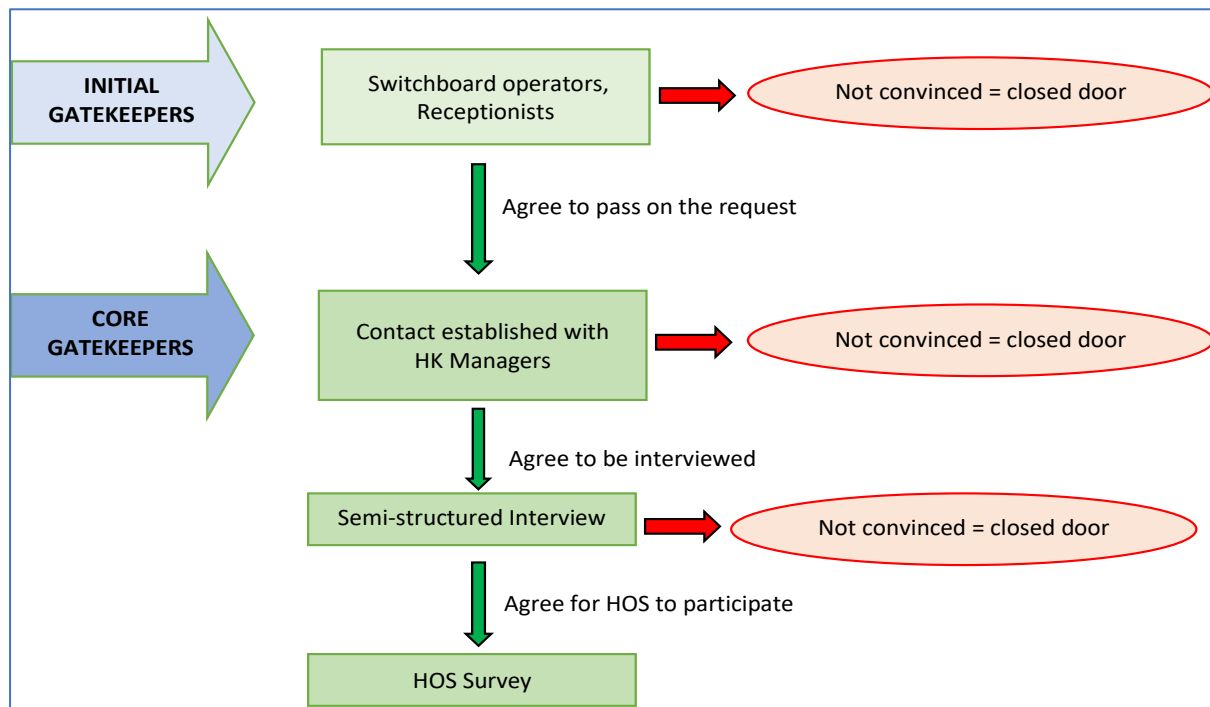
HOS selection process was entirely non-probabilistic because they were chosen by their managers depending on their availability at the time and ability to communicate in English. HK managers' direct involvement in the HOS selection process could be perceived as highly problematic and a source of bias, which could even imperil the academic vigour of the research. Accessing participants through the involvement of gatekeepers was a major issue in selecting HOS, hence, the obvious lack in research on hotel HK workers. Scholars have cautioned researchers to expect to encounter gatekeepers and advised to be well-prepared to confront the situation, while being respectful of their concerns (Singh and Wassenaar, 2016). Gatekeepers have the capability to assist or deter an investigation based upon their individual thoughts on the research validity and its value and their attitudes towards the wellbeing of the people they manage (Reeves, 2010). Clark (2011) emphasised that gatekeepers exist in investigations where the participants cannot be directly contacted by researchers, rather an intermediary is employed to enable access. Due to the nature of this research topic, HOS could only be reached at their workplaces, therefore, the presence of gatekeepers was an inevitable part of this investigation. The HK managers acted as gatekeepers here, also reported in other similar studies, such as Kensbock *et al.* (2016), who not only chose the survey participants for me, but also made decisions for the participants without seeking their approvals. A recent study by Spacey, Harvey

and Casey (2020) have pointed out the issue in the participant selection process where gatekeepers were present, for the sake of collecting the data.

For this research, persuading the HK managers to allow me to survey their staff was a challenge in itself, there were nine HK managers who could not be persuaded. This could be the reason for the gap in the literature on hotel HK workers specifically in London. When the managers agree, it was unviable to negotiate any further, even though their participation in the selection process perhaps have introduced respondent selection bias. In addition, there were two reasons for not contacting survey participants outside of their workplaces. One, participants were required to conform to certain criteria, i.e., HOS from three-and-over star rated hotels in London. Two, even if they were reached outside of their workplaces, due to the lack of any common ground between the researcher and participants, such as ethnic matching, it would not have legitimised the questioning about their work, thus, could have been perceived as highly suspicious.

Building relationships with research participants does not happen immediately, it requires significant time investment with repeat visits (Okumus, Altinay and Roper, 2007). HK being the largest department, everyone involved in it has tight schedules, thus, time is precious, hence, when contacts were established successfully with the HK managers, this crucial factor, time constraint, did not make the situation favourable. It was challenging enough to be granted access for single visits to most of the hotels, multiple visits were almost out of question. I tried to build rapport during the visits with the managers but time was limited to only a couple of minutes at times, and within that time span, I had to convince the managers to participate and establish an almost instantaneous relationship of trust, which was rather unrealistic as Brewer (2004, p. 316) said 'trust is rarely instantaneous and normally builds slowly'. I did not get the opportunity or the luxury of time to establish a proper rapport with the respondents. The chart 4.3 explains the flow.

Chart 4.1: Diagram to understand the flow of data collection at individual hotel



Source: Researcher's own design

Spencer (1973) presented 11 tactics applied by the gatekeepers, which was re-categorised by Broadhead and Rist (1976) into three: (i) refuse to allow access, (ii) limited access to data, often incomplete or inaccurate or systematically managed (iii) controlled access to safe data. Occasionally I had complete refusal to access participants. One such gatekeeper said that his staff might find the encounter, an outsider questioning them, intimidating and stressful. A possible rationale for such a gatekeeping attitude where outsiders are unwelcome can be because the topic of the investigation is perceived as awkward or sensitive (Burgess, 2006). The majority of the times, I was given controlled access. Controlled access is granted by only presenting the researcher with people who are considered safe or are the only persons that the gatekeeper wants to participate (Spencer, 1973). That said, most of the HK managers left me with the participants to answer the survey questions allowing me privacy proved a level of trust on me which permitted me to bond with the respondent in that short span of time.

Because of the above constraints, managers' participation in the HOS selection process was imperative for the feasibility of this research, therefore, the predominant

sampling strategy implemented here was convenience sampling. Bell *et al.* (2018, p.198) stated that convenience sampling can be 'fairly acceptable ... when the chance presents itself to gather data from a convenience sample and it represents too good an opportunity to miss'. It could be argued that that the convenience sampling strategy used here was 'fairly acceptable' 'and the only feasible approach to collect the necessary data from difficult-to-reach populations. Therefore, the final HOS sample was very limited as it included, for example, HOS with relatively good English and more likely to be supported by the manages. However, it has been duly acknowledged that this manager-assisted participant selection process for survey data collection sacrificed academic rigour because as Donaldson, Qiu and Luo (2013) advocated that rigour is an essential component of management research, which is 'essentially the logical pursuit of an idea' (p.154). Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill (2009) indicated that management research suffers from double dilemma due to the need for methodological and theoretical rigour, while considering the practical situation and relevance.

Overall, the process of access and the scrutiny of the gatekeepers was taxing and harrowing, making me feel vulnerable and demoralised. Researcher vulnerability has its implications, although not widely studied, and is yet another integral part of conducting an empirical research project with difficult-to-reach populations (Howard and Hammond, 2019; Bracken-Roche *et al.*, 2017). It often stems from power asymmetries between the researcher and the participants (Bracken-Roche *et al.*, 2017; Kennedy-Macfoy, 2013). As Low and Everett (2014, p. 135) pointed out, for industry-focused early career researchers, who are rather powerlessly positioned, 'power is elusive and negotiations with gatekeepers over access to research participants reinforces this power(less) position'. Sometime, as an ultimate impact of the gatekeepers and their extensive intimidation, researchers find themselves in a position where they are required to reconsider and re-evaluate their research approach, such as research questions or methods (Feldman, Bell and Berger, 2004). Fortunately, such amendments were not needed for this investigation, instead with perseverance, I managed to achieve the set objectives.

In 2010, Tom Baum, an eminent UK hospitality - focused scholar, talked about the difficulties in accessing the UK hospitality workforce and the challenges associated

with persuading them to believe that research has value to their work. He further added that managers did not seem to appreciate the wealth of information that was available about their business and even if they did, they often lacked the time or the skills needed to interpret that information, to make sense of it all. Baum's (2010) claims are the testimony to the fact that accessing UK hospitality sector for research is onerous and that there are obvious gaps between the academic and the practical sphere, which also justify the dearth of literature on hotel HK workers. His claims hold true to date. It is undeniable that the HK managers' involvement in the survey participant selection process was problematic and may have introduced selection or participant bias. However, to access the voices of these otherwise 'hidden' people, I had to accept the only option available to get those voices heard which essentially meant sacrificing the academic rigour to a certain extent. It could be argued that the shortcomings in the selection process outweigh the accomplishments of this research.

4.3.2. Preparation for the Survey

4.3.2.1. Designing the Survey Questionnaire

To recruit HOS for the survey the overall sampling strategy applied was non-probability, wherein snowball sampling was prevalent because they were difficult to contact (Hendricks and Blanken, 1992, cited in Faugier and Sargeant, 1997, p. 792) and in most instances, they were reached through their managers. I was not permitted to approach the HOS directly, so it was the HK managers who decided or selected the participants for me depending on whoever was available at the time and could speak or understand English. An element of convenience sampling was therefore introduced. In addition, purposive homogeneous sampling, defined as selecting participants who share similar characteristics that are in line with the topics of interest for the investigation (Etikan, Musa and Alkassim, 2016), was also applied because only people who work in housekeeping departments in London hotels, with similar jobs or life experiences, were surveyed. This respected Dörnyei's (2007) advice that participant selection must be congruent with the conceptual framework of the research.

Face-to-face researcher-administered survey was the chosen method for gathering quantitative data and aimed for a moderately large sample size, at least 100 respondents so that they can be indicative in some way of the HOS population. The reasoning behind choosing to conduct researcher-administered survey was that it would provide the opportunity to engage with the respondents, thereby enhancing cooperation, authenticity and allow me to simplify or clarify ambiguous terms or answers, consequently ensuring reliability and correctness in responses. In addition, this was one of the speediest methods that could reasonably take place anywhere, for instance, whilst a participant is cleaning a guest bedroom or having lunch. This method was also used as an escape route for reporting bias that occurs when survey questionnaires are left with the participants to answer and return.

Having decided the instrument to be used, the first draft of the survey questionnaire was designed. Questionnaire design starts by determining the information needed and the specific questions to be asked to obtain the required information (Brace, 2018), so the choice of questions was guided by the literature reviewed in the previous chapter. Several guidelines, proposed by scholars, were followed. For example, the questions were worded in simple easy-to-understand unambiguous language and were arranged in a natural sequence, as one would ask in a normal conversation from broad to narrow or specific (Morley, 1995). Double-barrelled or questions with dual purposes were avoided (Lewin, 2011). Questions were kept short where possible, simple to answer, interesting and relevant to maintain respondents' level of engagement (Brace, 2018). Questions that may irritate or threaten the respondent were avoided (Lewin, 2011).

As discussed earlier that the HOS may have difficulty expressing themselves due to their linguistic inability coupled with time constraints, use of open-ended questions was kept to the minimum, as they are difficult to record and time-consuming (Krosnick and Presser, 2010). The majority of the questions were close-ended. For the response choices, as Morley (1995, p. 365) suggested, 'a don't know' or 'not sure' option may be needed because a decision should not be forced when there may be doubt', thus, these options were included where possible. The questionnaire was designed with 58 questions, divided into nine sections, briefly discussed below.

The first section *Introduction/ General Work-Related Questions* consists of 25 questions. This section started by asking general questions about their work history, how they got this job, position, previous hotel experience, and job tenure, to make them feel comfortable and relaxed, before moving on to more detailed questions about their current job, whereby they were asked about their wage and satisfaction with it. Answers to these questions were very relevant because according to the literature, relationships were established between these elements and organisational commitment and engagement.

The second section *Intention to Stay and Organisational Citizenship Behaviour (OCB)* is comprised of seven questions. This segment was aimed at finding out about the participants' future plans and if they were willing to be involved in OCB. If they are committed to the organisation, they may want to carry on working and see themselves at the same organisation in the future. As per the exploration in the earlier chapter, workers display citizenship behaviour when they are engaged in or committed to the organisation.

The third section *Work Colleagues' Attitudes* included two questions. These questions were asked to understand how they felt about their co-workers because prosocial behaviour is also an enactment of commitment towards the organisation.

The fourth section *Leader's Attitude/ Support* consists of three questions. As per the relevant literature, the leader member exchange (LMX) relationship plays a crucial role in the development of engagement and commitment among workers. The questions in this section were aimed at establishing HOS' relationship or closeness with the manager and support from the organisation, for instance does the organisation make them feel a part of the team?

The fifth section *Non-pecuniary Factors* contains three questions addressing the managers' and wider organisational-level approach towards workers. By providing flexibility and being egalitarian, management could show that they care about their workers, which is crucial for the exchange relationship that workers build with their manager (psychological contract, PC) and the organisation (perceived organisational support, POS).

The sixth section *Human Capital Development* consists of four questions including training and skill development opportunities. According to the job demand-resource (JD-R) model, workers would need both physical and psychological resources to cope with the job demand.

The seventh section *Performance Evaluation* contains four questions regarding performance monitoring, appreciation and reward. Motivation factors, as per Herzberg's motivation-hygiene theory, are the ones that directly relate to the performance of the workers and they are also the ones that foster psychological needs. The questions in this section were designed to capture the HOS' perceptions of appreciation and rewards.

The eighth section *Questions for Motivational Sources* contains three questions. Each question was intended to identify HOS' sources of motivation. The first question was to determine the respondents' Extrinsic/ instrumental Motivation: the importance of money. The second question intended to recognise the prominence of work appreciation, External Self-concept Motivation. The third question Intrinsic Process Motivation was to determine the significance of work enjoyment.

The final section *Demographic Questions* consists of seven questions that comprise gender, age, nationality, kinship responsibility, education, marital status and living arrangement. These questions were asked because scholars have established associations between workers' personal characteristics and engagement and commitment, although contradictions exist. Therefore, demographic information was collected to test whether any form of relationship exists for the HOS.

The question that arose at this stage was whether the questionnaire should be translated into different languages or not, and if yes, how many and what languages would that be? Font and Méndez (2013) pointed out that producing good survey data is difficult to achieve and it gets even trickier when there is a language issue among the participants. Linguistic challenges have been highlighted by many other scholars too when a research sample includes multinational respondents (Stathopoulo *et al.*, 2019; Pan and Fond, 2014; Pennell *et al.*, 2014). Font and Méndez further added that researchers often opt for translation, a complex process, to ensure inclusivity incurring

extra cost, but to translate the questionnaire in every spoken language is nearly unachievable, meaning a 'de facto exclusion of parts of the population' is unavoidable (p. 33). Besides, literal or word-for-word translation seldom retains the original meaning, therefore, the translation needs to be performed by someone who has knowledge about the overall objective and the true purpose each question carries (Del Greco, Walop and Eastridge, 1987). It requires extensive expert translation process to attain satisfactory level of conceptual meaning that is equivalent (Harkness, 2003). A translated version of a questionnaire would also mean that it can no longer be researcher-administered, rather, it would have to be handed over to the participant to fill out or hire interpreters to inspect and facilitate in the process, which does happen (see Stathopoulou *et al.*, 2019).

Considering the extra cost, the time requirement to perfect the translated version, the obligation of an interpreter to accompany the researcher during the process and above all, the risk of losing the intended meaning of the questions, I decided against it. I opted for surveying participants with sufficient knowledge of the official national language (English), accepting the fact that it would exclude newly arrived people (Font and Méndez, 2013), but this was the most feasible approach to be in complete control of the data collection process.

Ethnic matching was not realistic here either because the research aims to understand the workers behaviours and attitudes within the hotel housekeeping setting and not migrant workers from a particular region or nationality. European nationals, mainly from the A8 countries, dominate London's hotel housekeeping sector, but there are workers from many other countries too, which means that ethnic matching would segment out one or two nationalities, which would not be a true representation of the London hotel housekeeping workforce. At this stage, I realised as Morley (1995, p. 367) claimed, 'designing questions and a system for collecting appropriate, accurate, and complete data requires a surprisingly large investment of time, resources, and expertise but is vital for the success of a research study'.

After deciding that the questionnaire will not be translated and the survey will be researcher-administered, it was time to test the first draft of the survey questionnaire. In addition to the questionnaire, there were two other documents prepared for HOS

maintaining the same level of language simplicity. (i) Information Sheet: a one-page brief about the project clearly stating the motives of the research (ii) Consent Form: a short form that included the terms of agreement for the participant to sign and return for the record.

4.3.2.2. Piloting the Survey Questionnaire

Once the questionnaire design was completed, it was pilot-tested. Piloting refers to the process of testing the questionnaire, which is ideally done with people similar to the sample in small numbers to identify ambiguities, limitations and other errors prior to the actual survey (Taherdoost, 2016). The main objective of a pilot study is to emulate the proposed data collection procedure for the main study (Dillman, 2000). Piloting served four purposes for this research. (i) It verified the questions are stated clearly with jargon-free, easy-to-understand language (Taherdoost, 2016). (ii) The information sheet explained the aim of the study clearly in simple language. (iii) The terms included in the consent form were transparent and had the same level of language simplicity. (iv) Check the duration of each survey, which should ideally not exceed 20 minutes per respondent.

A small pilot study was organised at the British Library. A public location was chosen to ensure that the participant felt relaxed and not intimidated by the process. A stopwatch was used to check the duration. The pilot test outcome was not as favourable as expected, because some questions were ambiguous to the participant, some required further clarification and the process exceeded the set benchmark time of 20 minutes. Thus, the first questionnaire design was considered unfit for purpose. After the failure of the first pilot run, more time and effort were invested to abridge and simplify the questions and ensure that the duration was kept in check. Once a satisfactory level was reached, the pilot test was re-run. This generated a much better result. It took approximately 18 to 20 minutes to complete the questionnaire at a slow pace. The final version of the questionnaire with easy to understand language, was considered ready at that point for data collection. A copy of the questionnaire is attached in the appendix.

4.3.3. Preparation for the Semi-Structured Interview

4.3.3.1. Devising the Semi-Structured Interview Questions

The chosen method, a semi-structured interview, is a flexible method because it 'is sufficiently structured to address specific topics related to the phenomenon of the study, while leaving space for participants to offer new meanings to the study focus' (Galletta, 2013, p. 24). Compiling the interview questions is a decisive part in gathering the relevant information that addresses the research problem (Mahama and Khalifa, 2017). A topic-guide interview question was designed to capture in-depth information by incorporating open-ended questions, where elaboration is almost obligatory, as well as close-ended questions, where further details were not necessary, with the aim of capturing the right balance of answers. The questions were kept short where possible and easily intelligible (Hermanns, 2004) and maintained a sequence so that the questions do not come across as abrupt, as Alvesson (2003, p. 169) noted that interviews should be 'viewed as the scene for a social interaction rather than a simple tool for collection of "data"'. The first draft of the semi-structured interview question incorporated 35 questions divided into eight sections, discussed briefly below.

The first section *Introduction/ Person Specific Questions* includes five questions. This section was planned to gather demographic information and make the interviewees relaxed by not asking work-related questions right at the start. The questions asked were on gender, education, age group, industry experience and work tenure.

The second section *General HRM Questions* contains seven questions mainly about the hiring practices and the job demands of the HOS. As discussed in the previous chapter, employment relationships start at the hiring process, so the questions in this section aimed to retrieve information about the personal qualities or skills the managers seek when hiring entry-level HK staff and if referral was used. The questions that follow the recruitment practices are to establish HOS' level of pay and job demand, for instance, hours worked each day, days worked each week and guest rooms cleaned in each shift.

The third section *Leadership Approach* includes five questions. According to the reviewed literature, the leader-member exchange (LMX) relationship plays a vital role in the establishment of the psychological contract (PC). So, based on that the questions in this section were designed to understand the managers' approach to managing the largest department in the hotel, their involvement in the team and the relationship or closeness they have with HOS.

The fourth section *Performance Evaluation* consists of three questions. The first two questions collect subjective rating of workers' work efficiency and proactivity. The third question is about performance appraisal because appraisal is one way of providing feedback to workers, which is one of the dimensions of the Job Characteristics Model.

The fifth section *Human Capital Development* comprises of two questions addressing training opportunities and career advancement options. Training, one of the core HRM practices, not only provides workers with job resources to execute the current role but also paves the path for future positions.

The sixth section *OCB* includes seven questions regarding managers' subjective understanding of HOS' level of commitment, job satisfaction and OCB. As discussed in the literature review, workers' levels of job satisfaction affect their level of commitment and the more committed the workers are the more willing they would be to engage in citizenship and extra-role behaviours.

The seventh section *Non-pecuniary Factors* contains two questions about the managers' level of acceptance with workers' time or day off requests and other non-compulsory leave, for instance, compassionate leave, to understand the managers' flexibility and the overall managements' approach towards their workers.

The final section *Work Motivation and Engagement* consists of four questions. The questions were aimed at understanding the management's perception of employee benefits and rewards as a way of making them engaged and committed to the organisation. The questions include extra benefits for workers and celebration of special occasions like Christmas and New Year.

Like HOS, two other documents were prepared for the manager interviews, *Information Sheet*: containing a brief description of the aims and goals of the research and *Informed Consent*: setting out the terms of agreement for the participant to sign and return for the research records.

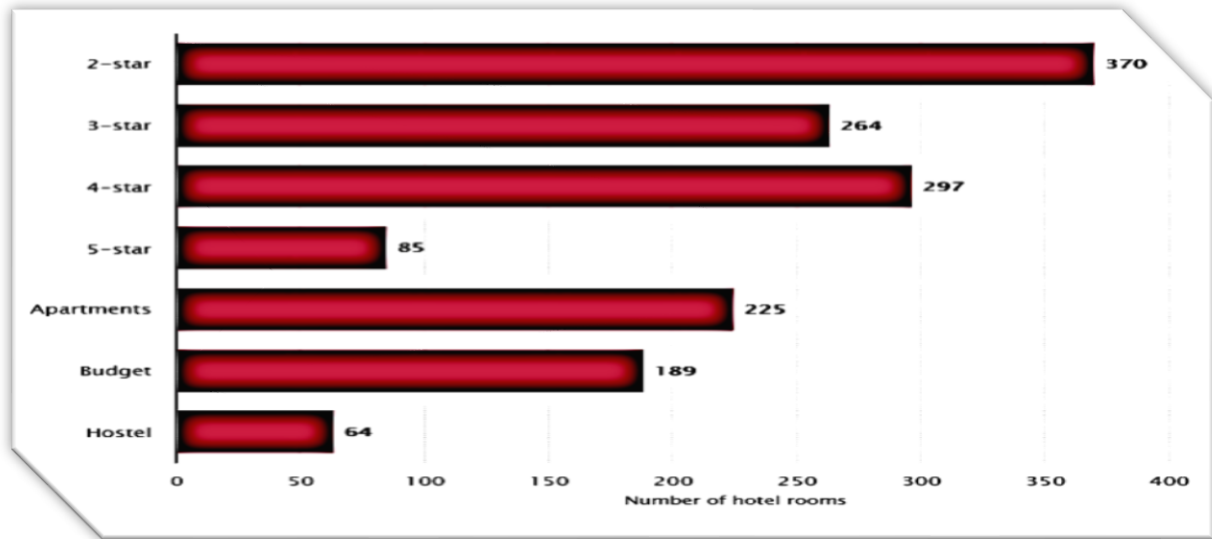
4.3.3.2. Piloting the Semi-Structured Interview

The pilot test for semi-structured interview was straightforward. This was done with a few acquaintances to ensure that the questions were explicitly stated in simple language. At the beginning, participants were briefed about hotel work setting and housekeeping in particular. The outcome was a success; it took about half an hour to complete one pilot-test. Although, in a real situation the duration may vary depending on the expressiveness of the interviewee at the time of the interview. A copy of the topic-guide question used for semi-structured interviews is attached in the appendix. With all the paperwork and pilot tests successfully completed, it was time to move on to the next phase- collection of data.

4.4. The Data Collection Phase

This phase lasted for nine months, from June 2017 to February 2018, and in the end, a total of 164 hotels were approached out of which 57 hotels agreed to participate in the study. The chart below shows the total number of hotels in London by star rating (London and Partners, 2016) and Table 4.1 depicts the percentage of the hotels covered by star rating in this research. The total column in the table shows that this study has covered almost 9% of the total hotels in London.

Chart 4.2: Number of hotel establishments in London as of 2015, by star rating



Source: London and Partners (2016)

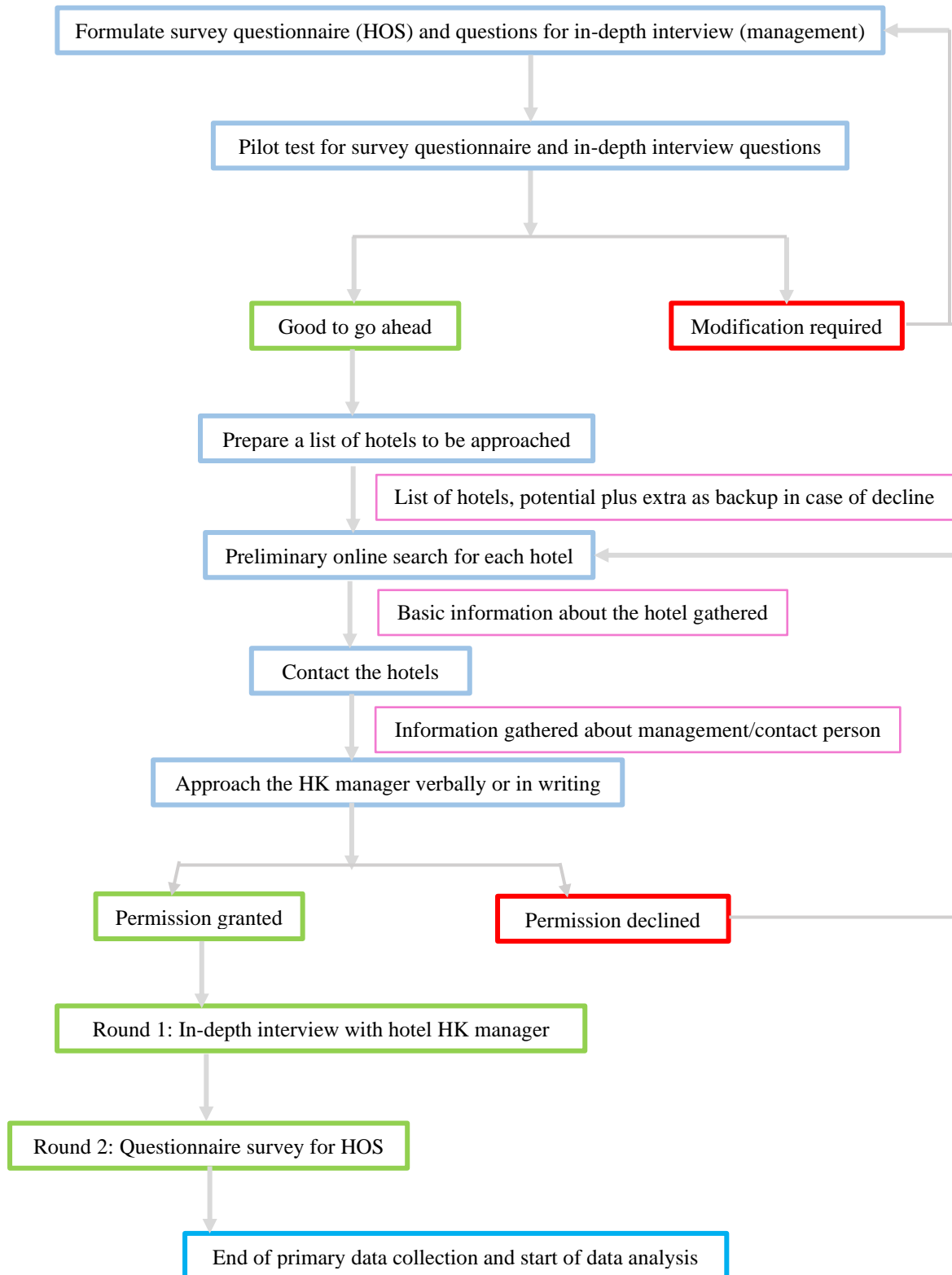
Table 4.1: Percentage of the total population covered in this research

	London total	% of the total	This study	% of the total
5 star	85	13.16	21	24.71
4 star	297	45.98	30	10.10
3 star	264	40.87	6	2.27
TOTAL	646	100.00	57	8.82

Source: Researcher's own computation

The discussion in this section is divided into four segments. The first segment discusses the data collection from the managers using semi-structured interview questions, followed by the HOS survey using a questionnaire. Because qualitative and quantitative data were collected at the same point in time, this research followed a concurrent approach to data collection (Nastasi, Hitchcock and Brown, 2010; Leech and Onwuegbuzie, 2009; Clark and Creswell, 2008; Byrne and Humble, 2007; Morse, 2003). The third segment discusses the other unplanned methods used followed by the challenges encountered during the data collection stage. The flowchart below depicts a rough sequence of the data collection process.

Chart 4.3: Diagram to understand the overall flow of data collection



Source: Researcher's own formation

4.4.1. Semi-structured Interview with the Managers

4.4.1.1. Data Collection from the Managers

A total of 53 hotel HK managers were interviewed for this study; six from 3-star, 20 from 4-star and 28 from 5-star rated hotels. The interviews varied between 15 minutes and over an hour, depending on the workload as well as the mood of the interviewee at that moment. A brief of the project aims, objectives and their roles as participants, typically inaugurated the meetings, although most of the managers were uninterested in reading the Information Sheet. Then they were requested to sign and return the Consent Form. The interviews were voice recorded, in a mobile device, with their consent, though some did raise objections, which were cordially obliged.

I intentionally refrained from taking notes for two reasons. One, most of the interviews were voice recorded so I was able to go back to them. Two, note taking distracts and interferes with the flow of the interview (Doody and Noonan, 2013). I wanted to immerse and be engaged in the conversation and facilitate a natural flow of dialog rather than getting busy taking notes and not maintaining the gestures, for instance eye contact and nods in agreement, that signify that I am interested in the topic and that I am listening. For the couple of interviews where the managers did not want the interview to be voice recorded, I mainly had to take notes, as precisely as possible, and make an extra effort to be engaged by showing attention. This experience felt unnatural and less rewarding because I was not as at ease as I could have been if the interview was recorded. In addition, I dreaded that I might lose important words that were said. As Fielding and Thomas (2008, p.257) aptly said, 'without recording you will inevitably lose data as well as have to engage in a stilted and peculiar interaction as you pause every few utterances to write down what the person says'.

After the interview with the managers, they were asked if I could conduct a quick survey with a few of their staff. This was deliberately kept for later for two reasons (a) not to stress them at the outset and (b) after spending some time talking to me about their jobs they, at least the majority of them, felt relaxed and were more likely to trust me with the next stage, i.e. the survey of HOS. Gaining the trust of respondents is said to be particularly important to gather greater quality data (Harvey, 2011). It is also

suggested that researcher should endeavour to build a good rapport with the interviewees which should start from the initial contact and continue beyond the interview (Ostrander, 1993). Nine HK managers, however, did not allow me to survey their staff.

4.4.1.2. Profile of the Housekeeping Managers

This section details the profile of the housekeeping managers from 53 three-and-over star rated hotels from different regions of London who participated in the research, which might be useful for the data analysis.

Table 4.2: Participant profile of hotel housekeeping manager

	No. of respondents	Percentage
Gender		
Female	40	75.5
Male	13	24.5
Nationality		
Europe	34	64.2
British	7	13.2
Africa	6	11.3
Asia	5	9.4
S. America	1	1.9
Age		
25-30 years	3	5.7
30-35 years	9	17
35-40 years	13	24.5
40-45 years	13	24.5
45 years and over	15	28.3
Level of education		
University- Hospitality related	16	30.2
University-other	24	45.3
Not University level	13	24.5
Industry Experience (N= 50)		
Up to 5 years	4	7.5
over 5 up to 10 years	10	18.9
over 10 up to 15 years	15	28.3
over 15 up to 20 years	8	15.1
over 20 up to 30 years	7	13.2
over 30 years	6	11.3
Missing	3	5.7
Tenure at the hotel (N = 51)		
less than 1 year	6	11.3
1 to 5 years	25	47.2
Over 5 up to 10 years	11	20.8
Over 10 up to 15 years	3	5.7
Over 15 years	6	11.3
Missing	2	3.8
Room Attendant background (N= 53)		
Yes	40	75.5
Female = 35		
Male = 5		
No	13	24.5
Female = 5		
Male = 8		

Source: Field Survey, HK Managers, June 2017- February 2018

4.4.2. Questionnaire Survey for HOS

4.4.2.1. Data collection from the HOS

The HOS surveys mostly took place on the same day as the Manager interviews and occasionally at a later day. A total of 106 HOS participated in the survey. HOS surveys also started with a brief about the project's aims and objectives and their roles as the core participants. They barely showed any interest in reading the Information Sheet. This was followed by the consent form, which only required their signature to keep their identities anonymous. On a few occasions, I was permitted in the guest bedroom to survey staff, which was intriguing to watch them do their chores. Other times I was ushered to the back office or at the restaurant or lobby. On rare occasions, especially when time permitted, I had conversations with them and took notes on the extra comments they made or when they expressed their thoughts and ideas.

The majority of data collected from HOS were through the HK managers agreeing to participate. The managers would sit for the interview first and if they were convinced enough, would allow me to survey the staff. However, there were four participating hotels where I coincidentally managed to speak to the HK supervisors directly as the managers were absent, who agreed to participate in the study. Before conducting each survey, respondents were briefed on the purpose and objective of the research thoroughly before requesting them to sign the consent form. Table 4.3 below shows the number of respondents who participated from each hotel.

Table 4.3: Number of respondents from each hotel

Individual Hotel Identified by Numbers	No. of Respondents
Hotel 1	3
Hotel 2	1
Hotel 3	6
Hotel 4	2
Hotel 5	2
Hotel 6	2
Hotel 7	1
Hotel 8	1
Hotel 9	2
Hotel 10	1
Hotel 11	3
Hotel 12	3
Hotel 13	2
Hotel 14	2
Hotel 15	5
Hotel 16	2
Hotel 17	2
Hotel 18	2
Hotel 19	4
Hotel 20	1
Hotel 21	2
Hotel 22	1
Hotel 23	1
Hotel 24	1
Hotel 25	1
Hotel 26	2
Hotel 27	6
Hotel 28	2
Hotel 29	5
Hotel 30	2
Hotel 31	2
Hotel 32	1
Hotel 33	3
Hotel 34	2
Hotel 35	2
Hotel 36	4
Hotel 37	1
Hotel 38	4
Hotel 39	2
Hotel 40	1
Hotel 41	1
Hotel 42	4
Hotel 43	2
Hotel 44	1
Hotel 45	2
Hotel 46	2
Hotel 47	1
Hotel 48	1
Total	106

Source: Field Survey, HOS, June 2017- February 2018

4.4.2.2. Profile of the HOS

This section details the profiles of the 106 survey respondents from three-and-over star rated hotels from different regions of London, which are used for the quantitative data analysis.

Table 4.4: Respondent profile of hotel HOS

		No. of Respondents	Percentage
Gender			
Female		97	91.5
Male		9	8.5
Age			
20-30 years		45	43
31-40 years		28	26
41-50 years		23	22
51 and over		10	9
Nationality			
Europe: 12 countries		92	87
Asia: 2 countries		7	6
Africa: 4 countries		5	5
South America: 2 countries		2	2
Level of education			
Primary School		24	22.5
Secondary School		58	55
Degree Level		24	22.5
English Language Proficiency			
Limited Understanding		6	6
Manageable		87	82
Excellent		13	12
Living Arrangement			
Partner	live with partner	67	63
	live without partner	39	37
Children	have Children	58	55
	Live with Children 39, 37%		
	Do not have Children	48	45
Time Spent in the UK			
less than a year		15	14
over a year to 2 years		19	18
2 to 5 years		29	28
5 to 10 years		29	28
Over 10 years		14	12

Source: Field Survey, HOS, June 2017- February 2018

4.4.3. Other Inadvertent Methods

After a couple of hotel visits, the role of recruitment agencies in the HOS hiring process became obvious. In some hotels, the entire HK department was outsourced while in others, there was a mixture of both agency and hotel staff, and on rare occasions, hotels had all hotel-employed staff. The prominent presence of recruitment agencies made it indispensable to reach them for the research to understand the true extent of their involvement. This additional source of information just transpired after the data collection started, which was neither intended nor proposed for the research.

The qualitative method was deemed appropriate for this source of data because of its ability to gather comprehensive and meaningful illustrations from intricate events (Jennings, 2001). The aim here was to generate narrative explanations, hence it was decided that in-depth interviews with a semi-structured questionnaire would be used to interview representatives. A questionnaire was designed with 14 straightforward questions bearing in mind the themes that needed further explanations, which hotel managers are unable or reluctant to discuss, for instance, selection criteria and contract hours. A sample questionnaire is attached in the appendix. The sampling strategy used was convenience sampling, also identified as Accidental Sampling or Haphazard Sampling, a form of non-random or nonprobability sampling, due to their availability at a certain time along with their readiness to participate (Dörnyei, 2007). There were no selection criteria; rather, whoever at the agency agreed to talk was interviewed.

According to Agency Central, there are about 1,300 recruitment, temping and staffing agencies in London, yet they were not easy to get hold of if one is not a job seeker. Eventually, four agency representatives were interviewed. The core objectives for this added source of data were (a) explanation (Bryman, 2006)- recruitment agency representatives added further explanation in certain themes which was vital to grasp a holistic understanding of situations and (b) diversity of views (Bryman, 2006)- it was expected that they would have a different rationale for circumstances which would be enlightening. However, it was acknowledged that information collected from this segment would not directly contribute to answering the research questions but would help in the construction of the overall research argument and clarification.

Attempts were also made to reach some of the reputed organisations in the hospitality industry, for example UK Hospitality (UKH), Price Waterhouse Coopers (PwC) and Institute of Hospitality (IoH), for an interview without success.

4.5. The Data Analysis Phase

Data analysis stage has a reputation of being more difficult than gathering data (Collis and Hussey, 2014) and 'the most complex and mysterious of all of the phases of a qualitative project' (Thorne, 2000, p. 68). There are six criteria to analyse data comprehensively, these are credibility, confirmability, transferability, saturation, meaning-in-context and recurrent patterning (Leininger, 1994, cited in Collis and Hussey, 2014, p172). Collis and Hussey (2014) noted that the quality of the analysis would depend on the collected data quality and the way the author interprets them, which emphasises the significance of data analysis for a research. This section provides a synopsis of how the two types of data, quantitative and qualitative, were analysed to obtain the answers to the research questions.

4.5.1. Methods for Quantitative Data Analysis

The survey questionnaire used to gather information from the HOS generated quantitative data, which were analysed applying appropriate quantitative data analysis methods. The software used for data analysis was SPSS version 24. As a first step, all the multiple choice questions were coded and the responses from 106 survey questionnaires were entered into SPSS, ensuring all the details were correct and paying particular attention to the variable names, their values and measurement types. Data input is particularly sensitive for quantitative methods, as a slight variation could produce incorrect results

Quantitative data were analysed through descriptive statistics, correlation and logistic regression. Descriptive statistics were used to summarise the data in frequency tables, graphs and cross-tabulations. Descriptive statistics are useful in presenting information in a 'clear, concise and accurate manner' (Barrow, 2001, p. 6) or in other

words summarising the sample data (Goos and Meintrup, 2015). Throughout the thesis, multiple frequency tables were presented to examine how many respondents had chosen a particular answer or had agreed with a statement. Measures of central tendency, mean and standard deviation, were used to summarise continuous data, for instance the hourly wages and the number of rooms cleaned by the HOS. Cross-tabulations were carried out to present and analyse bivariate data in tabular form. These descriptive statistics were crucial to the analysis because they allowed the researcher to present large quantities of information gathered from the surveys in a condensed manner (Gravetter and Wallnau, 2016), which is 'convenient, usable and understandable' (Ho, 2006, p. 1).

Correlation analysis was used to test the existence of a statistically significant positive or negative relationship between two variables (Armstrong, 2019). Testing the degree of correlation is said to be one of the most commonly used procedures for quantitative analysis (Armstrong, 2019; Bae and Iscoe, 2016). It measures (i) if there is a statistically significant relationship between two variables and (ii) the strength of the relationship (Taylor, 1990). The test results are interpreted through the probability or the p-value, which ranges from -1 representing a perfect negative relationship to 0 no relationship to +1 a perfect positive relationship, where 0.10 is small, 0.30 is medium and 0.50 is large with reference to the degree of effect sizes (Bae and Iscoe, 2016; Cohen, 1988). The Pearson's Product-Moment Correlation Coefficient (r) was used to test for a linear relationship (Mukaka, 2012; Lawrence and Lin, 1989) between two continuous variables or one continuous and one dichotomous variable. Kendal's tau and Spearman's rho were used when the two variables were ordinal or when one was ordinal and the other one continuous.

Based on the literature reviewed in Chapter Three, eight hypotheses have been tested using correlation analysis to analyse the factors that positively or negatively affect employee engagement and employee commitment and influence their decision to turnover.

Some empirical research, as explored in the literature review, has established statistically significant associations between worker characteristics, such as age, gender, tenure and so on, and their intention to commit and stay, while some others

found no association. The first two hypotheses test if there are any relationships between worker characteristics, such as tenure and job position, and turnover intention.

H₁: HOS' intention to stay in the same hotel is significantly related to the time they have spent in the UK

H₂: HOS' intention to stay in the same hotel is significantly related to their job position

According to the JD-R model, high job demand could negatively affect workers' commitment, so, the third hypothesis tests this.

H₃: HOS' intention to stay in the same hotel is significantly associated with their job demand

Extrinsic job attributes, wage in particular, can influence workers decision to stay or leave. The next three hypotheses are formulated to test how important wage and satisfaction with wage are for the HOS.

H₄: HOS' intention to stay in the same hotel is significantly associated with their wage

H₅: HOS' intention to stay in the same hotel is significantly associated with their satisfaction with wage

H₆: HOS' intention to look for a higher paid job is significantly related to their wage satisfaction

Intrinsic job attributes also play a significant role in workers' intention to stay at the job. The last two hypotheses are designated to establish the association between two intrinsic job attributes, *work appreciation*, also a form of resource as per JD-R model, and *work enjoyment*, also a type of social reward, and HOS' turnover intentions.

H₇: HOS' intention to stay at the hotel is significantly associated to appreciation from management

H₈: HOS' intention to stay in the same hotel is significantly related to their work enjoyment

Later in the analysis chapter a logistic regression model is designed, which predicts the probability of a given outcome occurring (Field, 2009). It is a mathematical

modelling method used to analyse the association of several explanatory variables (X_s) to a dichotomous dependent variable (D) (Kleinbaum and Klein, 2010).

The equation for the logistic regression model is as follows.

$$\log\left(\frac{P}{1-P}\right) = \beta_0 + \beta_1X_1 + \beta_2X_2 + \beta_3X_3 + \beta_4X_4$$

Where

$\left(\frac{P}{1-P}\right)$: The odds ratio in favour of remaining in the hotel. It is the ratio of the probability that a respondent intends to remain in the hotel to the probability that he or she will leave (Gujarati, 2011).

X_1 : work enjoyment, a dummy variable, 1= enjoying work, 0= otherwise

X_2 : satisfaction with wages, a dummy variable, 1= satisfied with wages; 0= otherwise

X_3 : appreciation from management, a dummy variable, 1= feel appreciated by management, 0= otherwise

X_4 : hourly pay, in GBP

The responses recorded on the dependent variable were yes, not sure and no, which were then converted to dichotomous responses, 1= yes and 0= no. The predictor variable on hourly pay was continuous and the remaining three independent variables were ordinal, which were also converted into dichotomous responses. The hypothesis that is tested using the logistic regression model is:

H_0 : There is a significant positive relationship between HOS' work enjoyment, their hourly pay, their satisfaction with wage and appreciation from management and HOS' intention to stay at the hotel.

4.5.2. Methods for Qualitative Data Analysis

The qualitative data were gathered from 53 semi-structured interviews with HK managers and other additional interviews with recruitment agency representatives. Although the core data used for further analysis was the 53 managers' interviews and the other interviews were mainly used as a supplement as and when needed. Scientific algorithms are not fit for the purpose of qualitative data analysis as the emphasis is on the interpretation of the text derived from using various data collection methods

(Gläser and Laudel, 2013). Texts here were the transcribed version of the interviews. The intention here was to shed light on the hotel housekeeping managers' perceptions or personal views towards employee engagement and commitment, their explanations for high staff turnover, their unique ways of bonding with their staff and their role in the HR policies set by the companies.

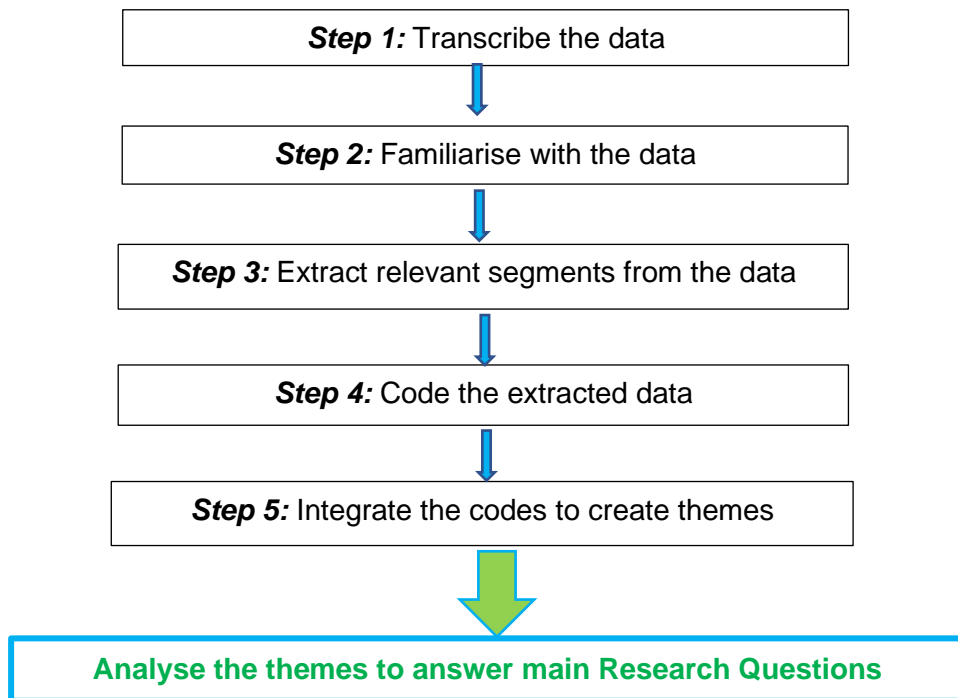
Research largely follows two types of reasoning or logic to analyse data, (a) inductive: a bottom up approach with participant or data driven meaning and (b) deductive: a top-down approach with researcher or theory-based meaning (Braun and Clarke, 2012; Dahlberg and McCaig, 2010). In qualitative research, the inductive approach to data analysis is more prevalent (Dahlberg and McCaig, 2010). The qualitative section of this research is primarily based on inductive reasoning, though some elements of deductive reasoning could be found too as Braun and Clarke (2012, p. 58) asserted,

In reality, coding and analysis often uses combination of both approaches. It is impossible to be purely inductive, as we always bring something to the data when we analyse it, and we rarely completely ignore the semantic content of the data when we code for a particular theoretical construct ... one tends to predominate.

Besides, an inductive or a deductive approach to the research is more apparent at the start than later in the research (Dahlberg and McCaig, 2010).

The data analysis strategy incorporated for this research was thematic analysis, a method that helps to identify, analyse and report patterns of important themes within the dataset (Braun and Clarke, 2006). Researchers are expected to reveal hidden meanings by uncovering data and provide intricate and rich 'nuanced interpretation of the data as the theme' by the utilisation of this method (Vaismoradi and Snelgrove, 2019, p.7). Thematic analysis helps a researcher 'to organise and simplify the complexity of the data into meaningful and manageable codes, categories and themes' (Peel, 2020, p.7). Scholars assert that thematic analysis is a cycle that follows a number of sequences (Braun and Clarke, 2012). Taking inspirations from the theorists, I decided to adopt my own five-phase qualitative data analysis process, discussed below along with a flow chart (4.3) to help visualise the process.

Chart 4.4: Qualitative data analysis process flow



Source: Researcher's own design

Phase 1: Transcribe the data

Before starting to analyse research data, it is vital to save everything safely so that no information is lost in the process. All the voice recordings were saved on various devices, such as laptop and phone, and virtual file-saving platforms, such as Google drive and iCloud, so that in case one is lost, there would still be a back-up copy. Devices and platforms used to save raw data were all personal and password-protected to ensure restricted access to anyone due to the confidential and sensitive nature of the data.

Once saved, the recordings were transcribed. This is a time-consuming and complex process (Fasick, 2001; Wellard and McKenna, 2001), as Britten (1995) stated that an hour-long interview could necessitate six to seven hours of transcription. 'Transcription refers to the process of reproducing spoken words, such as those from an audiotaped interview, into written text' (Halcomb and Davidson, 2006, p. 38). The managers' interviews were transcribed as much as possible verbatim, which refers to a process of reproducing verbal data word-for-word by replicating exact words from the voice-

recorded audio (Poland, 1995). Other supplementary data, such as interviews with the recruitment agency representatives, were transcribed selectively (Fielding and Thomas, 2008); meaning as and when needed not thorough transcription. Some scholars suggested that researchers should transcribe audio recordings orthographically (Braun and Clarke, 2012) by taking into account (i) the non-verbal or non-linguistic cues, for example silences, facial expressions and body language, (ii) emotional aspects, for instance laughs, cries and sighs, and (iii) other observation such as the setting descriptions (MacLean, Meyer and Estable, 2004; McLellan, MacQueen and Neidig, 2003; Wellard and McKenna, 2001). I, however, decided against it and only transcribed spoken words.

The majority of the recordings were transcribed manually by myself by playing the audio recording and typing out or writing down the words on paper. As Halcomb and Davidson (2006, p.40) rightly said,

Logically, it may be beneficial for researchers to transcribe their own interview data, given that they have first-hand knowledge from their involvement in the interview process, expertise in the interview subject, and the advantage of having participated in both verbal and nonverbal exchanges with the participants.

A software called Otter was also used, which did not produce accurate transcription possibly because of the background noises. The software-aided transcriptions needed revisiting to get a more accurate version. It is well known that professional transcribers and software often make significant errors that then require crosschecking and editing by the researcher (Fielding and Thomas, 2008; Poland, 1995).

Phase 2: Familiarise with the data

After transcribing the data, a considerable amount of time was spent on reading, re-reading and re-listening to how the respondents answered the questions, what exactly was said and how, and what else they said without being asked. As Erlingsson and Brysiewicz (2017, p.94) mentioned, 'the initial step is to read and re-read the interviews to get a sense of the whole, i.e., to gain a general understanding of what your participants are talking about'. The purpose of revisiting the data repeatedly is to immerse oneself in the data (Braun and Clarke, 2012) to familiarise with the contents of the data (Theron, 2015). This stage was quite stimulating because this was when I

started to notice similarities as well as dissimilarities in the responses and was getting ready to capture the ideas.

Phase 3: Extract relevant segments from the data

After becoming aware of what has been said by (re)reading and (re)listening, potentially meaningful information from the data set was extracted. This phase of data extraction discloses segments of data that have relevance to the main research questions (Peel, 2020). The data extraction stage was also helpful in deciding which raw data were irrelevant for the research as qualitative data by nature generate greater amounts of information that are unrelated to the research question (Gläser and Laudel, 2013). Although at this stage nothing was discarded, just set aside. Table 4.5 below shows examples of extracted data, which have been used to partially answer the third research question.

Phase 4: Code the extracted data

The extracted data were coded to give them meaning. Codes are said to be the building blocks that guide the researcher to ascertain patterns of meanings within the data set in line with the central research goal (Clarke and Braun, 2017). Coding 'is most often a word or short phrase that symbolically assigns a summative, salient, essence-capturing and or evocative attribute for a portion of language-based or visual data' (Saldaña, 2010, p. 3). Coding helps to organise the raw data in a way that the underlying messages become more obvious to the researcher (Smith and Davies, 2010). Determining what to code from the transcript is a matter of deciding what is and is not vital for the study and is mostly guided by the core purpose of the research (Fielding, 2008). Table 4.5 below shows some early stage codes, some of which have changed while others remained the same. Coding is a continuous process as 'you may adjust, re-do, re-think, and re-code until you get to the point where you are satisfied that your choices are reasonable' (Erlingsson and Brysiewicz, 2017, p. 96).

Phase 5: Integrate the codes to create themes

Once some tentative codes have been identified, one or more codes were clustered together to create a theme. A theme generally typifies a pattern of meaning originating from the dataset (Joffe, 2012) that 'captures something important about the data in relation to the research question and represents some level of patterned response or

meaning within the data set' (Braun and Clarke, 2006, p.82). Themes could contain manifest or explicit contents that are directly observable and latent or implicit contents that need interpretation as opposed to being readily obvious (Joffe, 2012). The themes drawn for this research were a combination of both as some themes were self-explanatory while others needed exploration and explanation. For instance the theme used in Table 4.5 below, "the process of recruitment in hotel housekeeping", is an explicit one.

Braun and Clarke, (2012, p. 57) emphasised that 'identifying unique and idiosyncratic meaning and experiences found only within a single data item is not the focus of TA'. I, however, do believe that it is important to report points raised by just one or two respondents but not many because it could hint at something that may have been overlooked.

Table 4.5: Sample data extraction and coding process

	Extracted Data	Codes	Themes
Agency	When we need people I ring the agency and they send people	Use of agency / dependency on agency / outsource staff / outsource HR activity	Convenience (no hiring process needed)
	When we need staff we just ring the agency and they send staff. Sometimes the next day, sometimes we have to wait a couple of days	Swiftness of the service	Time saving (Manager can use the time elsewhere because hiring process from start to end could take longer than just a couple of days)
	I always contact the agency if I need staff, they do everything for us, I don't get involved	Outsourcing the entire HRM process	Hands-off (no involvement in paperwork or other HR issues)
	We use agency knowing it is expensive because I physically don't have the time to interview people and carry out the recruitment process, holiday calculation and all that	Higher cost involved but the convenience is prioritised	Costly yet time efficient
	I do the selection myself. We don't use agency for regular jobs we only use agency to top up my work force	Occasional use of agency to meet workload	Control (used as and when needed to help the core team)
Referral	That's the cheapest way to recruit	Use of referral or word-of-mouth hiring	Cheapest
	That's the biggest source of recruitment, because people bring someone when they trust them	Trust being one of the main reasons	Easy to trust
	People get bonus for up to 3 months, £25, £50 then £100 for referring a friend. This is how we get people now and this is how we motivate people as well.	Bonus on referral as a means of motivating staff	Use of monetary reward for motivation

Source: Field Survey, HOS, June 2017- February 2018

4.6. Positionality as a Researcher

Researchers often chose topics through their own ideological preconceptions and they are not 'impartial observers' (Osipovic, 2010, p. 77), therefore, as Charmaz (2005, p.510) commented, 'no analysis is neutral- despite research analysts' claims of neutrality. We do not come to our studies uninitiated'. It is, thus, essential that researchers remain cognizant of their positionality throughout the investigation process. Scholars have cautioned researchers about the importance of being honest about the motives for investigating their topics and not to pretend to be neutral, because in the absence of an honest and open-minded approach, research evidence could be lost or present misleading outcomes (Smith and Bowers-Brown, 2010).

The choice of the topic was inspired by my work experience at a London based conglomerate. I worked there for a year and during that year, I was moved to three different 5-star rated hotels as well as their head office, so, the work experience was short-spanned but I was extensively exposed to a wider population and environment. The ideology that I developed about hotel jobs in London based on my experiences was full of disapproval. I saw colleagues who had their job contract terminated because of calling in sick during their six-month' probation period, others met with the same misfortune for not being able to come back to work due to family emergencies. The management made very high demands on and had high expectations of the workers, which was not reciprocated in any way. The managers were mechanical with little authority. They all wanted to play safe and go by the books because of their constant fear of losing their own jobs. I have only worked in one hotel chain, but was told by several colleagues that it is the same in every hotel, i.e. management do not care about the workers. If I protest, I will lose the job instantly and the hotel will find a replacement almost immediately. Thus, my research journey started with this first-hand experience at a London hotel with an ambition to search for answers to the many questions that I had in that one-year period.

Identifying as an Insider

Researchers' choice of topic and their backgrounds put them on a binary positioning of insider and outsider (Osipovic, 2010; Ganga and Scott, 2006; Mullings, 1999; Hill-Collins, 1990). At the beginning, I identified myself as an insider (Le Gallais, 2008), as

Viskovic and Robson (2001) affirmed that identity is formed through our participation in communities and lived experiences. Hockey (1993, p. 145) noted several benefits of being an insider in the research context,

Relative lack of culture shock or disorientation, the possibility of enhanced rapport and communication, the ability to gauge the honesty and accuracy of responses, and the likelihood that respondents will reveal more intimate details of their lives to someone considered empathetic.

This definitely applied to me. I had mentioned to all the participated in the study that I used to work at a hotel and the revelation often put the respondents at ease and they became more engaged and comfortable to talk.

Nevertheless, identifying as an insider heightened the chances of various unwanted shortcomings. Theorists have warned insiders about the demerits, such as over-familiarity in the context and taken-for-granted mind-set that impede the researchers' 'clearsightedness' (Schutz, 1976, cited in Le Gallais, 2008, p.146) resulting in attempts to fit in and believe what the insiders expect to believe (Le Gallais, 2008; Hockey, 1993). Consequently, research by an insider is often perceived as problematic and treated with scepticism because of the assumption that it does not follow the high standards of cognitive rigour as the insider may have a personal stake attached to the topic of research (Alvesson, 2003; Anderson and Herr, 1999). Theorists on the other end claim that a researcher's positioning as an insider is often regarded as the Holy Grail and the outsider positioning is seen as more challenging (Ganga and Scott, 2006). However, according to academic research context, an 'insider' is someone who is employed within the industry of research, thus, a complete member of the community (Le Gallais, 2008; Brannick and Coghlan, 2007; Hockey, 1993), which I was not in real sense as my investigation started four years after I had left the industry. I was not an active participant of the social world of the populace under study (Hockey, 1993) and therefore, not subject to role duality, which can be challenging and perplexing (Brannick and Coghlan, 2007).

Transitioning from Insider to Outsider

During the data collection, my insider-self started to depart gradually as I began to discover a new world, the world of hotel housekeeping, and immerse myself in that

world which was unfamiliar to me. At this stage, my attachment to the hotel industry along with the preconceived ideologies that I held, started to disappear naturally and involuntarily yet rapidly because I no longer worked in the industry and could not relate to the behaviours, attitudes and culture anymore. This transition awakened my outsider-self, which allowed me to let go of the emotional baggage and facilitated my impersonal observance of the phenomenon. It has been pertinently claimed that a researcher will become an outsider, even in a familiar environmental setting, when the people studied belong to a different socio-cultural background and hold perspectives that are dissimilar to the ones that are adopted by the researcher (Burgess, 2006).

Some scholars have argued that the process of doing a research challenges the insider positioning and position all researchers as outsiders (Paechter, 2013; Obasi, 2012). For me, the transition from insider to outsider was invaluable because it transformed my thought process from subjective to objective. Outsider researchers are considered more objective (Aiello and Nero, 2019; Burgess, 2006), although, this was contested by Moynihan (1965) over half a decade ago claiming that it is only the insiders who can investigate fellow insiders in an unbiased and accurate manner. In the same spirit, Subreenduth and Rhee (2010, p. 334) questioned 'how do we find the dividing lines for insider and outsider?' I cannot dispute the fact that my insider experience remained and will remain with me, but it became dormant, therefore, its capability to influence my research analysis was weakened drastically, which aided me to present impartial results without my insider experience distorting it. I acknowledged my transition and I carried on introducing myself as an insider to the participants because it made the introduction effortless and helped gain a level of credibility and trust, but the genuine feeling of being an insider disappeared.

Positioning for the Research

I found myself taking two different stances in this investigation. At the data collection stage, I considered myself as an insider, this reflected in the way I introduced myself to the participants, which allowed me a shortcut route to mutual familiarisation necessary to establish common ground to develop research relationship with respondents (Le Gallais, 2008). Being considered as an insider was challenging because of my incomplete membership to this community, hence I had to switch my positioning based on my perceived relatedness with the information provided. On the

one hand, during the manager interviews, I was a 'native going stranger' (Hockey, 1993) because even though I experienced London hotel management practices and culture firsthand, I struggled to identify myself with the present organisational approaches. On the other hand, with the HOS survey I was 'stranger going native' (Hockey, 1993) because I had very little knowledge and understanding about housekeeping roles when I started my research. I had to familiarise myself with the job tasks, physical and psychological demand levels, and the heavy reliance of migrant workers. So, I was absorbing all this new information and with each survey conducted, I became more and more accustomed to the housekeeping tasks and the people. My insider-self used to last only for the duration of the interaction with the respondents but beyond that I was an outsider. The data analysis stage, thus, was minimally influenced, if at all, by me identifying as an insider. My positioning confirms Mullings' (1999) stipulation that the insider and outsider positioning is not a stable attribute, rather a dynamic one that varies depending on the situations.

Choice of Voice for the thesis

'Voice' or 'academic voice' or 'writing voice' (Mitchell, 2017, p.2) is a conscious decision of the writer or author considering how the person intends to be heard by the readers (Humphrey, Davidson and Walton, 2014). Writers' voices are reflections of their perspectives, which can be either subjective with their own viewpoints or objective, more impersonal perspectives (Zhou and Hall, 2018). Traditionally, qualitative researchers write in first-person voice, while quantitative researchers use passive or third-person voice (Zhou and Hall, 2018). Some claim that by using the pronoun 'I' researchers take accountability of their argument and that a different interpretation would be likely if someone else had carried out the same research (Smith and Bowers-Brown, 2010). With first-person voice, researchers take authorship, use expressive language and describe the contextual information in greater detail (Greene, 2007). The use of passive or neutral voice can be perceived as impersonal and give the readers the impression of 'how little what they say depends on them personally, how much, rather it reflects the reality their unique knowledge gives them access to' (Becker, 2007, p.36). Qualitative and quantitative investigations, thus, are said to belong to separate 'interpretive communities' (Sandelowski, 2003, p. 322).

Greene (2007) alleged that the voice gets complicated when social scientists adopt mixed-methods research, however, this writing challenge is less severe when investigations adopt a mixture of paradigms within the same study, where each method serves its individual purpose and remains isolated until the conclusion is drawn. This aptly explains the way this thesis is laid out. Throughout this thesis, I have maintained a first-person voice apart from Chapter Five, a quantitative analysis chapter, where I have respected the traditional way of reporting quantitative findings using passive voice. Although there have been suggestions that mixed-methods researchers could blend voices, alternating between active and passive ((Zhou and Hall, 2018), I decided against it and adhered to the writing styles that are traditionally accepted for each method. Greene (2007, p. 182) appropriately indicated,

Writing up mixed methods studies that are conducted within a single inquiry tradition, even though there is a mix of methods, is not problematic, as the norms and expectations of that single tradition can be sensibly and defensibly used for the mixed methods write-up.

4.7. Research Bias

Understanding and addressing bias in the research context and process is crucial for three reasons. (i) The existence of bias in research is challenging to eliminate (Malone, Nicholl and Tracey, 2014), (ii) each phase of the research process is susceptible to bias (Arnold, 2011) and (iii) the credibility and validity of the research findings are impacted by various bias (Smith and Noble, 2014). There has been a realisation that strategic actions by the researchers are often not adequate to protect the data collection phase from undetected biases and that ultimate control over all the bias causing factors are usually unrealistic (Miyazaki and Taylor, 2008). Three categories of bias was identified in this research context, which are discussed below.

Research Bias

Respondent Selection Bias

On most occasions, HK managers acted as gatekeepers and selected the survey respondents for me depending on their language fluency and availability at the time. This may have introduced selection or participant bias to the study (Smith and Noble,

2014), because the managers may have intentionally selected staff who they knew were more positive towards work and management. However, it must be noted that selection bias is more prominent in comparative studies (Collier and Mahoney, 1996), while in quantitative social research, the effect of such bias is not as severe, thus, efforts to correct this bias may introduce more issues than they resolve (Collier, 1995). It was out of my control to select participants for the survey without the permission of the managers, but an exhaustive questionnaire design meant that there were multiple follow-on or probing questions on the important topics, such as wage and work enjoyment, which may have counteracted this selection bias. Besides, the majority of the HOS did not appear to be frightened or hesitant to verbalise their thoughts, which was assuring to a certain extent.

Response Bias

Attention Bias or Hawthorne Effect

The natural behaviours of respondents could be distorted if they knew that they are being studied, known as the Hawthorne Effect (Bornmann, 2012; Eckmanns *et al.*, 2006; Mangione-Smith *et al.*, 2002). This is also called 'attention bias' (p. 61) because respondents replace their authentic behaviours with artificial and insincere behaviours that they presume are suitable for the research dynamics (Cook, 2010), especially true in face-to-face situations (Windle and Rolfe, 2011). Sometimes, I felt that the survey respondents might have answered questions based on what is deemed appropriate versus expressing their genuine views.

Social Desirability Bias

Social scientists have claimed that social desirability bias often lurks in self-reported job aspects (Spector, 1994). This is 'the general tendency of individuals to present themselves in a manner that makes them look positive with regard to culturally accepted standards of behaviour' (Chung and Monroe, 2003, p. 292). Social desirability bias is said to more prevalent in the face-to-face setting (Duffy *et al.*, 2005). The responses can take either direction, over-reporting or under-reporting, which may affect the interpretation of research findings (Larson, 2019). Scholars recommend that multiple sources of data could minimise social desirability bias and draw much reliable conclusion (Spector, 1994). This research not only used diverse sources of data, workers, managers and recruitment agency representatives, but also cross-verified or

added conditions where possible to analyse the responses. For instance, to understand the actual importance of money, follow on questions were added, which provided a much better interpretation of the question. Respondent anonymity in the survey method is another way to lessen this bias (Larson, 2019) which was employed in this research too. Nonetheless, it was duly acknowledged that social desirability bias, particularly in social research, might not be eliminated entirely.

Automatic Compliance

Getting survey respondents to answer the questions enthusiastically and truthfully is an unrealistic expectation according to Krosnick and Presser (2010, p.265), who further added,

Some people may agree to complete a questionnaire as result of a relatively automatic compliance process or because they are required to do so. Thus, they may agree merely to provide answers, with no intrinsic motivation to make the answers of high quality.

I felt this was the case for some of the respondents.

Researcher Bias

In qualitative research, particularly the method chosen for this research- face-to face interview, researcher bias is a critical aspect that demands special consideration (Mehra, 2002). Although complete eradication cannot be guaranteed, there were a few controls implemented to minimise researcher bias.

- (i) Researcher-administered survey was chosen to minimise participant reporting bias (under-reporting, over-reporting) and central tendency bias (Malone, Nicholl and Tracey, 2014)
- (ii) The majority of the interviews with the managers were voice recorded because this is one way of eliminating an aspect of research bias which could arise where one has to rely on memory as opposed to having evidence of exactly what and how something was said (Driscoll, 2011).
- (iii) Transcription of the first interview was studied by the supervisors, which served as a pilot study that tested 'the quality of interview protocol' and identified 'potential researcher biases' (Chenail, 2009, p.16).

4.8. Ethical Considerations

In research ethics denotes 'the moral values or principles that form the basis of a code of conduct ... which is concerned with the manner in which research is conducted and how the results or findings are reported' (Collis and Hussey, 2014, p. 30). Ethics approval from the university was obtained before attempting to collect data for the research and a high ethical standard was maintained throughout. This is critical for social research because it ensures protection to the research participants and the researcher (Broom, 2006). Generally, organisational management research entails a hands-off approach that utilises observation, survey and interview as instruments for data collection and the participants tend not to be highly vulnerable hence, it is sometimes assumed that the subjects require less protection (Greenwood, 2016; Beattie, *et al.*, 2002). That is not to claim that there are no ethical concerns. Research in any environment would raise moral dilemma as it 'constitutes an unprovoked, purposeful intervention into somebody else's social world' (Osipovic, 2010, p.81). Some ethical principles relevant to this research are discussed below.

Informed Consent

One of the core ethical questions for any researcher is 'Do the people I am studying have full information about what the study will involve?' (Miles and Huberman, 1994, p. 291 cited in Beattie, *et al.*, 2002, p. 124). The informed consent form, that captures the voluntary consent from participants to take part in the study, is the tool that addresses this ethical concern. For this research, it was ensured that every participant signed the consent form and understood the research purpose. Some managers did not want to print their names down on the form, while some other managers did not give their consent to voice record the interview. This implied a level of insecurity and lack of trust, which is understandable considering the circumstances as I was a complete stranger to them.

Honesty and Transparency

In a social research setting, it is vital to be candid and honest with the participants in communicating the details about the study (Bell and Bryman, 2007). This was done through providing an information sheet to every participant. There were two versions drafted, one for the HOS and the other more elaborate version for the managers.

Harm or Risk to Participants

While the odds for causing physical harm are minimal in management research, there are possibilities of inflicting psychological harm, such as damage to participants' self-esteem or revealing one's opinion to another, which could negatively affect the existing relationships among the members of the organisation (Beattie, *et al.*, 2002). There were occasions when HK managers asked me after the HOS survey, how the staffs' responses were, I tackled these questions diplomatically by avoiding answering to the question directly and diverting the conversation topic to something else. Active efforts were made in every such events to protect the psychological wellbeing of participants, which is an obligation of a researcher (Bell and Bryman, 2007).

Privacy Protection and Confidentiality

Sensitive data that can identify an organisation, if publicised without caution, could damage the reputation of the organisation or (Beattie, *et al.*, 2002). Precautions were taken not to disclose any identifiable information of the participating hotels, thereby ensuring confidentiality. Hotels were acknowledged by their star rating in the thesis.

Participant Anonymity

Similar to the organisation, participants' identity needs protection too (Beattie, *et al.*, 2002). To ensure that the participants remain anonymous, especially the HOS, only their initials were requested on the consent form. In the discussion chapters, the participants were identified as for example 'a HK Manager from a 4-star hotel' or 'a HK staff or HOS'.

Data Misrepresentation

Distorted and misleading information or false recording of research findings is a major ethics issue (Bell and Bryman, 2007). A considerable time and effort had been invested to avoid such misrepresentation and where possible raw data were included that reflect the idea of the discussion as an evidence.

4.9. Summary

This chapter set out the overall research design. Research methodology as some say, 'may be understood as a science of studying how research is done scientifically' (Kothari, 2004, p. 8). It is known for containing more than enough information for another researcher to replicate the study (Brink, Van der Walt and Van Rensburg, 2006).

Mixed-methods, qualitative and quantitative, had been carefully chosen as the most feasible approach for data collection and data analysis because of the population criteria. There were two sets of respondents, the hotel housekeeping managers and the housekeeping operational staff. Using convenience sampling, a form of non-probability sampling, qualitative data were collected from 53 hotel housekeeping managers. Semi-structured interviewing method was adopted for data collection. The data were then analysed following thematic analysis approach involving five stages, starting with transcribing the initial interviews to text format to create codes and then integrating the codes to form themes that helped answer the research questions. Quantitative data were collected from 106 hotel housekeeping workers applying random or probability clustered sampling and using researcher-administered survey questionnaires. SPSS version 24 was used to analyse data. All the information collected through the survey of 106 participants was entered in SPSS first to create the data sheet which was then used to run further statistical tests, such as correlation tests and regression analysis. In total 57 different three-and-over star rated hotels in London participated in the research. Particular attention was paid to safeguard the survey respondents' anonymity as well as ensuring that any identifiable information about the participating hotel is not disclosed.

There were some challenges, as discussed earlier in the chapter, which needed resolving while conforming to the best practices and ethical standards. Although, each obstacle taught a lesson, they prolonged the data collection phase. Preparation for the data analysis stage, transcribing the interviews and entering the raw data in SPSS, was time consuming and took a considerable time to complete.

Furthermore, my positionality as a researcher started with identifying as an insider where I introduced myself to the participants as someone who used to work at a hotel in London. This identification at the start of the survey and interview put the respondents at ease and more engaged and comfortable to have a conversation. However, the insider self was short lived and gradually transitioned to an outsider when I started to uncover the world of hotel housekeeping, which was unknown to me, and the divergences between what I was being told by the respondents and the preconceived ideas that I held. This transition helped me to not attempt to fit in and believe what an insider is expected to believe (Le Gallais, 2008; Hockey, 1993). My overall positioning, therefore, was a 'native going stranger' (Hockey, 1993)

To encapsulate, this chapter laid out the main structure upon which the thesis is built on. The subsequent chapter reports and discussed the quantitative data collected from the hotel housekeeping staff.

CHAPTER FIVE

Turnover Intention Factors for the HOS: Quantitative Analysis

This chapter discusses the outcomes of the statistical analysis, utilising the questionnaire survey data of 106 HOS. The data used in this chapter were gathered from 106 HOS from three-and-over star rated hotels located in various areas of London. A detailed profile of the participants was included in the methodology chapter. The collected data were quantitative in nature, therefore, the analysis was based on quantitative methods too. The software used for data analysis was SPSS version 24. It examined the relationship between worker characteristics, work-related factors and HOS's turnover intentions by applying quantitative methods, mainly descriptive statistics, correlation test and logistic regression analysis.

The theoretical framework outlined in Chapter Three suggests that a diverse range of factors shape employees' engagement and commitment, and in the absence of these factors or in the absence of some or all of these factors, workers' intention to leave the organisation heightens. This chapter examines the practical implications of these theoretical constructs from the perspectives of the workers in London hotel housekeeping context. The primary objective here is to address the first research question, 'What are the factors that positively or negatively affect workers' choices of staying at the hotel or leaving the hotel?', by analysing the data collected from the HOS using survey questionnaire and occasionally some field notes that were taken during the survey. This was a proxy question to understand workers' engagement with their work and commitment to their organisations because it became salient from reviewing the literature that when workers are engaged and committed, they tend to stay at the organisations and when the reverse is true, they leave.

This chapter consists of four sections. It starts by exploring the association between individual worker characteristics and their intention to stay at the hotel, focusing on workers' engagement at work and their commitment to the hotel. Next, it examines whether work-related factors- job position, job demands, access to and availability of support at work and work enjoyment- are significantly related to HOS' intention to turnover or not. These are important predictors of one's decision to stay with or leave the job. This section has four subsections, where HOS' hiring process, job position, job demand, job resources and work enjoyment are tested for association and analysis. In the third section, a logistic regression is adopted to estimate the associations between four predictor factors and HOS decision to stay at the hotel in

the next six months. The final section includes overall discussion and conclusion drawn from the exploration in this chapter.

5.1. Worker Characteristics and Intentions to Stay on the Job

It was understood from the reviewed literature that workers' demographic or personal characteristics are linked to their engagement with the jobs and commitment to the organisations. This section examines the associations between HOS' demographic and work-related characteristics and their levels of work engagement and organisational commitment. Intentions to remain in the same hotel for a period of time, next six months, were captured in a survey question formulated as "Would you like to stay at the same hotel for the next six months?", with three choice responses 'yes', 'not sure' and 'no'.

Gender could not be used to test for associations between variables because of the insignificant variation in participants' gender. There were only 8.5% male (n=9) respondents because London hotel HK appeared to be dominated by female workers, as claimed by many previous scholars (Kensbock *et al.*, 2016; Sanon, 2013; Liladrie, 2010; Vanselow *et al.*, 2010; Harris, 2009; Scherzer, Hunter Powell and Watson, 2006; Rugulies and Krause, 2005; Ryan, 1998). There was a good variation in respondents' age, ranging from 20 to 63, but age was found to be statistically insignificant to HOS' intentions to stay with or leave the job (Pearson's $r = -0.135$, $p > 5\%$), confirming Iqbal's (2010) findings, which established no significant correlation between workers' age and commitment. Chi-square tests were carried out to ascertain whether marital status and kinship responsibilities had a significant association with HOS' commitment. The results were statistically insignificant, (Chi-square = 0.002, $df = 2$, $p > 5\%$), in agreement with Cogaltay's (2015) research outcomes that reported no relationship between marital status or kinship responsibilities to commitment. The finding contradicted other studies that had claimed significant relationship between workers' marital status, kinship responsibilities and commitment (Iverson and Buttigieg, 1999; Mottaz, 1988; Angle and Perry, 1983). The relationship between HOS' levels of educational and their levels of organisational commitment was tested applying the Spearman's ranked correlation test (Spearman's $\rho = 0.026$, $p = 0.795$) and no association was found,

contradicting previous studies (Iqbal, 2010; Wahn, 1998; Tansky, Gallagher and Wetzal, 1997; Mathieu and Zajac, 1990; Angle and Perry, 1983).

Some HOS reported previous work experiences in hotels. A Pearson Chi-Square test of association was conducted to access whether workers' previous work experience was significantly associated with their intentions to stay on the job for the next six months and no association was established ($r= 0.346$, $df= 2$, $p> 5\%$). A Pearson's product-moment correlation test was carried out to ascertain whether there was a significant association between workers' tenure at the organisation and their decision to stay on the job. No statistically significant relationship was found between the two variables ($r= 0.094$, $p> 5\%$), refuting earlier claims that length of service was strongly related to workers' commitment (Valaei and Rezaei, 2016; Iqbal, Kokash and Al-Oun, 2011; Iqbal, 2010; Hrebiniak and Alutto, 1972).

HOS in the sample were all migrant workers. It was assumed that their length of residence in the host country could be related to their intention to stay on the job. A Pearson product-moment correlation test, two-tailed, was conducted and the results ($r=-0.185$, $p=0.057$) were statistically significant at 10% significance level, hence the null hypothesis of no relationship between the two variables was rejected (Table 5.1).

H₁: HOS' intention to stay in the same hotel is related to the time they have spent in the UK

Table 5.1: Correlation test result, 'Stay in the same hotel' vs 'Time spent in the UK'

	Stay in the same hotel	Time spent in the UK
Pearson Correlation	1	-0.185
Sig. (2-tailed)		0.057
N	106	106

Source: Field Survey, HOS, June 2017- February 2018

A negative association indicated that the more time HOS spent in the UK the less likely they would stay at the hotel in the long-term. This would suggest that as they spend more time in the UK, their English language fluency improves and they acquire industry-related experience and other skills, which may make them aware of their

potentials. With this awareness, they may start to become less satisfied with their present job and start looking for a better job. This is in line with Parutis' (2014) assertion that migrant workers tend not to stay in one job, rather, they move jobs to improve their economic position within the labour market.

In sum, the test results revealed mostly statistically insignificant relationship between worker characteristics and their intention to stay at the hotel, apart from the workers time spent in the UK. This seems consistent with previous claims where scholars have pointed out that workers demographics often provide insignificant variance on the measures of engagement (Sharma, Goel, and Sengupta, 2017; Koyuncu, Burke and Fiksenbaum, 2006), while some others noted demographic variables rarely play any major role in the formation of commitment (Meyer *et al.*, 2002).

This section discussed the relationship between HOS' demographic characteristics and their intention to stay at the hotel. The following section explores the affiliation between work-related variables and HOS' intention to stay at the hotel in the long term.

5.2. Work-related Factors and the Propensity to Stay on the Job

Past studies have suggested a number of work-related factors that may contribute to workers' intention to leave the job. These are discussed in this section in four parts. The first segment tests the relevance of the hiring process and job position in HOS' decision to stay at the hotel. The next segment explores whether or not job demand has any significant association with HOS' turnover decision. The third part examines the job resources in two sub-segments. The extrinsic resources sub-section tests if wage and satisfaction with one's wage has any relevance to the turnover decisions or not. The intrinsic resources sub-segment explores the association of managers' support and work appreciation with workers intention to stay at the hotel in the long-term. The fourth segment tests the importance of work enjoyment in understanding HOS' turnover decisions.

5.2.1. Hiring Process and Job Position

To begin to uncover the factors that can affect HOS' intention to stay with or leave the hotel, it is important to understand whether their initial entry to the hotel, the hiring process, has any bearing on their decision or not. The most used method of hiring was through recruitment agencies (58%, n= 61), followed by the social networks of existing employees (25%, n= 27) and a small proportion of the participants either walked in or applied directly for the job (17%, n= 18). The extensive use of mediating organisations to recruit hotel workers has been repeatedly stated in the literature (Alberti and Danaj, 2017; Samaluk, 2016; Alberti, 2014; Sporton, 2013; Fitzgerald and Hardy, 2010; Lucas and Mansfield, 2010; Lai, Soltani and Baum, 2008; McDowell, Batnitzky and Dyer, 2008; Dench *et al.*, 2006) as well as the use of social networks (Markova *et al.*, 2016; McCollum and Apsite-Berina, 2015; Forde and MacKenzie, 2009; Jentsch, De Lima and MacDonald, 2007).

These responses were cross-examined with the proxy question of whether HOS would stay in the same hotel in the next six months. The results showed that HOS who were hired through reference or a social network were most likely to consider leaving the job (26%), followed by those who were hired through an agency (16%). The cohort that was least likely to leave was the ones who had applied directly (5.5%) (Table 5.2). However, no statistically significant relationship was found between the hiring process and the decision to remain in the hotel for the long term (Chi-square = 9.206, df= 6, p= 0.162).

Table 5.2: Cross tabulation, 'Stay at the hotel' vs 'Hiring processes'

		Stay in the same hotel				% of workers wanting to leave
		No	Not sure	Yes	Total	
Hiring process	Reference	7	1	19	27	25.92
	Agency	10	8	43	61	16.39
	Direct application	1	2	15	18	5.55
Total		18	11	77	106	

Source: Field Survey, HOS, June 2017- February 2018

The results are comparable to Choi and Dickson's findings that claimed that when workers are hired through interview with the manager, matching the person with job attributes and providing a realistic job description, it prevents premature departure of new recruits resulting from mismatch (Choi and Dickson, 2009). HOS who applied directly were least likely to turnover because they possibly had made an informed decision to accept the job by meeting the manager during their encounter where they probably had picked up signals of the unobservable characteristics of the employer and the overall organisation. These signals are said to be crucial in making job choices as discussed in the literature review (Rynes, Bretz Jr and Gerhart, 1991).

After observing that the hiring process affected HOS' decision to stay at the hotel, next, their current job position was examined. To test whether the job position was relevant to HOS' intention to turnover or not, a correlation test was carried out.

H₂: HOS' intention to stay in the same hotel is related to their job position

Respondents' job title was segregated into four ranked categories, from low to high-level position, namely, Room Attendant, Public Area Cleaner or Linen Porter, Key Maid or Evening Room Attendant and Supervisor. The appropriate test for correlation between HOS' job position and their intention to stay at the hotel in the long run would be Pearson Chi-Square test. The correlation test was run and a statistically significant result was obtained with a p-value of 0.086 and Cramer's V value of 0.229, indicating a small to moderate relationship between the two variables. However, this result is unacceptable because there were six cells (50.0%) with expected count less than 5. the results are presented in Table 5.3. Therefore, to test the association Spearman's rho was chosen, as one of the variables (job position) was ordinal.

Table 5.3. Cross tabulation, 'Job position/ hierarchy' vs 'Stay at the same hotel'

		Stay at the same hotel			Total
		No	Not sure	Yes	
Job Position/ Hierarchy	RA	38	10	14	62
	LP or PAC	17	0	2	19
	KM	7	0	0	7
	FS	15	1	2	18
Total		77	11	18	106

Source: Field Survey, HOS, June 2017- February 2018

Table 5.4: Correlation test result, 'Job position' vs 'Stay at the same hotel'

		Job position	Stay at the same hotel
Spearman's rho	Correlation Coefficient	1	-.268**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.	0.006
	N	106	106
**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).			

Source: Field Survey, HOS, June 2017- February 2018

The Spearman's rho test results on table 5.4 shows that the correlation between the two calculated variables is statistically significant with a p-value less than 0.05, which means the hypothesis is accepted. HOS' intention to stay in the same hotel in the long run is negatively related to their job position. As the job position increases, their intention to stay in the same hotel decreases.

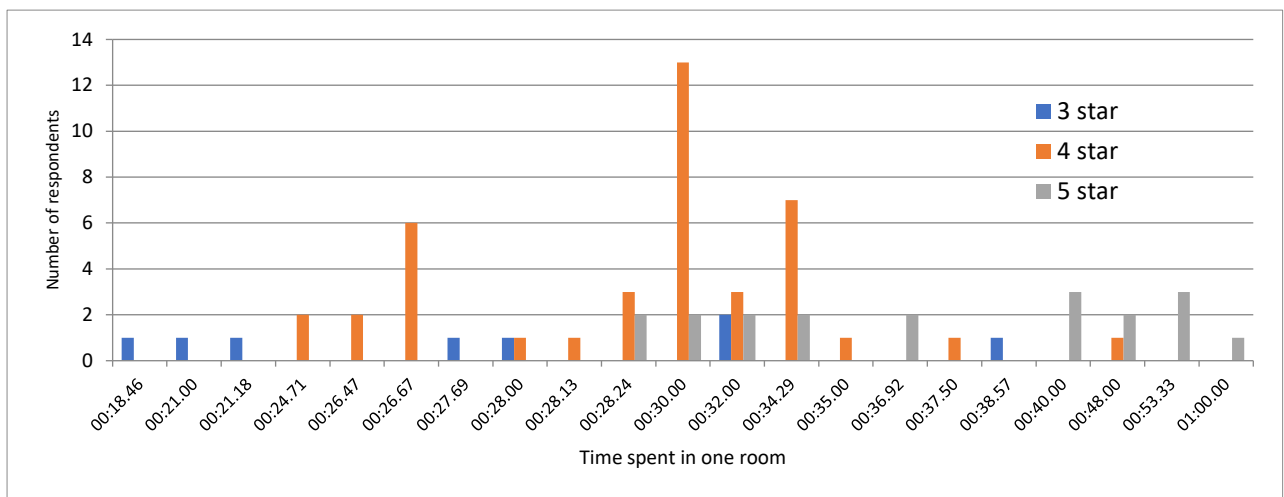
One possible explanation to this result could be similar to the relationship with the time spent in the UK, as HOS progress to higher positions they realise their capabilities and potential, which may make them more inclined to look for a better job, which is, yet again, consistent with Parutis's (2014) migration process analogy. This finding contradicts with the literature that claims that higher position holding workers are more committed to the organisation than their lower position-holding counterparts (Brimeyer, Perrucci and Wadsworth, 2010; Iqbal, 2010). The result, however, was comparable to a study that reported that higher position holding men are more likely to quit than lower position holding co-workers (Martin Jr, 1979). This study result might indicate that higher position holding women also exhibit a similar pattern of quitting behaviour.

5.2.2. Job Demands

To explore the job demand of HOS, it was required to separate the workers who were responsible for servicing the guestrooms from the 106 participants. There were about 68 room attendants from 3, 4 and 5-star rated hotels. The number of rooms serviced a day varied depending on the star rating and the size of the hotel, typically varying from seven to 18 rooms. They spent a minimum of 18.46 minutes and a maximum of

60 minutes to service one room. The average time spent per room was estimated at 33 minutes. The numbers were calculated by dividing the total number of rooms cleaned per day by the total hours worked each day. The time length per room also differed based on the star rating of the hotel as well as the size and structure of the room. Figure 5.1 below displays the time allocated per room according to the star rating of the hotels. On average, 3-star rated hotels spent between 18 and 38 minutes, 4-star properties spent anything from 24 minutes to 48 minutes, although a spike can be seen at the mid-range of 28-34 minutes and 5-star hotels spent 28 to 60 minutes per room.

Chart 5.1: 'Time spent per room by the RA' vs 'Star rating of the hotels'



Source: Field Survey, HOS, June 2017- February 2018

The bar chart shows Room Attendants in some 5-star hotels spent almost triple the time allocated for an RA in a 3-star property. RAs in some 3-star hotels clean a room in 18 minutes approximately, which may seem non-viable. This is because the basic and compulsory tasks of cleaning a room, for instance preparing the bed, cleaning the bathroom and vacuum cleaning the room, arguably, would take the same time to complete regardless of the star rating of the property and these are the jobs that are the most time-consuming. It seems unlikely that an RA working at a 3-star hotel would clean the bathtub or the shower area only and not the rest of the bathroom, she would need to clean everything. Time allocation of 18 minutes to service one room seemed very tight in comparison to some other similarly rated hotels who seemed to have allocated nearly half an hour or over to service one bedroom. Luxury hotels provide

more amenities and complimentary items in the room that need checking and replenishing which necessitate longer cleaning time, though it can be argued that these tasks demand less time than the compulsory cleaning tasks. The difference noted between the lower limit (28 minutes) and the higher limit (60 minutes) even in 5-star hotels is rather large too.

This clearly demonstrates a high level of job demands among the Room Attendants. The question here is- what did *they* think about these high job demands and time pressures? Participants were asked a few job-related questions, which could provide an insight into their perceptions about housekeeping jobs. For workload, 64 (60%) said they were not always busy rather they would be busy depending on the hotel occupancy but not always. Another 39 said they get very busy and there were three respondents who chose the option 'not busy at all'. In response to the question on how exhausted they felt at the end of their shifts, 76% (n=80) stated they get exhausted when the hotel is full but not all the time, 12 said they get very tired while 14 said they do not feel tired at all. They were also asked if they found their jobs stressful or not, to which 79% (n= 84) answered negatively, 20 said sometimes and only two found their jobs stressful.

HOS' responses may suggest that in general they may not necessarily perceive their jobs as stressful or even exhausting. To probe this further, a Pearson product-moment correlation test was conducted to assess whether the workload was significantly associated with HOS' decision to remain on the job or not. The number of rooms cleaned was chosen as a variable to represent job demands with the assumption that the more rooms a HOS cleans the more demanding the job becomes.

H₃: HOS' intention to stay in the same hotel is associated with their job demand

Pearson product-moment correlation test was conducted. This was the suitable test for the chosen variables as one was scale variable while the other was ordinal. There was a significant positive relationship between the number of rooms cleaned and HOS's intention to remain on the job long-term at 5% significance level ($r=0.192$, $p=0.048 < 5\%$).

Table 5.5: Correlation test result, 'Stay in the same hotel vs 'Number of rooms cleaned'

	Stay in the same hotel	Number of rooms cleaned
Pearson Correlation	1	.192*
Sig. (2-tailed)		0.048
N	106	106
*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).		

Source: Field Survey, HOS, June 2017- February 2018

The result suggests that the more rooms a HOS cleans the more likely the person is to intend to stay in the hotel. This result is analogous to the previous test results because the HOS who clean more rooms were generally the ones who were at the bottom level of the hierarchy, who did not appear to intend to leave the hotel. HOS who clean fewer rooms are the ones who were either Public Area Cleaners or Evening Room Attendants and they were also the ones who did not want to stay at the same hotel longer. From the test outcome, it can be inferred that high job demands did not contribute to HOS' decision to leave their jobs. This finding was in some way similar to an empirical study that reported that staff turnover in housekeeping departments increased with the workload but statistical tests were futile in showing any significant correlation between workload and turnover (Johnson, 1985). It has been rightly claimed that attempting to explain turnover decision based on job demand is not as straight forward as it may appear (Kilbridge, 1961). This may indicate that other factors should be considered in conjunction with the workload.

According to the literature, workers' job demand and the ensuing outcome could be understood better in comparison with the job resources available to the workers, therefore, the discussion on job resources follows below.

5.2.3. Job Resources

Job resources available to workers are divided into two sub-categories. (i) Extrinsic resources for tangible elements and (ii) intrinsic resources for intangible elements.

5.2.3.1. Extrinsic Resources

HOS' income was considered as the main extrinsic resource that was available to them. From the collected data, nearly half of the sample (n= 47, 44%) reported earning the National Living Wage (NLW) which was £7.50 per hour as of 2017-18 rate. Slightly over a quarter (n= 27, 26%) were earning over the NLW, up to £8 and 18 said that they were in the 'over £8 and up to £9' income group; 14 were paid over £9 up to £10 per hour. The average hourly wage of the HOS in the sample was estimated at £7.99 per hour. Regarding wage satisfaction, there were more dissatisfied than satisfied workers who earned NLW, but this could not be interpreted as that everyone who earned over the NLW was satisfied with their wages. From the results in Table 5.6, it could be argued that wage dissatisfaction was a phenomenon that affected everyone equally.

Table 5.6: Cross tabulation, 'Hourly wage' vs 'Wage satisfaction'

Wage per hour	Wage Satisfaction			Total
	Yes	Not Sure	No	
Min Wage £7.50	13	5	29	47
Over Min Wage	31	4	24	59
TOTAL	44	9	53	106

Source: Field Survey, HOS, June 2017- February 2018

To further examine the importance of HOS' hourly earnings in their engagement and commitment, participants were asked to choose a ranked response for the statement 'I would leave this job if I find another one with higher pay' on a 5-point Likert scale with 'strongly disagree'=1 to 'strongly agree'=5 that best represents their perceptions towards their wage. Almost two-thirds of the respondents (n= 49+20) either strongly agreed or agreed with the statement that they would leave their job for another one with a higher pay; 20 people were undecided and only 17 strongly disagreed with the statement. Some respondents who chose 'undecided' explained that their decision would depend on *how much more*, if it is 50p or £1 an hour then they would not be interested.

To determine if extrinsic resources have any impact on HOS' decision to stay at the hotel, a Pearson product-moment correlation test was conducted. The variable used here was the hourly wage of the HOS recorded in GBP.

H₄: HOS' intention to stay in the same hotel is associated with their wage

Table 5.7. Correlation test result, 'Stay in the same hotel' vs 'Hourly pay'

	Stay in the same hotel	Hourly pay
Pearson Correlation	1	-.344**
Sig. (2-tailed)		.000
N	106	106
**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).		

Source: Field Survey, HOS, June 2017- February 2018

There was a significant negative relationship between HOS's hourly pay and their intentions to remain on the job long term at 0.1% significance level ($r=-0.344$, $p=0.0000<0.1\%$). The negative sign implies that the higher the wage they earn the less likely they are to stay in the hotel. This repeats the results established in the earlier tests, the higher earning workers or higher position-holder workers are more likely to intend to leave. This contradicts claims made in the literature that lower waged workers have stronger intentions to leave (Albattat and Som, 2013). Further, a Spearman's ranked correlation test was carried out to establish whether HOS's satisfaction with wages was significantly associated with their decision to stay in the same hotel. The wage satisfaction variable had three ranked categories namely, 'no, not really', 'I am not sure' and 'yes definitely'.

H₅: HOS' intention to stay in the same hotel is associated with the satisfaction with their wage

Table 5.8: Cross tabulation, 'Stay in the same hotel' vs 'Wage satisfaction'

		Stay in the same hotel			Total
		No	Not sure	Yes	
Happy with wage	No	13	6	34	53
	not sure	2	3	4	9
	Yes	3	2	39	44
Total		18	11	77	106

Source: Field Survey, HOS, June 2017- February 2018

Table 5.9: Correlation test result, 'Stay in the same hotel' vs 'Wage satisfaction'

	Value	df	Asymptotic Significance (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	13.718 ^a	4	.008
N of Valid Cases	106		

Source: Field Survey, HOS, June 2017- February 2018

A Pearson Chi-Square test was carried out to establish the association. The test output showed a significant statistical correlation between the two variables with a p-value of 0.008 and Cremer's V of 0.254 demonstrating a small to moderate relationship between HOS' wage satisfaction and their propensity to stay at the hotel in the long run. However, yet again this test result was unacceptable because 33% cells had expected count of less than 5 as depicted in Table 5.9. To retest the association, a Spearman's rho correlation test was conducted and the results are presented in Table 5.10.

Table 5.10: Correlation test result, 'Stay in the same hotel' vs 'Wage satisfaction'

		Stay in the same hotel	Wage satisfaction
Spearman's rho	Correlation Coefficient	1	.257**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.	0.008
	N	106	106
**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).			

Source: Field Survey, HOS, June 2017- February 2018

The results in Table 5.10 indicate a statistically significant positive relationship between the two variables at 1% significance level ($\rho=0.257$, $p=0.008 < 1\%$). The more satisfied HOS were with their wages the more likely they were to stay in the same hotel in the long-term. This result may seem contradictory to an earlier correlation result (Table 5.6). However, on closer inspection, it appeared that higher wage does not mean that workers would be happy with the wage and they would want to stay but if they were happy with the wage, which could be NMW, they would be more likely to stay at the hotel. This was in line with the literature discussed in the earlier chapter that avowed that satisfaction with income affects workers' decision to stay with or leave the organisation (Yankeelov *et al.*, 2009; DeConinck and Stilwell, 2004; Dailey and Kirk, 1992).

H₆: HOS' intention to look for a higher paid job is significantly related to their wage satisfaction

A Spearman's ranked correlation test was conducted to establish whether the level of HOS wage satisfaction was negatively associated with their intentions to search for a better-paid job or not. The two variables are ordinal.

Table 5.11: Correlation test result, 'Leave this job for a higher paid one' vs 'Wage satisfaction'

		Leave this job for higher pay	Wage satisfaction
Spearman's rho	Correlation Coefficient	1.000	.399**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		0.000
	N	106	106
**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).			

Source: Field Survey, HOS, June 2017- February 2018

The new variable introduced here was a statement with five-point Likert scale responses where 1 represented strongly disagree and 5-strongly agree. The test results in Table 5.8 show a strong positive correlation between the two variables at 0.1% level of significance ($\rho=0.399$, $p=0.000 < 0.1\%$). The result indicates that the happier the HOS are with their wages, the more likely they are to leave for another better-paid job. This seems inconsistent with the literature, which had established that workers' satisfaction with income is associated with their job satisfaction and organisational commitment (Locke, 1969) and intention to leave the organisation (Albattat and Som, 2013; Yankeelov *et al.*, 2009; DeConinck and Stilwell, 2004; Dailey and Kirk, 1992). The result suggests that workers' satisfaction with their wages does not mean that they would commit to the organisation and refrain from searching for a better job.

The findings on the role of the extrinsic resource in HOS' decision to remain on the job may appear perplexing. Although monetary gain seemed important, it did not always guarantee commitment to the organisation and even if the HOS were satisfied with their wages that did not appear to enhance their commitment and stop them from

seeking a better job elsewhere. The higher paid HOS were happier with their wages but were also possibly more aware of their potential earning capability in the hotel industry because of their job-related experiences, hence the contradiction. The statistical tests indicated that the satisfaction with pay was a more appropriate variable to use for analysing extrinsic resource and its impact, as opposed to direct wage. Next, the intrinsic resources that were available to the HOS are discussed.

5.2.3.2. Intrinsic Resources

The three job attributes used to analyse intrinsic resources are: (i) the support from the managers, (ii) work appreciation and (iii) work enjoyment.

5.2.3.2.1. Manager's Support

The respondents were asked a couple of questions to learn more about their perceptions of manager-worker relationships and the level of support available to them. The HOS were asked how friendly or approachable they thought their managers were. The majority of the HOS in the sample (n= 92, 87%) felt their managers were quite friendly and approachable, 11 said the manager could be friendly depending on the circumstances and the remaining three, all from the same hotel, said their manager was very unfriendly. To understand the worker-manager relationship better, another question was posed- 'Can you discuss personal matters with your manager'? In response, 56% (n= 59) said they could talk to their managers about family matters, followed by 29 who said they could talk to the manager sometimes, depending on the seriousness of the matter but not just anything and everything and the remaining 18 did not see their managers as someone with whom they could discuss personal affairs. A slight change in the pattern of responses can be noted in this question compared to the one before. Out of the 92 who thought their managers were amicable in the previous question, only 59 actually felt close to their managers to a degree where they can comfortably talk about non-work-related issues. This suggested that only slightly over half of the HOS presumed some level of worker-manager relationship existed.

The HOS were also asked about their perceptions of equal treatment from their managers. About 88% (n= 93) said their managers treated everyone equally and 10 could not answer because as one Linen Porter (5-star hotel) explained, 'we don't have any English people working in housekeeping, so can't really say if the manager would treat us differently from an English person or not'. There were three respondents who said their managers practiced favouritism. Due to unconventional methods of hiring workers in the hospitality industry, as explored in the literature review, national clusters are often formed within the organisation (McGovern, 2007). This favouritism might be a consequence of national cluster, where some HK managers would favour workers from her or his home country over others, although the percentage of such managers seemed negligible. In addition, 100% of the respondents admitted that their managers were flexible in terms of accommodating their day or time off requests.

To scrutinise the manager-worker relationship further, respondents were presented with two situations. Situation one- the manager requests the HOS to stay extra hours to help out, where the HOS could see that the department is struggling to cope with the workload and she or he does not have anything planned after work. Would the HOS respond to the manager's request? This question was asked to understand whether or not the HOS identify themselves with the business' needs and their level of commitment to the organisation. In response to the scenario presented, all but one respondent said they would stay extra hours to help. Some of them added that they often have to stay longer anyway and that is not a problem, while a few others indicated that they get paid for the extra hours they work so they do not really mind. Looking at the responses one could erroneously assume that nearly 100% of the sample had a high level of commitment and empathised with the business needs, because even though there was no mention of money in the question, many of the respondents instinctively attached money to the scenario. One Room Attendant (5-star hotel) expressed her frustration for not being paid for the extra time, yet, she responded to the question favourably. This could demonstrate that some of the HOS did not like to stay extra hours but they felt obliged to do so almost as if against their will, which can serve as an example of sportsmanship. The others who did not impulsively attach money to the question might had a higher level of commitment to the organisation and they might perceive the acceptance of such request as good citizenship behaviour. This question, however, could have drawn better and true

results if none of the HOS was paid for the extra time because that would have shown their true commitment to the organisation.

In scenario two, the HOS were asked if the manager requests them to do something that is not their responsibility and there will be no reward for doing the task or consequence for refusing. Would the HOS want to perform the task? This question was also asked to determine the HOS' level of commitment to the organisation and if they felt confident enough to perform tasks that were not in their job description. Almost 84% (n= 89) answered positively, 10 said that their decision would depend on the task and the remaining seven said if it was not their duty then they would not. For the group who said 'yes they would' which was the majority, it could be said without much reservation that they have a higher level of commitment and attachment to the point where they would perform extra-role tasks knowing there is no incentive involved, which is an example of OCB. The HOS who said 'no' or were 'undecided', could possibly have indicated this because they did not feel confident that they would be able to carry out the unknown task, which could be owing to their lack of self-efficacy and confidence rather than a negative attitude

To understand the importance of having a good work relationship with the manager, respondents were asked if they would switch to a better-paid job but with an unfriendly manager or not (Table 5.9). The majority of the HOS 76% (n=80) replied against it, another 19% (n=20) could not answer definitively and the remaining six mentioned that they would try if there was more money associated with it. This indicated that to the HOS it was very important to have a good relationship with the managers and that this aspect was more important to most than the possibility of earning more pay. Further, of the 69 who previously claimed that they would switch job for better pay, 47 now said that they would not go for a better job if the manager were unfriendly. Results are portrayed in the table below. This finding reconfirms that HOS prioritised the relationship with the manager more than monetary gains.

Table 5.12: Cross tabulation, 'Leave job for higher pay' vs 'Switch job for more money but unfriendly manager'

		Switch job for more money but unfriendly manager			
		No	Not sure	Yes	Total
I would leave this job if I find another one with higher pay (I really only work for the money)	Strongly disagree	16	1	0	17
	Undecided	17	3	0	20
	Agree	14	4	2	20
	Strongly agree	33	12	4	49
Total		80	20	6	106

Source: Field Survey, HOS, June 2017- February 2018

From the discussion in this section, it appeared that HOS believed that their managers were supportive, treated them fairly, at least in most of the cases, and were flexible in accommodating their requests. According to the literature, this may suggest that the relationship that had developed here between the worker and their managers were high-quality LMX relationships based on support and trust (Sparrowe and Liden, 2005) contributing to the fulfilment of psychological needs (Graves and Luciano, 2013) and providing positive justice perception (Cassar and Buttigieg, 2015; Cox and Griffiths, 2010). Literature also claims that when workers feel that their PC have been met they reciprocate with desirable organisational outcome, such as engagement (Bal, Kooij and DeJong, 2013) and commitment (Fontinha, Chambel and Cuyper, 2014; Shore and Barksdale, 1998), which was evinced in the discussion. It seemed that the HOS responded favourably when the businesses needed them whereby displaying commitment, OCB and sometimes sportsmanship. Moreover, the exploration in this section was in agreement with the literature that states that manager's leadership approach is one of the core contributing factors for hotel workers' job satisfaction and various organisational behaviours (Chen and Wu, 2020; Amissah *et al.*, 2016).

5.2.3.2.2. Work Appreciation

Previous literature suggests that organisations commit to a social exchange relationship, forming psychological affiliations between the two parties (Williamson, Burnett and Bartol 2009; Malhotra, Budhwar and Prowse 2007) by appreciating

workers often by the means of extrinsic, intrinsic and social rewards. With the assumption that work appreciation could serve as an intrinsic resource that workers obtain from the organisation, respondents were asked a few related questions to understand their perceptions towards appreciation, a form of organisational support.

When they were asked if the management appreciates their hard work or not, 78% (n= 83) said they felt appreciated by their management, five of them did not think that they were being appreciated and the rest 17% (n=18) could not tell for certain if their management really value their endeavours or not. They were also asked if it was important for them to be appreciated. The responses were recorded on a 5-point Likert scale from strongly agree= 5 to strongly disagree= 1. Some 83% (n=88) of the respondents strongly agreed that it was important to them to be appreciated, 11% (n=12) agreed, 4% (n=4) were undecided, and only one in each section 'disagreed' and 'strongly disagreed'.

To probe this topic further, a Spearman's ranked correlation test was carried out to find out if there is a statistically significant relationship between workers' perceptions of work appreciation and their intentions to stay at the hotel in the long run.

H₇: HOS' intention to stay at the hotel is associated to appreciation from management

Table 5.13: Correlation test result, 'Work appreciation' vs 'Stay in the same hotel'

		Work appreciation	Stay in the same hotel
Spearman's rho	Correlation Coefficient	1.000	.382**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		0.000
	N	106	106

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Source: Field Survey, HOS, June 2017- February 2018

The test results are presented in Table 5.10 above. There is a significant positive relationship between the level of work appreciation and workers' intentions to remain in the same hotel in the next six months at 0.1% level of significance (rho=0.382, p=0.0000<0.1%). The result suggests that the more the HOS felt appreciated by the management the more likely they would be to stay at the hotel in the long-run.

Conversely, this may suggest that if the HOS do not feel appreciated then their intention to turnover would be heightened. Previous studies claimed that reciprocal disparity or absence of reciprocity by the organisation with regards to work appreciation through various forms of rewards contributes to turnover intentions (Derycke *et al.*, 2010) by eroding workers' engagement (Wolter *et al.*, 2019; Feldt *et al.*, 2013; Kinnunen, Feldt and Makikangas, 2008), commitment and motivation (Godin and Kittel, 2004).

5.2.3.2.3. Work Enjoyment

Participants were asked questions regarding work enjoyment to ascertain their perceptions of work and more broadly their work engagement, assuming that if they would enjoy their work, they may be more likely to feel engaged with it, to a certain degree. The survey data showed that most of the respondents, 91% (n=96) asserted that they enjoyed their work, two answered negatively and the remaining eight could not provide a definitive answer. They were also asked if they liked coming to work, in reply, 93% (n=99) mentioned that they liked coming to work, two said they did not like coming to work and five (5%) were undecided. Looking at the pattern of responses it can be argued that a large percentage of the participating HOS enjoyed their work, but to accept this as true this needed further testing.

Table 5.14: Cross tabulation, 'Work enjoyment' vs 'Same work in the future'

		Same work in the future			
		No	Not sure	Yes	Total
Work Enjoyment	No	1	1	0	2
	Not sure	4	3	1	8
	Yes	22	26	48	96
Total		27	30	49	106

Source: Field Survey, HOS, June 2017- February 2018

To find out whether work enjoyment meant engagement with work, a new variable was introduced which was the responses gathered from the question that asked if the HOS would want to do the same job in the future or not. Analysing the responses from Table

5.11, it appeared that out of the 96 who said they enjoyed their work only 50% would want to do the same job in the future. This could have two meanings. One, the HOS enjoyed their work for reasons other than engagement, which is expressed through vigour, dedication, and absorption (Schaufeli *et al.*, 2002) or they enjoyed their work at the time but they do not want this to be their future career.

Next, participants were presented with two mutually exclusive options: (i) a job with more pay but something that they would not enjoy and (ii) a job with NLW but something that they would enjoy doing. The options were offered to assess whether monetary gain was more important than their feeling of work enjoyment or not. A large proportion of the HOS, 81% (n= 86) chose option two where the pay was low but they would enjoy the work and another 13 chose the job with higher pay. This suggested that majority of the HOS prioritised work enjoyment more than the opportunity to earn more. This finding contradicts the findings of Frenkel, Li and Restubog (2012), who reported that migrant workers' primary expectation is extrinsic and intrinsic is secondary. Whereas, for the HOS it appeared that work enjoyment, an intrinsic attribute, is more important than extrinsic attributes, such as pay.

Further on this, a Spearman's ranked correlation test was conducted to establish if there is any association between work enjoyment and intention to stay at the hotel or not.

H₈: HOS' intention to stay in the same hotel is related to their work enjoyment

Table 5.15: Correlation test result, 'Stay in the same hotel' vs 'Work enjoyment'

		Stay in the same hotel	Work enjoyment
Spearman's rho	Correlation Coefficient	1.000	.257**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		0.008
	N	106	106
**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).			

Source: Field Survey, HOS, June 2017- February 2018

There is a significant positive relationship between the two variables. Spearman's rho correlation test was statistically significant, so the hypothesis was accepted as true. HOS's intention to stay at the hotel is significantly associated with their feelings of work

enjoyment. The more they enjoy their work the more likely they are to stay at the hotel. This outcome corresponded to the literature that proclaims that engaged workers often have a degree of commitment and emotional attachment towards their work and organisation (Hoxsey, 2010; Demovsek, 2008; Jackson, Rothmann and Van de Vijver, 2006).

The statistical tests and analysis conducted in this section examined individual variables and binary relationships. The following section explores HOS' decision to remain on the job using a logistic regression model.

5.3. Modelling the Decision to Remain on the Job: Logistic Regression

The binary nature of the dependent variable - to remain in the same hotel in the next six months or otherwise - requires the use of a logistic regression model. There are four predictor variables included in the logistic regression model (Table 5.16).

Table 5.16. Variable description and summary statistics

Variable name	Variable description	Mean value	Expected sign
Work enjoyment	1= enjoying work; 0= otherwise	0.91	+
Wage satisfaction	1= satisfied with wage; 0=otherwise	0.42	+
Appreciation from management	1= appreciated by management; 0= otherwise	0.78	+
Hourly pay	Payment per hour in GDP	7.99 (0.634)	+

Note: standard deviations are reported in parenthesis

Source: Field Survey, HOS, June 2017- February 2018

Expected signs of the repressors: (i) Work enjoyment: it is expected that if someone enjoys her or his work then the individual might want to stay at the hotel for longer. About 91% of the respondents said they enjoy their work while the rest, 9%, said they do not. (ii) Wage satisfaction: it is anticipated that if a worker is happy with her/his wage they might be less likely to want to leave the job. Less than half of the

respondents, 42%, were satisfied with their wage and 58% expressed dissatisfaction with their hourly wage. (iii) Appreciation from management: is a general understanding that the more a worker feels appreciated, the more they would enjoy their work and the more they would like to remain on the job for longer. A larger percentage, 83 participants, felt appreciated by their managers. (iv) Hourly pay: the more one earns the less likely one might want to leave the job. The average wage for the HOS was £7.99 per hour and the variation between variables or the standard deviation was 0.63.

Table 5.17 Maximum likelihood estimates for the decision to remain on the job

Variables	B (SE)	Exp (B)
Constant	-18.694*** (6.517)	0.000
Work enjoyment	1.311 (0.896)	3.711
Wage satisfaction	0.768 (0.633)	2.156
Appreciation from management	1.264** (0.593)	3.539
Hourly pay	2.224*** (0.836)	9.246
Pseudo R2	0.267	
Nagelkerke	0.387	
Hosmer-Lemeshow	0.911	

Note: Standard errors are reported in parentheses; ***, ** denote statistical significance at the 0.01 and 0.05 levels respectively using two-tailed tests.

Source: Field Survey, HOS, June 2017- February 2018

Table 5.17 above presents the results of the logistic regression model, including all the variables. The second column reports the beta coefficients, with their standard errors. The third column reports the expected value of the beta coefficients. The overall goodness-of-fit is satisfactory by the standards of cross-sectional binary models. The Nagelkerke value was 0.39, which means this model explained nearly 40% of the variance in the dependent variable. In other words, 40% of the choices made by the HOS were explained by this model. The Hosmer and Lemeshow test indicated a non-significant p value of 0.911, accepting the null hypothesis of a good fit of the data for the model.

Two of the hypothesised effects are reported as statistically significant at the 1% and 5% levels respectively, using two-tailed tests. Appreciation from managers and hourly pay exert a positive impact on the decision to remain on the job. HOS who were appreciated by their management were nearly four times more likely to stay at the hotel for the long-term, *ceteris paribus*. The other significant variable was hourly pay; for every one pound increase in hourly wage, the odds that one would want to stay at the hotel increase by 9.25 times, *ceteris paribus*. The SPSS detailed outputs with all the tables for the logistic regression are presented in the Appendix.

The results obtained from the logistic regression model were at variance with the correlation tests carried out earlier in the chapter. For instance, work enjoyment, was found to be positively correlated with HOS' intention to stay at the hotel at 5% significance level (H₈), but in the logistic regression model, it was not a significant predictor of the decision to remain on the job. Similarly, satisfaction with wage was found to be significantly positively associated with HOS' intention to stay at 5% significance level (H₅). The appreciation from management variable was the only one that matched the correlation test result (H₇). The last variable, hourly pay, which was found to be significantly negatively correlated with HOS' intention to stay at the hotel at 5% (H₄), exerted positive effect in the logistic regression model.

5.4. Discussion and Summary

This chapter presented and analysed quantitative data collected using the survey questionnaire. The primary objective was to examine the perceptions and experiences of the HOS by the means of statistical tests and logistic regression analysing the factors that contribute to their decision to stay in or leave the job. The discussion was organised in two sections. The first section explored the relationship between HOS' characteristics and their intention to stay at the hotel, where most of the attributes were found to be statistically non-significant apart from the time spent in the UK. The longer a HOS had been in the UK the higher their propensity to leave. These insignificant test results concurred with the literature where some scholars had pointed out that workers' demographics often play a minor role in the measurement of engagement (Sharma,

Goel, and Sengupta, 2017; Koyuncu, Burke and Fiksenbaum, 2006) and commitment (Meyer *et al.*, 2002).

The following section examined some work-related factors, where a number of statistically significant associations were identified. The factors that contributed to HOS' intention to turnover were higher work position, less room cleaning responsibility, higher hourly wage, less wage satisfaction, unfriendly manager, less work appreciation and less work enjoyment. Five arguments emerged from the results obtained.

First, a set of three factors were found to be significantly associated with HOS' decision to remain on the job. The HOS who did not hold bottom-level positions, cleaned fewer guestrooms and earned higher wage had a higher intention to turnover. The results may suggest that these migrant workers may have attained more knowledge and skills as they were already earning a better wage and were not positioned at the bottom level of the hierarchy, hence their inclination to leave to pursue better jobs to enhance their socioeconomic position. This finding accurately matches Parutis' (2014) migration process analogy, where she aptly claimed that migrant workers do not stay at the same job, they move jobs to gain better socioeconomic stance.

Second, even though the logistic regression results opposed the results obtained from correlation tests, wage and satisfaction with wage were important to HOS' decision to remain on the job. There were more negative than positive answers given on the question of happiness with wage for workers who earned NMW, but this could not be interpreted as everyone who earned over the NMW were satisfied with their wages, rather, wage dissatisfaction equally affected workers in both income groups, NMW and over the NMW. The more satisfied the HOS were with their wages the more likely they were to stay at the hotel long-term. However, satisfaction with one's wage was not likely to discourage them from seeking a better-paid job elsewhere. In other words, wage satisfaction did not guarantee commitment to the organisation by intending to stay for the HOS. This was incongruent with the literature, which asserted that satisfaction with income is associated with job satisfaction, commitment (Locke, 1969) and intention to turnover (Albattat and Som, 2013; Yankeelov *et al.*, 2009; DeConinck and Stilwell, 2004; Dailey and Kirk, 1992).

Third, manager's support, a type of social reward (Newman and Sheikh, 2012), was identified as a highly significant predictor for HOS' intention to stay at the hotel. This could be because of being migrant workers and often on contingent employment contracts, they required more social support to balance work induced stress as suggested in the literature (Madden *et al.*, 2017). A large percentage of the participating HOS, about 80%, claimed that they would not accept higher-waged jobs if the managers were unfriendly or unsupportive. Another interpretation could be that HOS would leave their jobs if they perceive their managers to be unsupportive and unfriendly. In reverse, when the HOS received support from their managers, they responded favourably when the businesses needed them thereby displaying commitment, OCB and sometimes sportsmanship. This finding was in line with the literature that emphasised that managers' superior LMX relationships based on support and trust (Sparrowe and Liden, 2005), contribute to psychological needs fulfilment (Graves and Luciano, 2013) and provide positive justice perception (Cassar and Buttigieg, 2015; Cox and Griffiths, 2010), which workers reciprocate with desirable behaviours, such as engagement (Bal, Kooij and DeJong, 2013) and commitment (Fontinha, Chambel and Cuyper, 2014; Shore and Barksdale, 1998).

Fourth, intrinsic attributes such as work appreciation and work enjoyment were proved to be highly significant for HOS' decision to stay at the hotel. The propensity for the HOS to stay at the hotel heightened where they felt appreciated by the management. This was congruent with the literature that appositely claims that reciprocal disparity or absence of reciprocity by the organisation to appreciate workers, through various forms of rewards, contributes to turnover intentions (Derycke *et al.*, 2010) by eroding workers' engagement (Wolter, *et al.*, 2019; Feldt *et al.*, 2013; Kinnunen, Feldt and Makikangas, 2008), commitment and motivation (Godin and Kittel, 2004). Likewise, the HOS who enjoyed their work were more likely to stay at the hotel and even preferred a lower paid job that they enjoyed as opposed to an unenjoyable job at a higher pay scale. Work enjoyment in this context could be seen as indicative of workers' engagement with work. This outcome corresponded to the literature that proclaims that engaged workers often have a degree of commitment and emotional attachment towards their work and organisation (Hoxsey, 2010; Demovsek, 2008; Jackson, Rothmann and Van de Vijver, 2006). Overall, this suggested that for the participating HOS, intrinsic attributes of their job were more important than the extrinsic

attribute, such as pay. This contradicted the findings of Frenkel, Li and Restubog (2012), who reported that migrant workers' primary expectation is extrinsic and intrinsic is secondary but is consistent with the study result that proclaimed that migrant workers' perceived social job rewards has a significantly positive influence on their job satisfaction (To and Tam, 2014).

Fifth, the data also revealed that the job demand was high, particularly in the three core job dimensions, skill variety, task identity and task significance, according to Hackman and Oldham (1975; 1976) and this was especially true for RA. However, the high job demand was non-significant in predicting turnover intentions, which could be explained by referring to the JD-R model, discussed in the literature review. As per JD-R, disparities between job demand and resources lead to disengagement, demotivation (Demerouti *et al.*, 2001), poor commitment and increase turnover intentions (Back *et al.*, 2020), whereas increase in resources enhance job satisfaction (Tims, Bakker and Derks, 2013), well-being, work engagement (Radic *et al.*, 2020; Lesener, Gusy, and Wolter, 2019; Xanthopoulou *et al.*, 2009) and lower turnover intention (Karatepe and Ngeche, 2012). In line with the model, the finding may suggest that the HOS did not perceive disparity in the job demand and resources rather they perceived that there were sufficient resources available to them, hence the insignificant relationship between job demand and turnover intention.

The discussion here, based on the statistical tests and logistic modelling, provided an insight into HOS' perceptions of their work and the factors that contribute to their intention to commit to the organisation or turnover. The majority of the respondents appeared to perceive their work, managers and other aspects of work relatively positively despite the fact that these jobs are often branded as 'migrant jobs' (Green *et al.*, 2010, p.115) with low-pay, low skill requirement, high job demand and limited growth options (Baum, 2008; Jayaweera and Anderson, 2008). However, it should be acknowledged that the questionnaire surveys were conducted with the HOS who could converse in English, which meant that they were the migrant workers who were possibly better situated among the migrant communities because they already had achieved a certain level of language proficiency. The results might have been different if the respondents were fresh migrants with little or no language efficiency and skills. As discussed in the literature review, migrant workers who are unable to communicate

in English, are confronted with limited career choices (Polanco and Zell, 2017; French, 2012), so their perceptions towards work, management, commitment and turnover intention would have been different.

The next chapter explores the managers' relationships with their staff, their perceptions about staff commitment and engagement and the HR policies in the hotels.

CHAPTER SIX

London Hotel Housekeeping
Management:
Attitudes, Perspectives and
HR Practices

The objective of the research is to investigate employee engagement and employee commitment of the workers in London hotel housekeeping and from reviewing the literature it became apparent that managers and the management practices play a vital role in shaping such employee behaviours. To be precise, literature suggests that employment relationship is not a standalone concept, rather it is a process based on exchange relationships that develop within the work context. Such as, PC, which has an immediate connection to line management and POS, which is the organisational-level support directed towards workers' well-being by supporting them with various aspects. This chapter presents and analyses the data collected from the semi-structured interviews with the hotel housekeeping managers to understand the employment process that shapes the employment relationship and employee behaviours in the hotel housekeeping setting. This management's side of the story is essential to make sense of what is actually happening in terms of employee engagement and commitment and why.

To maintain the coherence, data analysis in this chapter emulates the structure and the themes explored in the literature review. The discussion, therefore, starts with the managers' individual-level participation followed by the organisational-level involvement (see figure 3.4) containing five sections. The first three sections analyse the manager's involvement at the individual level in the employment relationship and more precisely establishing PC with the workers. The first section concentrates on the LMX relationship that develops between the manager and staff, thus, answering the research question '*what sort of leader-member relationship exists among the hotel housekeeping workers?*'. The answer to this question will help to understand the types of support that the managers provide to their staff to fulfil one of the innate psychological needs of workers, the need to feel related and belong. The following two sections explore HK managers' perspectives of engagement and commitment, respectively, to answer the research question '*do the managers see their staff as being engaged to their work and committed to the organisation?*'. The findings in these two sections will shed light on how engagement and commitment are enacted in practice and their applicability within the hotel HK environment. The fourth section focuses on the managers' involvement at the organisational-level through HR practices, such as the hiring process, socialisation, training provisions and rewarding practices. Discussion in this section will reveal the specific types of organisational support that

are available to the HOS, answering the last research question '*what are the organisational supports, devised by HR practices, offered to the housekeeping workers?*'. Before concluding, the final section of the chapter presents the staff turnover situation that existed during the time of data collection at the participating hotels. Detailed profiles of the 53 interviewees from three-and-over star rated hotels from different regions of London were included in the methodology chapter.

6.1. Manager-worker Relationship

The discussion in this section is drawn from the responses from the third section of the interview questions 'Leadership approach'. There were four specific questions (numbers 13-16) that asked about the managers' leadership style, their involvement in day-to-day work and how well they know their staff. The relationship between the HOS and their managers varied greatly. However, from close investigation, two broad themes or patterns emerged from the collected semi-structured interviews. On the one hand, there was a group of managers who seems very positive and maintained a higher standard exchange relationship and on the other hand, there were some managers who appeared somewhat distant from the workers. This corresponded to the LMX relationship literature discussed in the earlier chapter and based on that, the two types of LMX relationships are discussed here.

6.1.1. Superior Quality LMX Relationship

HK managers who fall in this category maintained a higher quality relationship with staff and seemed to support them socially as well as emotionally by enacting various supporting behaviours. Some examples are provided below.

Celebrating staff birthdays

Some of the managers mentioned that they celebrate staff birthdays. Birthdays are very personal and special to anyone and by celebrating this special day managers are showing their involvement with staff at a personal level which also signals that they care about staff. In some hotels, it appeared to be a hotel culture.

“We celebrate birthdays with a box of chocolate” (Assistant Executive Housekeeper, 5-star hotel)

While in some other hotels, celebrating birthdays was the manager’s own initiative.

“We celebrate everyone’s birthdays in my team. We collect money to buy a present and a card for the person. This is my initiative and we pay out of our pocket, hotel doesn’t pay for this” (Housekeeping Manager, 4-star hotel)

Even in some hotels where the celebration culture was non-existent, the manager made an effort to remember staff birthdays

“Sometimes if I know their birthdays, I mention it in the staff meeting and we sing happy birthday song. This is important because they know then that we care for them” (Head Housekeeper, 4-star hotel)

Buying treats

Some managers said they often treat staff with snacks paying out of their own pocket. This is a gesture of care and concern, not expected by the staff. It appeared that these managers were motivated to perform such acts by the delight and satisfaction these treats bring to the staff and not expecting anything in return.

“Sometimes in the morning, I get them tea/coffee, biscuits, sandwiches just to motivate them. They have a smile on their faces and this comes out of my pocket” (Housekeeping Manager, 5-star hotel)

“Last summer when it was really hot I went out to get some drinks or ice creams in the afternoon, just to make sure that they are happy when they leave, it’s just a small gesture and this is not from the hotel it comes from my pocket” (Housekeeping Manager, 4-star hotel)

Socialising outside of work

Quite a few HK managers mentioned that they socialise with staff outside of work. Again, in some hotels, it was paid for by the hotel and in others, it was the manager’s endeavour. One manager mentioned she let the members decide where they want to go, which showed that the manager was open to ideas from staff and it also represented inclusivity.

“We do social outings. Company pays so we don’t have to pay. Outings depend on what we want to do really. Last year we went to Madame Tussauds because some

girls wanted to go there. For Christmas this year, we have booked a club so we're going clubbing" (Housekeeping Manager, 5-star hotel)

Willingness to know about personal issues

Some of them genuinely wanted to know about workers' personal life and issues because they thought that this practice makes managing staff easier and the staff feel more comfortable at work

"Sometimes we're in bad mood for no reason, we all get that, so I try listen to all of them; if I need to spend 15 mins to talk to them to calm them down that's okay I just don't want them to do anything wrong in front of the customers. After talking to me, they go back and they're happy. I like to listen to them and I get the same back" (Housekeeping Manager, 4-star hotel)

"The most important thing for me is the atmosphere. I'm working very hard to create the friendliest, closest family-like atmosphere. I know everyone's family situations so I try to adjust towards the needs. I have a few mums working here with me, I try to schedule around so that they are comfortable and they can look after their kids. We are trying to create a convenient and flexible way of working together so that everyone feels that they are being taken care of. I try to create this friendly and close environment that helps them to go through this stressful and hectic job rather than making it even worse. I mean it's already hectic enough" (Head of Butler and Housekeeping Department, 5-star hotel)

Help with the workload

A couple of managers said that they would give staff a hand when they struggle

"When someone calls in sick or something I'm the first one to take my jacket off to help them in the rooms, this really motivates them. Even if I spend only 5/10 mins with each of them it makes a huge difference" (Executive Head Housekeeper, 5-star hotel)

Meanwhile another manager mentioned that she worked with staff on a regular basis which would demonstrate that the manager is one of them.

"I step in in everything, I'm not office based. In the morning, I'd clean the drawing room with the public area staff, check rooms with supervisors. At times, I sort the linens as well" (Housekeeping Manager, 5-star hotel)

Help with personal matters

There were a few managers who asserted that they would help staff sort personal matters if they could, especially when staff struggle due to the language barrier

“I help them to open bank accounts, get national insurance number. I just help them out as I would to a friend” (Housekeeping Manager, 5-star hotel)

“I try to help them in different ways. I book appointments if they can’t speak English, book their holidays etc. always thank them and respect them and be patient with them” (Assistant Housekeeping Manager, 5-star hotel)

The examples of manager behaviours presented here were all discretionary behaviours and there was no instant gratification or penalty attached to the performance of such actions. However, these supporting behaviours may assist in building psychological contracts and since workers’ had been treated positively, their PC would be a positive one and so will their reciprocation to the organisation. Referring to the literature, the type of PC the workers would develop with these managers would be a relational one as the PC would be based on social and emotional exchange (De Cuyper and De Witte, 2006) and other socioemotional elements, such as support, security and loyalty (Rousseau and McLean Parks, 1993). Besides, supportive relationship with managers is a form of social reward for the workers (Newman and Sheikh, 2012), which is provided through social and emotional support that fulfils workers’ psychological need to feel related. Yet, at least three different organisational-level outcomes were found that were directly linked to the quality of the relationship the HK managers maintained with their staff.

Staff disinclined to advance in their career

Some managers mentioned that when better positions are offered to the long-serving or efficient staff, for example within the same hotel or a sister hotel, they decline because they are unwilling to leave the present team, particularly the manager, and go to another hotel. One such manager said,

“They are so happy here that most of them don’t want to grow! When there are positions available in other hotels they don’t go, they don’t want to develop further. It’s good for me but not for them” (Head Housekeeper, 4-star hotel)

This has two organisational impacts. One, the organisation can benefit from the commitment and dedication of these workers. Two, since the organisation cannot

promote staff internally, the vacancies need to be filled externally costing the organisation time and money in training the candidate to match the hotel standard. Whereas the current staff may have gained enough knowledge about the hotel and work, and may have improved their linguistic and interpersonal skills that could have been used to increase the productivity of the organisation.

HOS follow the manager to different hotels

I have been told by several HK managers that when they moved to their current job, a number of staff from the previous hotel followed them to the same hotel. This following behaviour by the workers could have ramifications for both receiving and departing hotels. For the receiving hotel, it is good and bad news. On the positive side, this would mean that the manager would bring along a number of committed staff and strengthen the team. On the other side, this could cause friction with the existing team who are getting a new manager with her/his own troop. One manager who joined a new hotel a year ago mentioned,

“I have a couple of middle-aged RA who came with me from my previous place. They are working for about 5/10 years as a RA. They are happy, they don’t want to grow” (Housekeeping Manager, 5-star hotel)

For the departing hotel, it is all bad news as the hotel is not only losing a departmental manager but also losing a portion of its efficient staff compromising the housekeeping department’s productivity. Another manager who moved to the new hotel nine months ago said,

“Five RA left when I took over this year. I lost half of my team because some didn’t accept me so they left” (Housekeeping Manager, 4-star hotel)

Literature claims that training increases workers’ self-efficacy (Mingyue *et al.*, 2020; Orpen, 1999; Martocchio and Judge, 1997) but the idea of self-efficacy is about workers’ belief about job-specific and task-specific capabilities (McCormick, Tanguma and López-Forment, 2002). This may mean that workers’ self-efficacy does not prepare them to take up the challenges that come with a new role. These RA who have been doing the same job for years might have self-efficacy to execute the current job but not a new role. Therefore, instead of questioning worker’s response to promotion offers, the question should be directed to the management who may not

have guided the workers to the right direction, as Mintzberg (2013, p.11) said it is the manager who makes the staff 'know better, decide better and act better'.

Furthermore, this could also be an indication of high affective commitment where workers' sense of belongingness, within the HK department, is strong but not necessarily the sense of identification to the organisation whereas, really, both are needed to form affective commitment as per the definition presented by Meyer and Allen (1991). As discussed in the literature review, in case of over commitment, which the management needs to be wary about, a perceived PC breach can be more detrimental for the psychological well-being of such workers (Reimann, 2016).

Preparedness to quit, if the manager quits

In one hotel, I had noted that the HK manager who maintained a superior relationship with her workers did not have a decent reciprocal relationship with the hotel management, which had a trickle-down effect on the workers. The manager was confronted with distributive justice issues as well as discrimination from the broader management and colleagues from other departments, for which she launched her own personal fight to shield her staff. She mentioned during the interview that quite a few of her staff would leave their jobs immediately if she resigns. When I surveyed the HOS at the hotel, all of them appeared attached to the manager to a great extent, praising how understanding she was and how they would not decline any work request she makes. The survey outcome showed that all the surveyed HOS were very dissatisfied with the job itself, the wage, the hotel and most were actively looking for another job. Moreover, the turnover rate for HK was extraordinarily high. In this case, the HOS had continuance commitment, where they perceived the job as needed and leaving would be costly (Shore and Wayne, 1993), although they were only prepared to continue as long as the manager is there. This could indicate that even a high-quality LMX does not necessarily guarantee the type of commitments that bring more desirable work behaviours, such as affective and normative commitment (Meyer *et al.*, 2002; Meyer and Allen, 1997).

In essence, these managers seemed to have formed a superior quality LMX relationship, which is more inclined to the 'in-group' spectrum and based on socioemotional support, trust and mutual respect (Lunenburg, 2010; Sparrowe and

Liden, 2005; Yu and Liang, 2004; Graen and Uhl-Bien, 1995). The findings here confirm the claims that in higher rating LMX relationship, members reciprocate with increased contribution and commitment in return (Sparrowe and Liden, 2005) and in-group members exhibit higher levels of self-efficacy (Murphy and Ensher, 1999). The type of support that seems to be lacking is the practical level career support, which is what may be holding the workers back from advancing by accepting career promotion opportunities. It may suggest that a high-quality LMX should not only be built on the foundation of socioemotional support but career support is needed too to achieve desired organisational outcome.

6.1.2. Inferior Quality LMX Relationship

The HK managers in this category were rational beings who could be personal but they seemed to encourage a fairly transactional relationship rather than a more involved interpersonal one. When asked about their relationship with workers and how well they knew the workers, most of the managers in this segment came up with various excuses to justify their relationship, some of which are discussed below.

General reluctance

There was a clear reluctance to be involved in any way with workers' personal issues. This is not to say that managers are obliged to maintain an interpersonal relationship, they are free to choose how they want to lead the team. These managers were willing to help workers if needed but drew a line between work and personal life.

"You don't want to get too involved. But if they need any advice on something then I try to help" (Housekeeping Manager, 4-star hotel)

"No, I don't know about workers' personal life, everyone has their privacy but if they need me I'm there" (Assistant Housekeeping Manager, 4-star hotel)

One manager even found the idea of maintaining close work relationships with workers unsettling

"I don't want to be too friendly because it's dangerous but I don't want to be too bossy as well. I try to balance it" (Head Housekeeper, 4-star hotel)

Another manager indicated that workers' personal matters are of no concern to him

“If they are open I am open to listen but I can only give them my opinion I can’t tell them what to do or what not to do. It’s not my business. I can tell them what to do about the job but not their personal issues” (Assistant Housekeeping Manager, 4-star hotel)

Job characteristics

Some indicated that it was the job characteristics, i.e. lone working, that in some way guided the relationship

“The HK team, they come do the job and go home, it’s more like an individual work and less work together. I won’t go and ask about their personal life, if they want to talk about it they can” (Assistant Executive Housekeeper, 5-star hotel)

Language barrier and high turnover

While some suggested that due to language barrier and high turnover, it was not feasible to communicate properly let alone know the staff or have a good relationship

“Not many speak English, so I manage them with great difficulty. I don’t know them well. They change too often, the turnover is too high. I tend to get to know the ones that are bad, the ones who are in trouble, otherwise no, we have a very high turnover” (Head Housekeeper, 4-star hotel)

However, in another hotel where the manager said the turnover was not high at all suggesting that the hotel had a relatively stable team, the manager still did not know her staff

“I don’t know them personally but I know the names of the majority, not the new ones the older ones” (Head Housekeeper, 4-star hotel)

Lack of time

One other manager who outsourced the entire HK department asserted that it was the lack of time that prevented him from getting to know his staff. The irony here is, hotels outsource staff so that the manager can be free from the never-ending hiring process and spend more time managing the team but that did not seem to be true here.

“I know them but I don’t have the time to know them at a personal level but the people who have good comments, feedback they do come across to my attention” (Housekeeping Manager, 4-star hotel)

The HK managers who maintained inferior quality LMX relationship with workers, seemed to have distanced themselves, which made them less available to support workers socially or emotionally. One such manager appeared to disaccord with the norm of reciprocity in the LMX relationship

“Day/time off is not something that the management is happy about because it makes us move everything around but the other RAs are perfectly flexible”

(Assistant Executive Housekeeper, 5-star hotel)

This shows a sheer lack of flexibility from the management, even though the staff is showing flexibility. Also, flexibility is an important criterion that the managers seek in their workers and like any other exchange relationship, the management has to be flexible to be able to demand flexibility from workers.

Where superior quality LMX managers made time and put effort in to get to know staff better, inferior quality LMX managers found various excuses to keep their distance from workers. Some of them knew workers' names but nothing beyond that. They seemed to hold the ideology that knowing or asking about workers' personal lives could be seen as being inquisitive and did not appear to encourage workers to discuss matters outside of work. In line with the literature, the quality of LMX here is more inclined to the out-group approach where the exchange terms are merely the employment contractual terms (Furnes *et al.*, 2015; Bolino and Turnley, 2009; Graen and Uhl-Bien, 1995), with nominal trust and support (Deluga, 1998), which was salient through the managers' unwillingness to improve the quality of LMX.

Similarly, the PC that the workers would develop in such conditions would be a transactional one with limited involvement (Rousseau and McLean Parks, 1993). Although, as some scholars have indicated, if the HK department uses a large number of agency-hired staff then it is likely that the manager-worker relationship will be based on transactional PC (Coyle-Shapiro and Kessler, 2002; Van Dyne and Ang, 1998). This is due to the possibilities that the workers would change frequently and the manager will not have sufficient time to build any long-term relationships. In addition, if the organisation runs on a strict budget and tight human resources then it is also very likely that the manager will have neither the time nor the resources to be able to engage in social activities with the staff.

6.2. Housekeeping Managers' Perceptions of Employee Engagement

To understand the HK managers' view on engagement, they were not directly asked whether their staff were engaged, rather they were asked about workers' quality of work and level of efficiency. Two questions (numbers 18 and 19) in the fourth section 'performance evaluation' of the interview question addressed the topic.

In terms of work efficiency, the data revealed that the majority of the managers had a positive opinion. On a scale of 10, 12 of them scored their staff 9-10, another 14 scored 7-8 and the rest said either good, excellent or highly efficient. Some others indicated that rating the entire team would not be possible, instead, workers need to be rated individually.

"It's difficult to rate, everybody is very different. I got some RAs who are amazing, speak English, clean very well then you have other RA who might take 3 hours to clean one room. So, I'd say average about 70%. 8 out of 10" (Director of Housekeeping, 5-star hotel)

"It depends on the person, I have a woman who's 60 years old but does a better job than someone who's 25" (Head Housekeeper, 4-star hotel)

Another manager mentioned that she could trust her staff with their work, which may show that the workers' efficiency level is quite high.

"I usually don't have to get involved with everything. They are very good and can pick up things if I tell them once. I don't have to tell them the same thing again and again. They know what to do" (Housekeeping Manager, 4-star hotel)

On the less positive side, one HK manager rated her team 5 out of 10 and another said,

"They could be and should be better. Only few of them know what they are doing but the rest I need to push. If you don't ask they don't do. They try to get it easy way. That's why me and my supervisors are here" (Head Housekeeper, 4-star hotel)

The majority of the HK managers, apart from a few, scored their HOS very highly, albeit, they made it clear that the score would vary from person to person. The managers' least involvement in the day-to-day work is another way to assume that the HOS are efficient in their work. In theoretical terms this could be translated to a high

level of work engagement. To probe this further, the HK managers were asked if they thought their staff were proactive or not, as proactive behaviours are indicators of workers' attachment to their work, which is also one of the elements of work engagement. The answers to this question revealed three patterns of responses, discussed below.

The Optimist

There was one group of managers who thought their staff were engaged in proactive behaviours and that they encourage such behaviours at work for career advancement.

"We encourage them to be proactive because that's a part of development and it makes my life easy too" (Housekeeping Manager, 4-star hotel)

"Yes, they are and we are encouraging them to be so. We like people to work independently. We don't want to have room attendants we like to have section housekeepers. We'd like room attendants to be engaged with the guests, clean and inspect the room" (Housekeeping Manager, 5-star hotel)

Within this group, some said proactive behaviour is more prevalent among long-tenured staff

"The old staff they know their jobs, I don't have to explain all the times they know what they have to do in different situations" (Housekeeping Manager, 3-star hotel)

"Pro-activeness comes with time for them" (Housekeeping Manager, 5-star hotel)

Some thought the enactment of proactive behaviour was a personality trait and that not everyone was that way inclined.

"Depends on the person. Some of them are proactive, they'll come up with fantastic ideas. Some of them don't like to talk but they can do the job if you show them" (Housekeeping Manager, 4-star hotel)

The Pessimist

The second group of managers expressed their disappointment in workers' lack of proactive initiative and said that it is a rare occurrence

"Sometimes they are proactive, but very rare" (Assistant Housekeeping Manager, 4-star hotel)

“I am happy for them to be proactive but it doesn’t happen very often”
(Housekeeping Manager, 5-star hotel)

“Never. Well sometimes but not as often as I like them to be. There are moments when you are delighted but it doesn’t happen often enough. I need more” (Director of Housekeeping, 5-star hotel)

However, some agreed that their staff were efficient but not proactive

“Workers are not proactive as in anticipating guest needs, even the supervisors. I don’t think they feel confident in taking initiatives” (Assistant Executive Housekeeper, 5-star hotel)

“Pro-activeness is gone. It doesn’t exist at that level. We are trying to push the team”
(Executive Housekeeper, 4-star hotel)

“Workers are efficient but not proactive” (Head Housekeeper, 4-star hotel)

The Pragmatist

The third group, comprised of only a couple of managers, explained why proactive initiatives are rare or may not even be practical

“We encourage them to be proactive but on the other hand they need to go by the books as expected on a 5 star level- every single task has an SOP (Standard Operating Procedure)” (Housekeeping Director, 5-star hotel)

“They can be proactive, but the first nature is to get the job done. Pro-activeness comes from the impact as I try and want them to think beyond the perimeters. They are efficient and driven by results. Pro-activeness I would say you’d associate very less with housekeeping team everywhere. It’s just that they don’t have the time and also, we are all restricted with brand standards to provide consistency in the services we provide which is essential. In their day-to-day jobs, they are more reactive than proactive, not in a negative way, it’s just that they don’t get the opportunity and the time to be proactive. The opportunity to be proactive comes in roles that face customers directly, like reception, customer relations.”
(Housekeeping Manager, 4-star hotel)

To summarise, a large number of HK managers said that workers are proactive while some others completely rejected the idea. It was noted that the propensity of saying that workers were not proactive is more prevalent among the HK managers at 5-star

rated properties. This could be because the higher the star rating the more personalised services are being offered to the customers, thus, the expectations from the employees are much higher too. To understand the applicability of proactive initiatives in the HK work context further, it is useful to refer back to the definition of proactive behaviour, which has three constituents. First, personal initiative (PI) delineating self-starting attitude that goes beyond the job requirements (Frese *et al.*, 1997; 1996). The implementation of PI in the HK work context is debatable because of the tasks being meticulously planned to avoid inconsistency in the service delivered, as some of the managers clearly indicated. Second, flexible role orientation, whereby workers participate in a broad array of work roles as opposed to narrowly defined jobs (Parker, 2000). Application of flexible role orientation raises questions too because when workers are asked to go by the books the job becomes narrow depriving workers of broader exposure. Third, role breadth self-efficacy (RBSE), the degree of self-efficacy about executing a broader role, beyond the prescribed tasks (Parker, 1998). RBSE could only apply to HOS if they are allowed to participate in broader roles within the organisation, where they can gain the competence and build self-efficacy in that respect.

The characteristics of a proactive worker, personal initiative, flexible role orientation and role breadth self-efficacy, do not seem to fit well in the hotel HK context because at the core of the concept of proactivity is *change* which defies the very purpose of standardisation. It has been established that hotel housekeeping work is repetitive and lacks job control (Sanon, 2013; Hunter Powell and Watson, 2006) because this helps the management maintain consistency and smooth functioning of the hotel (Vanselow *et al.*, 2010), which saves time and money (Harris, 2009). This confirms the claim that work context constrains various worker behaviours (Griffin, Neal and Parker, 2007; Johns, 2006; Frese and Fay, 2001), in this instance the standardisation of HK work means it restricts workers ability to be proactive.

Overall, from the HK managers' point of view, this may imply that the HOS can be engaged at work to the extent that they work efficiently and produce predefined results but not to the extent where they take initiative to change the job in any way, and the managers seem to encourage efficiency but not necessarily proactive behaviour. The difference between an efficient worker and a proactive worker is enormous. An

efficient worker would make sure that the tasks are completed and done well, and a *proactive worker* would do the work of an efficient worker plus go the extra mile to make favourable changes. However, it must be noted that the actual psychological state of engagement felt by the person is not measured here, rather, the discussion sheds some light on the HK managers' subjective judgement of employee engagement. Besides, the reviewed literature suggested that workers decision to be or not to be engaged is contingent on their perceived costs and benefits (Ethugala, 2011; Cropanzano and Mitchell, 2005); benefits here are the resources they receive from the organisation (Andrew and Sofian, 2012). For HOS, resources would mean appropriate training in broader organisational roles and in the absence of such training, workers' decision to be engaged in proactive behaviours would be impaired.

This was the managers' perceptions of workers' attachment to work, i.e. engagement. The next section discusses managers' perceptions of workers' attachment to the hotel, i.e. commitment.

6.3. Housekeeping Managers' Perceptions of Employee Commitment

During the semi-structured interviews with the hotel HK managers, they were asked two questions (numbers 23 and 24) in the fourth section 'OCB' to understand their point of views on employee commitment. They were asked if they thought commitment was important and to rate workers' level of commitment. Almost all the managers were in agreement that staff commitment was essential but their ratings varied greatly. Eight of them rated 9-10, seven of them rated 7-8 and two scored them 6-7. While some were able to score their staff's commitment, others understandably could not give a concrete answer. The responses could be grouped into two categories: one where the managers mentioned the criteria for commitment while the other group presented several reasons for HOS not to commit to the work.

The first group of managers believed that workers were committed for two reasons

Long tenure

Some managers assumed that their staff were committed because they had stayed at the hotel for a considerable period of time

“People are here for a very long time that proves that they are committed. Some are here for 14/16 years even” (Assistant Executive Housekeeper, 5-star hotel)

“The ones who are here with us for more than 3 /4 years they are committed” (Assistant Housekeeping Manager, 4-star hotel)

Permanent contract

Some assumed that the permanent hotel staff were more committed than agency hired staff

“Permanent staff level of commitment can be 80%. Some agency staff are very committed too. I probably got 15 agency staff who’ve been here for 2/3 years” (Director of Housekeeping, 5-star hotel)

“For the permanent staff 9 out of 10, a lot of them have been here for a while” (Head Housekeeper, 4-star hotel)

The other group of managers had a longer list of motives for workers not to commit or the factors that inhibited workers to commit to the organisation.

Migrant worker status

Some believed that workers’ active decision to not commit to the organisation was owing to a certain mind-set of being migrant workers. For instance, it was assumed that for many of these migrant workers, the housekeeping job was a stepping-stone or a job to enter the labour market because of their limited job options posed by their lack of language proficiency and that as their language skills improve they move on to a different job.

“Housekeeping is a starting point, they come here clean the rooms but the moment they start speaking English they go to warehouses, factories or coffee shops. People do this job when they have no choice, when they find something they leave” (Head Housekeeper, 4-star hotel)

“People are not so committed these days because they don’t see this job as their future job. They just think I’m going to do this whilst I look for something else” (Housekeeping Manager, 4-star hotel)

“Their English isn’t good enough so they can’t go anywhere else, agency sends them to us because it’s a starting point for them” (Housekeeping Manager, 5-star hotel)

Job security not pursued

Quite a large proportion of the interviewed managers mentioned that HOS were unenthusiastic about having a permanent employment contract with the hotel ensuring job security; instead, they preferred to be with the recruitment agencies because of the flexibility and freedom that comes with a temporary contract. Workers’ preference to stay with the agency signalled the managers that they do not seek job security implying their unwillingness to commit to the organisation.

“Agency workers want to work for a short period then go home for a long time or a few months. If they work for agencies they can leave anytime. They don’t look at what they gain to be a permanent staff, they look at what they want” (Head Housekeeper, 4-star hotel)

“The agency workers decide when they work and when they don’t, they go home for a month for Christmas and don’t come back to the same hotel” (Executive Housekeeper, 5-star hotel)

“They (agency staff) don’t show any interest when we have a vacancy. We have to advertise the position to get people from outside. We give them the opportunity to be a hotel staff but they like to be with the agency” (Housekeeping Manager, 4-star hotel)

High labour demand

Some managers attributed the high labour demand in the market to London’s ever-growing hotel industry, which offered endless opportunities to these migrant workers, as one of the core contributing factors for workers not to commit to one hotel.

“Majority of them not committed because there is a shortage of workers in the market. So, if something isn’t right they just go get another job very easily somewhere else” (Head Housekeeper, 4-star hotel)

“Before there weren’t many vacancies. It was hard to find another job but now it’s the opposite. If they don’t like something in one place they just go to another one. There are too many offers here in London” (Housekeeping Manager, 5-star hotel)

Motivated by monetary gain

Many of the HK managers said that money is the main motivating factor for a large percentage of the workers and that workers were constantly seeking job with higher wage.

“I’ll be lying if I say every single person is committed, I think there is a balance, of course it’s all about pay and I’m sure if they are offered £11/ hour they’ll be gone”

(Executive Head Housekeeper, 5-star hotel)

“We live in an era where everybody needs money so, they are committed because they want money. But again not all of them” (Assistant Housekeeping Manager, 4-star hotel)

In this blame game, one Housekeeping Manager (5-star hotel) explained that being migrant workers their commitment could change with their circumstances, which is not always foreseeable.

“Commitments sometimes change due to private circumstances and you can’t judge them on that. People come here and then they get crisis back home so they have to leave. I do think they are committed but sometimes companies take their departure negatively instead of really trying to understand the personality and circumstances”

Revisiting the discussion in the literature review, managers’ perceptions of employee commitment are often based on workers’ display of altruistic behaviours at work (Shore, Barksdale and Shore, 1995). Based on that, some examples of helping behaviours were noted during the interviews with the managers, which are discussed below.

Be flexible to cover a colleague’s non-attendance

A number of HK managers asserted that workers were flexible to cover a colleague’s absence, which shows their willingness to help the organisation when in need. Flexibility is not something that can be imposed forcefully or even lawfully on the workers by the organisation. It is a personal discretion and enactment of such behaviour implies good citizenship behaviour. This shows dual-level helping behaviour: one, to help a colleague have her desired day off by swapping days, hinting

prosocial behaviour and two, by arranging a cover for the day ensuring least interruption in everyone's workload, which is a form of OCB.

"They are very flexible. The way they perform when we are in crisis is amazing, I go home thinking wow this was great. Teamwork is always there" (Housekeeping Manager, 4-star hotel)

"They are very good with swapping between themselves and then just come and tell me" (Housekeeping Manager, 5-star hotel)

Help a colleague with workload

A few other managers expressed that when some workers finish servicing their allocated rooms for the day early, they go and help others so that they can finish on time. This is another example of prosocial behaviour because there is no monetary gain from helping a colleague.

"They go and help others who are struggling so that they can finish on time. They always help each other" (Executive Head Housekeeper, 5-star hotel)

Help the hotel in crisis

At least two managers expressed that some of their staff had helped the hotel operate as normal when the hotel was struck by a severe shortage of staff, by servicing a large number of rooms for consecutive days without a day-off. This was an example of sportsmanship, where workers have tolerated a less-than-ideal situation to help the organisation.

"My stable team (long-tenured workers) worked really hard when we struggled in August. One of them worked for 20 days without a day off. I was begging them to work extra hours because you can't force them. It's all about relationship" (Housekeeping Manager, 4-star hotel)

"When I needed them to clean 20 rooms a day or 2 weeks in a row, they never say no to me because I always try to help them when they need" (Housekeeping Manager, 4-star hotel)

The HK managers' accounts may suggest that normative commitment to the hotel prevailed among long tenured HOS or workers on permanent contracts. This is in line with the literature that claims that the length of service is strongly related to commitment (Valaei and Rezaei, 2016; Iqbal, Kokash and Al-Oun, 2011; Iqbal, 2010;

Hrebiniak and Alutto, 1972). Although the type of commitment that the managers seemed to believe was normative commitment not affective commitment that literature suggests (English, Morrison and Chalon, 2010; Meyer *et al.*, 2002).

Another segment of workers seemed to have continuance commitment towards the organisation, because the managers thought that they use the job to enter the labour market, where they do not seek job security while they look for a better job and improve their skills. This can be justified in two ways. One, some studies, as discussed in the literature review, explained that workers' expression of commitment to an organisation could be due to the fear that leaving their jobs may lead to limited job alternatives (Devece, Palacios-Marqués and Alguacil, 2016; Ogba, 2008). The HOS were not confronted with job limitations, as some of the managers indicated, therefore, their fear of losing jobs would be minimal, which may decrease their propensity to commit to the organisation too. Two, according to Parutis' (2014) three-stage migration process, also explored in the literature, that claims that migrant workers seek improvement in career by gradually moving from 'any job' to a 'better job'. This may explain why HOS do not want to commit to the hotels or perceive hotel HK jobs as their career because they may see their housekeeping jobs as 'any job' and want to move ahead once they have attained economic stability and the required skills.

The presence of the connection between workers' pay and continuance commitment, as per the managers, opposes Valaei and Rezaei's (2016) study findings that pay has a non-significant association to continuance commitment. The divergence could be due to the work context as their study used non-migrant workers at skilled jobs, and this investigation focused on migrant workers in low-skilled jobs. This may point to a shortcoming whereby literature often regards workers as homogeneous groups but as Gallagher and Parks' (2001) study on contingent workers pointed out that literature on 'traditional' workers' commitment does not fit well with contingent workers. This is because as explored in the literature, agency hired workers develop dual commitment which complicates the employment process (Connelly, Gallagher and Gilley, 2007; Liden *et al.*, 2003; Gallagher and Parks, 2001). This is not to say that agency-hired workers do not develop commitment to the client organisation (the hotel). For the HOS, they clearly have continuance commitment, which made them perform citizenship behaviours.

The examples of prosocial behaviour, OCB and sportsmanship provided by the managers also contradict the claims made by some theorists, that continuance commitment is negatively related to OCB (Chen and Fransesco, 2003). Here it appeared that even though managers thought that their staff held continuance commitment, they were engaged in various helping behaviours, sometimes voluntarily and at other times on request to help the organisation. This confirms Suliman and Iles (2000) assertion that CC should not be regarded as discouraging or negative because it is positively associated to job performance.

The discussion here is also in disagreement with the affirmation that job insecurity affects workers' commitment and involvement (Jiang and Lavaysse, 2018; Lee *et al.*, 2018; Cheng and Chan, 2008, Sverke, Hellgren and Näswall, 2002; Rosenblatt, Talmud and Ruvio, 1999) and that the effect is profound among manual workers (Sverke, Hellgren and Näswall, 2002), temporary contract holders and less educated individuals (Keim *et al.*, 2014; Kinnunen and Nätti, 1994). Here HOS did not seem to seek job security rather they favoured temporary contract with the recruitment agencies because this allows them to be free from restrictions that come with formal permanent employment contracts. This disparity could be once again because of the general assumption of worker homogeneity, as Gallagher and Parks (2001) pointed out, which does not contemplate the idea that workers could opt for a flexible job offer abandoning the anxiety of job insecurity.

The discussion here provided a picture of the HK managers' opinions about HOS' level of commitment towards the organisation and the ways workers display their attachment to the organisation. These results, however, were not an in-depth analysis of migrant workers' commitment using an appropriate measurement scale, such as Allen and Meyer's (1996) organisational commitment scale. Instead, these were subjective assessments of the managers, and thus should be used with caution. Because the managers could be accurate in what they have said but equally can be way off the mark, the actual level of HOS' commitment might not be what the managers seem to believe. A Housekeeping Manager (4-star hotel) aptly stated,

"You make someone committed, someone does not come in as committed, it is the way you create your team, build them. It is very important".

The following section discloses the HR practices at the participating hotels.

6.4. Organisational Support with the means of HR Practices

From the exploration of the literature, it became clear that through the implementation of human resources practices organisations could shape the formation of workers' PC and outline employee-employer relationship (Aggarwal, Datta and Bhargava, 2007) signalling that the organisation supports its workers (Allen, Shore and Griffeth, 2003). Workers' POS develops based on the supports provided. Workers perceived need fulfilment by the means of HR practices is linked to their commitment to the organisation, which applies to workers of both core and peripheral segments (Chambel, Castanheira and Sobral, 2016). Similarly, employees' positive perceptions of HR practices translate to engagement at work (Edwards, 2009). With this theoretical knowledge, here in this section four basic HR practices are examined that had been covered in the literature review review: hiring, socialising, training and rewarding, to understand the various stages of the employment process that shape the employment relationship and organisational outcome within the context of hotel housekeeping.

6.4.1. Hiring Hotel Housekeeping Staff

Literature seemed to put special attention on the hiring phase of the employment process because this is when organisations recruit the right people (Brown, 2011; McCaleb, 1980). With an aim to collect information about the hiring process of HOS, the second section of the interview questions 'General HRM questions', included three questions targeted to the recruitment and selection process. These three questions asked the interviewees about their staff recruitment source, selection process and the use of referral or word-of-mouth.

Hiring process

First, for the HOS hiring process or the source for entry-level positions, three patterns of responses appeared. One, hiring through mediating organisations, which was the most widely used, two, referral or word-of-mouth and three, hiring directly through advertisement, which was the least practised.

Hiring through recruitment agencies

As many as 32 managers said they rely on recruitment agencies for new staff, 10 said they advertise and another 11 said they use both, agency and direct hire.

“When we need people, I ring the agency and they send people” (Head Housekeeper, 4-star hotel)

“When we need staff we just ring the agency and they send staff. Sometimes the next day, sometimes we have to wait a couple of days” (Assistant Housekeeping Manager, 4-star hotel)

Some hotels work with multiple recruitment agencies

“We work with 3 agencies. Whenever we need staff we ring them to send staff over” (Housekeeping Co-ordinator, 5-star hotel)

They rely on these recruitment agencies to do the staff selection for them

“We work with an agency to recruit entry-level positions and the agency does the selection” (Housekeeping Manager, 5-star hotel)

“I always contact the agency if I need staff, they do everything for us, I don’t get involved” (Housekeeping Manager, 3-star hotel)

Even for training and other contractual obligations

“I don’t get involved in the recruitment process. I do see them when they are here. Performance, wages, training, disciplinary everything is dealt by the agency we don’t get involved at all” (Housekeeping Manager, 4-star hotel)

While most of those who use recruitment agencies had a hands-off approach, some did mention that they interview candidates before taking on board where they mainly evaluate the person’s soft skills, but this was only done by either 5-star rated properties or the hotels that had only core workers.

“I do the selection myself. We don’t use agency for regular jobs we only use agency to top up my work force” (Executive Housekeeper, 5-star hotel)

“I interview them and try to study their body language. Other traits open-mindedness, communication skills” (Executive head Housekeeper and HR Manager, 4-star hotel)

There were acknowledgements by the HK managers that workers hired through third parties come with consequences. The most important one was lower level of work motivation

“When you have your own team it’s a different level of motivation. You can’t expect the same level of motivation from hotel staff and the agency staff. I have RAs who are employed by hotel so they take a little more care. We can expect an agency staff to be like that but it doesn’t happen” (Executive Housekeeper, 4-star hotel)

And that this hiring process costs more because the agencies charge an extra hourly fee on top of the hourly rate paid to the workers.

“We use agency knowing it is expensive because I physically don’t have the time to interview people and carry out the recruitment process, holiday calculation and all that” (Head Housekeeper, 4-star hotel)

However, this hiring practice was believed to be more manageable

“We are now 100% agency including myself. HK department in a hotel has the biggest manpower so it’s easier for the hotel to manage if you outsource it. Hotels are hiring more from agency because it saves them from the burden of insurance cost, recruitment cost, they get a replacement when someone calls in sick, they don’t have to maintain an up-to-date health and safety folder etc.” (Housekeeping Manager, 5-star hotel)

There are pros and cons of relying heavily on recruitment agencies. On the positive side, there are four points: *convenience*- no hiring process involved, only a phone call is needed, *time efficiency*- the manager can carry on with other duties while agencies look for the person, *less involved*- training and other HR related deeds are conducted by the agencies and *control*- managers can decide how many hours they need and when. On the negative side, there are two points: higher cost and less motivation among agency-hired staff.

Referral or word-of-mouth

The other recruitment policy these hotels had was referral or word-of-mouth or staff network. All the participating hotels but one said that they use staff network or referral as a reliable method of recruiting new staff and 14 of them revealed that they had a bonus scheme associated with staff referral program to encourage people more. The most common reasons provided were cost effectiveness, trust and reliability

“That’s the cheapest way to recruit” (Director, Housekeeping, 5-star hotel)

“That’s the biggest source of recruitment, because people bring someone when they trust them” (Assistant Executive Housekeeper, 5-star hotel)

“We encourage it because a staff who's working here knows what this hotel is about so if they are recommending someone they know that this person will come to work, know the expectations and not have a shock like OMG this job is too difficult” (Housekeeping Manager, 5-star hotel)

The one manager who did not favour referral said

“Relatives and friends can't work in the same department. If someone's sister is a manager or leader then it'll create bias” (Housekeeping Manager, 4-star hotel)

Hiring staff through existing workers' network or referral or word-of-mouth has three advantages and one major disadvantage. It incurs minimal cost, managers can easily trust the new hires and it can be used as a motivational tool by attaching some monetary benefits. On the downside, this could create national clusters giving way to nepotistic practices (McGovern, 2007).

Selection process

The managers were asked about the specific attributes that they seek in a new recruit to determine how the person-job fit was evaluated. The responses revealed a high degree of weightage on the linguistic capabilities of the candidates than any other criteria, with varying degrees of expectations.

English fluency highly expected

Three managers from 5-star rated hotels firmly asserted that the ability to communicate in English was one of the main requirements.

“In this hotel it's language, needs to be fluent in English. It's the first criteria of selection which is tough and limits options” (Executive Head Housekeeper, 5-star hotel)

Another 21 said that at least some basic level of English is needed,

“Basic level of English. We don't recruit someone who doesn't speak English at all, because at times they need speak to the guests and they need to understand what the guests are saying or asking for” (Housekeeping Manager, 4-star hotel)

English fluency not expected

Seven managers clearly said understanding of English was not necessary for entry-level positions

“Someone who wants to work- doesn’t matter if they speak English or not”
(Assistant Housekeeping Manager, 4-star hotel)

Expectation altered due to labour market situation

Three others expressed that because of the labour shortage due to Brexit they are currently ignoring the English language requirement.

“Recently after Brexit we started to overlook experience as long as their English is good or you overlook English as long as they are capable of doing the job physically” (Director, Housekeeping, 5-star hotel)

“At the moment because of Brexit it’s difficult to find someone with English. If you could speak English you wouldn’t be working as a cleaner” (Assistant Housekeeping Manager, 4-star hotel)

Being realistic with expectations

Most of the HK managers had a relaxed approach to person specification for entry positions because they had to be realistic in terms of who they can actually have to perform the HK jobs.

“Honestly, there are no criteria because it’s not easy to find staff in cleaning so as long as they are okay to work. English isn’t required, experience is good to have but we train them” (Housekeeping Manager, 3-star hotel)

“You know for a room attendant it’s just the willingness to do the job and who’s a fair and hardworking person. I do not care about experience I do not care about language. A person that wants to work” (Manager Housekeeping, Valet, Butler, 5-star hotel)

Extremely downgraded expectation

Two other managers were realistic to an extreme level

“It’s really hard to recruit these day, we have adverts everywhere but no people. As long as you got two legs and two hands, you can do it” (Housekeeping Manager, 4-star hotel)

“No selection process due to the lack of people. Maybe it’s the Brexit that’s affecting us all. Now it’s like if the agencies have someone just send, no experience or anything required as long as they have a pair of hands and legs that’ll do” (Head Housekeeper, 4-star hotel)

Other soft skills expectation

Only a couple of other managers listed a number of soft skills that they seek and check references of the candidates.

“We do look for experience but that’s not everything. We check their customer service, communication, teamwork, problem-solving abilities. We have standard questionnaire from the hotel that tell us more about the person” (Assistant Housekeeping Manager, 5-star hotel)

“We do reference checks. Basic level of spoken English is required as well as experience. Experience can be relaxed for someone who speaks good English” (Housekeeping Manager, 4-star hotel)

The HK managers’ admission of the hiring process for the bottom level staff revealed heavy reliance on recruitment agencies, which confirms numerous previous claims (Alberti and Danaj, 2017; Samaluk, 2016; Alberti, 2014; Sporton, 2013; Fitzgerald and Hardy, 2010; Lucas and Mansfield, 2010; Lai, Soltani and Baum, 2008; McDowell, Batnitzky and Dyer, 2008; Dench *et al.*, 2006). When recruiting through intermediary organisations, there seemed to be no interaction between the potential employer and the employee in the form of an interview, which as understood from the theoretical discourse is a vital part of the recruitment process (Ferris, Berkson and Harris, 2002). Whereas, as explored in the literature review, hiring candidates through interview with the manager, matching the person with job attributes and providing a realistic job description, organisations could prevent premature departure of new recruits resulting from mismatch (Choi and Dickson, 2009). In the absence of such communication, job choices for the newly hired HOS would transpire with very little or incomplete information about the employer and the work context as Rynes, Bretz Jr and Gerhart (1991) professed. It can be alleged here that by hiring through a third party, these hotels are depriving the new recruits of any opportunity to gather information about the work setting and manager before committing to the role.

The other equally favoured hiring practice was through referral or staff network, also in line with previous studies where it had been claimed that this practice is preferred to hire migrant workers for low skilled jobs in the UK (Markova *et al.*, 2016; McCollum and Apsite-Berina, 2015; Forde and MacKenzie, 2009; Jentsch, De Lima and MacDonald, 2007). This practice might be reliable and cost effective but it could give

way to organisational injustice issues and create ethnic cluster as well as issues that McGovern (2007) highlighted such as job information only reaching limited currently employed ethnic groups, thus, giving the organisation a nepotistic cast. These unconventional recruitment approaches according to Wright and Pollert (2006) often do not provide a written contract thereby depriving the HOS of any awareness of the contractual agreement.

Person specification, as Diamond and Bedrosian said back in the 1970s, was based on personal ideas making the hiring process personal and subjective rather than fair and impersonal, with a complete disregard of person-job fit. As discussed in the literature review, when person-job fit is ignored it leads to undesirable job attitudes (Maynard, Joseph and Maynard, 2006; Burris, 1983), erodes organisational commitment (McKee-Ryan *et al.*, 2009), lower job satisfaction (Verhaest and Omev, 2006; Johnson, Morrow and Johnson, 2002; Battu, Belfield and Sloane, 2000) and increases workers' intention to leave (Maynard, Joseph and Maynard, 2006; Verhaest and Omev, 2006; Johnson and Johnson, 1995). HK managers' staff hiring process therefore, portrayed the 'warm body syndrome' by recruiting workers unselectively, while prioritising cost-efficiency and convenience, which confirms earlier claims (Harrison, 2010; Choi and Dickson, 2009; Simons and Hinkin, 2001; Woods, 1992). For the handful of managers who mentioned that they seek a variety of soft skills for entry-level hires, two questions surface. One, how realistic are these prerequisites when the majority of the time a third party is selecting candidates on the hotel's behalf? Two, are there required skills, such as teamwork, and problem-solving abilities, being used by the HOS, when room attending entails lone working? Some asserted that they check references for new recruits, which yet again raises suspicion because how would the hotel check the authenticity of the reference received, particularly for migrant workers whose previous work could be in a different country or have no record?

Further, as noted from the literature, hiring is the stage of the employment process when the exchange relationship is initiated and also when the PC starts to materialise (Coyle-Shapiro and Parzefall, 2008; De Vos, Buyens and Schalk, 2003; Rousseau, 2001). The unconventional hiring practices that these participating hotels were involved in, where potential workers had no communication with the employer before arriving at the hotel to start their roles, are in theory denying workers the opportunities

to build a reciprocal exchange relationship and ignoring their need to learn about their person-job fit. Overall, it appears that the hiring practice that exists in the London hotel housekeeping sector is very informal, even tactless, which could pave the way for disaster in the long run. This is because, hiring is a HR 'process' that include multiple steps to ensure the suitable candidate with the right person-job-fit is recruited, but when this 'process' is being cut short to an action (a phone call to the agency), the important steps are being skipped, which could have devastating outcomes. The following section examines these newly hired HOS' organisational socialisation process.

6.4.2. Organisational Socialisation of HOS

The managers were not directly asked about the socialisation process but the responses were gathered from the questions that follow the hiring process and training prospects and only three HK managers, all from 5-star rated properties, who mentioned induction sessions. Out of the three one had permanent and agency staff, and the other two only had permanent staff.

"We have induction programmes, done by the HR department that introduces the whole company because this is a chain hotel with beautiful individualised lunch and tour of the hotel with video clips" (Head of Butler and Housekeeping Department, 5-star hotel)

"To start as an employee everyone has to go through a 3-day induction programme that covers the history and goal of the company, there are games to train people to be a team player because hospitality is based on teamwork you are nothing on your own" (Housekeeping Manager, 5-star hotel)

"We have training about our brand, about the hotel about Marriot company and le Meridian brand, a lot of that" (Housekeeping Manager, 5-star hotel)

One interviewee indicated that induction is not for non-permanent staff making the labour segmentation and differential managerial attitude and treatment more pronounced

"Agency staff don't need to know about the hotel history because they are not our employees" (Housekeeping Director, 5-star hotel)

This may suggest that in the participating hotels, for the newly hired HOS, most of whom were agency-hired migrant workers, induction to the hotel was a mythical phase. Even though literature claims that workers' initial entry to the organisation is pivotal in transforming their expectations into realities (Burböck, Schnepf and Pessl, 2016; Wanous, 1976). This is when workers' understanding of organisational-level fits, such as person-group fit, person-organisation fit and person-environment fit, develop which provide them the sense of relatedness. Without any knowledge of how a person fits in the overall organisational context, it is likely to trigger feelings of need violation and detachment. Besides, as migrant workers are said to participate in double socialisation (Roberts, 2010; Li, 2000), when there is no initiative from the organisation to integrate them in the wider community, thus fulfilling their socioemotional needs, it could increase their already heightened risk of social exclusion, as many studies have reported previously (Polanco and Zell, 2017; Rodriguez and Mearns, 2012; International Labour Organisation, 2004).

Social detachment could have adverse consequences. I was given examples by HK managers as well as recruitment agency representatives of two separate types of anti-social behaviours conducted by agency-hired workers. Antisocial behaviours are dysfunctional because they involve negative societal outcomes (Hashmani and Jonason, 2017) and are generally enacted by workers who experience frustration (Spector, 1997). The first example was a direct aggression against the manager, where workers had spat in the managers' face during an altercation, which almost certainly resulted in job loss. The other example was an indirect aggression where an element of fear of punishment was present (Spector, 1997), where hotel guests had reported missing valuable items from their bedrooms, raising grievous concerns as customer safety *is* the most important feature for running a hotel business. This behaviour triggered an extensive investigation consuming time and effort, it damaged the hotel's reputation and depleted the trust that the management had in the rest of its team members. Theft costs the organisation money directly and indirectly affects rest of the workforce and reputation (Muir, 1996). Theorists claim that most antisocial behaviours at work are generally caused by underlying problems as Greenberg (1990) emphasised that consistent with Adam's equity theory, when workers perceive reciprocal deviance in the exchange relationship, they may actively engage in minimising the inequity. Workers use theft as an instrument to remedy their

perceptions of injustice and inequity (Hollinger and Clark, 1983). There have been other reasons for workplace theft, such as to ease financial hardship (Merton, 1938), a mechanism to exhibit dissatisfaction with one's job (Mangione and Quinn, 1975) and to reduce the organisation's worth (Greenberg, 1990). Besides antisocial behaviours are more prevalent among low-earning workers who perceive their pay as unequal to their performance (Grosch and Rau, 2017).

It could be argued that anti-social behaviours like these could have been prevented if the newly hired workers were socialised and integrated properly in the organisation, fulfilling their innate need to belong and feel related. Otherwise, the organisation's lack of social support to new recruits could come at a price. The next section explores the training provisions available to HOS in these hotels.

6.4.3. Training and Developing HOS

The fifth section of the interview questions 'Human capital development' was to ascertain the training and development opportunities available to the HOS. There were two questions in this section. One asked about training prospects for HOS and the other was about career development within the organisation. From the data, three patterns of responses emerged. Over 50% of the interviewees were in the group where they had either no development training or training was only available to certain staff. The following group with about one third of the interviewees said they offered development training to HOS and in the third group a small percentage of the interviewees mentioned about providing some sort of social skills training. Besides, nearly half of the participating manager cited English language training as a means of staff development.

No or conditional development training

A larger proportion of the HK managers, 28, revealed that development training is either not available or available to certain workers depending on their employment status. Nine of the respondents clearly specified that there was no development training for the HOS other than the two days of shadowing to learn how to do the job and the mandatory trainings, such as COSHH (Control of Substances Hazardous to

Health) for handling various chemicals or cleaning agents, health and safety and fire training.

“They get basic two days training on how to do the job and how to handle chemicals (Housekeeping Manager, 4-star hotel)

“Many training on how to do the job but nothing to develop them” (Housekeeping Co-ordinator, 4-star hotel)

“Development training is not something that we do” (Housekeeping Manager, 4-star hotel)

Some HK managers confused development training with mandatory by law training showing their lack of understanding in the conceptual difference between the two

“Sometimes they do have trainings like health and safety, how to use chemical- this kind of training” (Housekeeping Manager, 3-star hotel)

A few managers asserted that development training was provided to the permanent staff only, yet again stressing labour division and their deferential treatments towards them.

“Permanent staff get a lot of trainings. We have monthly trainings sometimes online, but for agency people we only have the basic ones” (Housekeeping Manager, 4-star hotel)

“For permanent staff we have 12 mandatory trainings and some optional trainings too. But agency staff will only attend the mandatory by law trainings” (Housekeeping Director, 5-star hotel)

One other manager said housekeeping staff were excluded from development training provided by the hotel

“There are a lot of training, but not for housekeeping” (Assistant Executive Housekeeper, 5-star hotel)

Some mentioned that these trainings are conducted by the mediating organisations

“Agency does everything for us, health and safety training, chemical usage training, I don’t get involved” (Housekeeping Manager, 3-star hotel)

Development training provisions

While a larger percentage of interviewees mentioned about the scarce resources available to the HOS, 19 managers enthusiastically revealed that they offer various training opportunities to the HOS.

“We have a lot of trainings. A Room Attendant doesn't have to remain at that level she can grow, there are plenty of opportunities and training programs for them” (Head Housekeeper, 4-star hotel)

“We have writing skill, excel course these are for anyone in the hotel. We have mentoring scheme means we send them to another hotel where they are led by a different manager. We have NVQ in customer service, leadership” (Housekeeping Manager, 4-star hotel)

Social skills training

Some HK managers mentioned that they provided social skills training to workers

“A lot of hospitality training- how to talk to the guests, how to solve difficult situations, how to talk to sensitive guests say due to gender, race, age, culture. Basically, we need to have these trainings because a Middle Eastern guest would be different to an American guest. We need to know how to approach them” (Housekeeping Manager, 5-star hotel)

“We have a lot of training for different levels, culture (smile), telephone etiquette. We also have Cherry-on-top training all about providing exceptional service to our guests” (Head Housekeeper, 4-star hotel)

English language training

There were 13 managers who said they had English language training for whoever wishes to improve their language ability.

“Hotel arranges English training 2 days a week for the staffs. A teacher comes to the hotel or if it's a very large group they go somewhere else” (Housekeeping Manager, 4-star hotel)

Another manager seemed to have taken personal initiative to support workers

“I do quiz to teach them the basic words, how to greet customers, how to respond to requests. We do it once a month. Company is also planning to introduce Rosetta stone” (Housekeeping Manager, 4-star hotel)

A few others mentioned that they had one in place, but it turned out to be ineffective

“We tried to provide English language training but it didn't work. They are from different countries and are at different levels” (Housekeeping Manager, 4-star hotel)

“We had one before but it died out because the staff were too busy to attend. We are planning to start that again” (Head Housekeeper, 4-star hotel)

Among the rest who did not have one in place, one said

“We don’t have English lessons because we would hope that they’d have a level of English. Because we don’t want them just to clean rooms and not be able to speak to anybody” (Assistant Executive Housekeeper, 5-star hotel)

All the participating hotels provided shadowing as the main form of on-the-job training and literature claims that shadowing is the most suitable and effective form of one-to-one training for hotel environment (Furunes, 2005). Staff development training was found to be not one of the priorities of the HK managers, supporting previous assertions that hospitality firms do not put enough effort to develop workers, especially workers at the lower end of the hierarchy (Markova *et al.*, 2016; Knox *et al.*, 2015; Harris, Tregidga and Williamson, 2011; Soltani and Wilkinson, 2010; Veijola, 2009; Ryan, 1998). Only one third of the participating hotels had some sort of development training initiative in place and some managers made a clear distinction between their core and peripheral workers’ development training entitlement. However, according to the reviewed literature, career related supports are often essential for migrant workers as many lack education or professional training (Baum, 2012) or their qualifications are not recognised in the host country (Hopkins, 2017; Markova *et al.*, 2016; Parutis, 2014; Clark and Drinkwater, 2008). But, this may not be as straight forward in practice in the hotel housekeeping setting as claimed. Going back to the discussion in the commitment section, where managers expressed their frustration about HOS’ unwillingness to transfer their agency contract to hotel and their general tendency to avoid career progression and development, the differential treatment may have triggered through the managers’ previous experiences with such workers. Therefore, it may make sense from the organisational perspective that training, a relatively costly HR practice, is provided to the workers who have accepted permanent employment contracts, and thus perceived to be more committed.

As for social skills training, only a handful of hotels provided training on telephone etiquette and how to talk to customers from various cultural backgrounds, which is thought to be particularly important for the HOS because of the high possibilities that being migrant workers they may lack such skills. This finding is in line with previous claim that social skills training is often neglected in the hospitality sector (Janta *et al.*, 2011; Baum 1996). By providing social skills training that can enhance the HOS’ social

connections, organisations would fulfil their need to belong and their self-efficacy would be augmented with the increased sense of competence. Although, the most crucial social skill that can enhance the HOS' social status and occupational desirability is English language, as per the literature (Polanco and Zell, 2017; French, 2012; Heyes, 2009; Spencer *et al.*, 2007) and about 13 hotels had this in place. Literature claims that language socialisation helps migrant workers identify with the organisation and wider society, which aids their social inclusion process (Li, 2000; Ochs, 1993). Arguably, language socialisation might be even more crucial for the agency-hired migrant HOS who seemed to be ostracised from many other socialisation opportunities in the hotel as explored in the previous section. Acquiring linguistic capital would mean overcoming the language barrier that often impedes success for migrant workers. Socially skilled HOS would feel more confident to face customers and not shy away for the fear of poor interpersonal skills. They will also be more confident in communicating with co-workers, which will augment their sense of self-efficacy. Along with this heightened sense of self-efficacy, they would feel more included which may increase their attachment to their jobs as well as identification with the hotel. From the organisational point of view, well-trained and socially skilled HOS would translate to an engaged and committed work force.

In sum, this investigation has found a paucity of eagerness among the majority of the HK managers in terms of training and developing HOS, essentially discounting workers basic psychological need for competence. This is consistent with Choi and Dickson's (2009) claim that hospitality managers are often unconvinced that training yields results. They raised the question: 'will the time and expense devoted to training increase productivity, profitability, employee satisfaction, and guest satisfaction enough to warrant the expenditure?' (p.104). More research, longitudinal investigation in particular to examine the before and after effects, is needed to understand if hotel workers' training pays off or not as Choi and Dickson's research did not answer this question from the workers' angle and neither did mine.

6.4.4. Rewarding HOS

It was understood from the reviewed literature that rewarding workers is one of the fundamental pillars that support the employment relationship (Kessler, 2005) and the provision of rewards signals workers that the organisation commits to a social exchange relationship with them, (Williamson, Burnett and Bartol 2009; Malhotra, Budhwar and Prowse 2007). Based on that, four questions were included in the last section 'Work motivation and engagement' to understand the rewarding practices in the hotel housekeeping sector. Interview data revealed various kinds of rewards, but to preserve the uniformity with the discussion in the literature review, these rewards are discussed here in two parts, extrinsic and intrinsic rewards.

Extrinsic Rewards

Employee of the Month or Year

The most common type of extrinsic reward was 'Employee of the Month'. At least 23 HK managers mentioned it

"We do employee of the month for HK and they get £100 and champagne"
(Housekeeping Manager, 4-star hotel)

Some had 'Employee of the Year' on top of the monthly one

"Our employee of the month gets £500, employee of the year gets £1000 + trip to any of our properties for two days free of charge" (Manager Housekeeping, Valet, Butler, 5-star hotel)

Although, one pointed out that these rewards did not apply to permanent and agency-hired staff equally

"Employee of the month is for permanent staff only, they get some hotel facilities"
(Head Housekeeper, 4-star hotel)

Rewards for extra-role performance

Some hotels rewarded workers for performing tasks that were beyond their job responsibilities. At least eight hotel managers mentioned about it.

"They are rewarded for smiling (if the duty manager spots someone smiling), cleaning someone's sick, cleaning someone's poo anything like that, which isn't their job responsibility" (Housekeeping Manager, 4-star hotel)

“We have recognition, whenever they do something extra we recognise them and they get some sort of incentive” (Head Housekeeper, 4-star hotel)

Rewards for positive guest feedback

Some hotels rewarded workers when they were mentioned in guest feedbacks. About seven HK managers said they had this practice in the hotels.

“If guests mention you in Trip Advisor or any other site we get points and we can stay for free or have dinner once we accumulate enough points” (Housekeeping Manager, 5-star hotel)

“Every month we have GSS, our guest feedback, we keep a record of positive feedback. So based on that GSS result we give £10 voucher to the highest scorers” (Housekeeping Manager, 4-star hotel)

Rewards for room inspection

In some hotels, HOS randomly get checked for the quality of the rooms serviced and upon meeting satisfactory score they get rewarded. Four hotels had this practice in place.

“We have inspection. If someone wins, she gets a gift from the housekeeping management, voucher and we celebrate that” (Executive Head Housekeeper, 5-star hotel)

While some made the inspection a mundane task, others turned it to a motivational game

“We do spot checks whilst they are cleaning, it’s basically an evaluation of a room once a day. A random room gets evaluated and scored from 1 to 100. The highest scoring RA will get a star-day, which means she will have half workload on a day. She can choose her start and end time and work only half the time and get paid for a full day” (Housekeeping Manager, 5-star hotel)

“We have a scheme called ‘white-glove inspection’. We inspect rooms randomly with the General Manager. We start with £15 for each room and deduct £1 for any mistake we find. This gives them the opportunity to earn an extra £15 and they do very well mostly. The lowest they get is £13. When someone gets less than £15, we do another check after a few days and this time we only check the things that she has missed at the first round. This gives them the chance to earn the money back that they had lost” (Executive Head Housekeeper, 5-star hotel)

Long-service award

Six HK managers, all from 5-star hotels, mentioned that they had long service award to encourage workers to continue with the organisation mostly for permanent staff.

“If you stay here a year on the day you’ve been recruited you get a 13th month salary. We are trying to keep good people as much as possible” (Manager Housekeeping, Valet, Butler, 5-star hotel)

“We have long service award after 3 years, 5, 10, 15, 20, 25, the longer the service the bigger the gift” (Assistant Executive Housekeeper, 5-star hotel)

One particular hotel had very involved and personal service-reward enhancing the motivational value

“After probation, permanent staff get a golden ticket that gives you 24 hours at the hotel with 1 night stay, breakfast, and restaurant meal with drinks for two. They also get golden ticket breakfast with all the executives where you can give feedback to them on what to start/stop based on your 3 months experience. Then we have Getting to Know Breakfast where you sit down with the GM for an informal chat about yourself as the GM would like to know every new hire” (Director, Housekeeping, 5-star hotel)

Intrinsic Rewards

Only a few HK managers exhibited a mutual respect towards the HOS by being open to and accepting of new ideas, which could be intrinsically rewarding for the workers.

“We listen to the staff and to their suggestions, which is very important. We try to see if we can implement anything. Sometimes good suggestions come in and they are implemented. The company tries to see the rational side and see the outcome of it. Certain things are not easily changed but we try. The important thing is the front line gets listened to and heard” (Housekeeping Manager, 5-star hotel)

“Sometimes we have meeting with proper breakfast where we sit down to discuss and come up with ideas. Some of them have really good ideas and I think you need to listen to them, it is important. If someone come to me and say I think we should do it this way because it's faster then why not. Why do I have to stick to my rules? Let's try” (Housekeeping Manager, 4-star hotel)

Another manager said they share success stories as a way of showing recognition for workers' contribution

“We have a board in HK office we post guest comments. Nice comments are posted in the internal journal so that everyone can see. It’s a kind of recognition. It is important to thank them always” (Assistant Housekeeping Manager, 5-star hotel)

It appeared that the participating hotels had a big reward culture with a wide range of rewards in place. The monetary rewards for employee of the month or year showed the managements’ generosity, but, they also throw doubt about the selection criteria that these decisions were based on and how information was conveyed to the HOS. If the communication is not transparent, then it could raise numerous questions and doubts about fairness, nepotism, equity and other similar feelings, leading to procedural injustice and effort-reward imbalance. As explored in the literature, workers’ perceived unfairness of rewards leads to undesirable consequences, namely dissatisfaction, distrust, poor performance and theft (Colquitt *et al.*, 2001; Greenberg, 1990).

The other type of extrinsic reward as they called it ‘extra-role’ was actually citizenship behaviours performed by the workers, where the management attached monetary value as a form of incentive for the performance of OCB. This could be a good way to recognise positive behaviours and the incentive might encourage workers to perform even more, but the question that arises here is- would the HOS be inclined to perform such extra-role behaviours if they knew that no one was monitoring them or there was no incentive for such actions? If the answer is negative, then this type of reward would do more harm than good. Because, as discussed in the literature, Deci’s (1971) preliminary investigation on rewards evinced that monetary rewards undermine workers’ intrinsic motivation for a given activity, particularly when external rewards are not required because rewards are inherent to the activity.

A fairer and more transparent extrinsic reward was where managers rewarded HOS for receiving positive feedback from customers. This is because here the feedback was derived purely from the quality of service rendered instead of a manager’s subjective judgement about a worker’s behaviour. This was arguably recognition and praise of worker’s performance where the performer was not expecting any incentive, so it was an intrinsically motivated behaviour and could be classed as a true form of OCB. Positive feedback, according to the literature, is a type of intrinsic reward that

fosters workers' 'internal feelings of competence and self-actualisation' (Deci, 1976, p.69). Another similar type of fair extrinsic reward was dispensed through room inspection because it also provided the HOS the opportunity to receive instant feedback on their performance quality with a prospect of interaction with the management. This approach could help keep the work standard and workers' engagement levels high because it could keep workers in suspense. Literature claims that when rewards, such as recognition and incentive, are conditional on employee performance, they enhance work performance and satisfaction among workers (Keller and Szilagyi, 1976; Cherrington, Reitz and Scott, 1971; Toppen, 1965).

Some hotels had long-service award. Even though the reward was extrinsic it may have an intrinsic value attached to it because this could impart a sense of recognition and symbol of status. One such hotels provided HOS the chance to meet top management and voice their concerns at an early stage of the employment, which could help the organisation build a relationship and attachment with its workers enhancing their engagement with work and commitment towards the organisation.

As for intrinsic rewards, the HK managers did not seem to value the gravity that these rewards could have on HOS. Only a couple of the HK managers mentioned that they encourage and welcome ideas from staff, which could be intrinsically rewarding for the workers. The overall discourse here on rewarding practice in London hotel housekeeping signified their extensive application of monetary rewards. The existing rewarding practices showed managements' munificence and disposition to appreciate workers' contribution, but, the inclination towards extrinsic rewards may suggest that reward ideas are based on managements' assumption that money *is* the most important factor for worker motivation. To put it blatantly the message most of the extrinsic rewards carried was that money can buy favourable behaviours, as opposed to people are being valued as literature claims (Tetrick and Haimann, 2014, cited in Gilbert and Kelloway, 2018). The idea behind rewarding practices should have been fair recognition of workers' contribution by appreciating their competence whereby enhancing their sense of self-efficacy. If rewards are not managed fairly, organisations may expose themselves to organisational injustice losing workers' trust and contributing to effort reward imbalance (ERI). According to the literature, workers' effort-reward imbalance causes distress (Siegrist *et al.*, 2004; Siegrist, 1996) and

when ERI persists, it diminishes workers' engagement (Wolter, *et al*, 2019; Feldt *et al.*, 2013; Kinnunen, Feldt and Makikangas, 2008), commitment, motivation (Godin and Kittel, 2004) and increases turnover intentions (Derycke *et al.*, 2010).

The empirical studies explored in the literature section presented contradictory results on rewards. For instance, To and Tam's (2014) study demonstrated that social rewards were more important for migrant workers' job satisfaction while Frenkel, Li and Restubog (2012) reported that extrinsic rewards are the primary expectations of migrant workers. Therefore, to understand what type of rewards are more important to HOS, data need to be collected directly from the workers, because, management practices only convey the management views, which may or may not be accurate. More research is required in this area, especially incorporating the context, for instance migrant workers in lower ranking jobs.

6.5. Housekeeping Managers' Revelation of Staff Turnover

After having uncovered the prevailing practices in the London hotel housekeeping sector, it warrants an evaluation of the situation with staff turnover in these participating hotels. Because, this research was based on the assumption that by contributing positively to the development of employee engagement and employee commitment hotels might be able to lower their staff turnover rate as the industry is plagued with exceptionally high turnover as noted in the literature review (Markova *et al.*, 2016; Davidson, Timo and Wang, 2010; Wright and Pollert, 2006; Simons and Hinkin, 2001; Hinkin and Tracey, 2000; Deery and Iverson, 1996). In the sixth section of the question 'OCB' had one question that asked the interviewees directly about the rate of turnover at the hotel.

At the participating hotels, high turnover appeared to be a widespread phenomenon affecting smaller and bigger sized hotels equally. For example, on the one hand, 8 out of 9 hotels with 100 or less bedrooms had either high or very high staff turnover, on the other hand, all six hotels with over 500 bedrooms had either high or very high turnover. In addition, 5-star rated hotels were more inclined to high staff turnover, 10 out of 21 had very high turnover. The discussion here is segregated into two segments

based on the interviewee responses, one where the managers pointed out the reasons for the prevalence of high staff turnover and the other where they indicated criteria of the staff that made them more inclined to turnover.

Reasons for high staff turnover

There were four common reasons for staff turnover according to the interviewed HK managers.

Physical work

Housekeeping jobs are physically demanding, which not many people can endure

“The job is demanding, physically hard, lot of pressure so not everyone can survive”

(Housekeeping Manager, 5-star hotel)

“Most of them left not to go to another hotel but to places like Asda, Five Guys (next door) or coffee shops. The work there is so much easier than HK and you earn the same money or sometimes even more” (Head Housekeeper, 4-star hotel)

Low wage

Low pay was considered to be one of the core reasons for high staff turnover

“Housekeeping is physically the most demanding job and one of the lowest paid positions in hotel industry” (Head Housekeeper, 4-star hotel)

“Turnover in housekeeping is very high because it’s too hard and not paid well” (Housekeeping Manager, 4-star hotel)

Move on as they develop skills

Some said that workers leave as their skills develop, mainly linguistic skills, and often go to coffee shops

“When they start to speak good English and gain experience they move to other hotels to do housekeeping roles but most likely for better money or they might go to coffee shops” (Head Housekeeper, 4-star hotel)

“I find someone then she may come to me in few weeks’ time to say I got a job at Costa Coffee” (Director of Housekeeping, 5-star hotel)

Change in circumstances back home

Being mostly migrant workers, sometime their situations change and they leave to go back to their home countries

“Many leave through illness or if they have to go back to their countries”
(Housekeeping Manager, 4-star hotel)

“Turnover quite high because most of the times they want to go back to their own countries” (Executive Head Housekeeper, 5-star hotel)

Characteristics that made staff more susceptible to turnover

According to the interviewees, there were three other characteristics that made HOS more prone to leave HK jobs.

Hired through recruitment agency

There was a general belief that workers hired through mediating organisations leave more frequently compared to permanent hotel staff.

“For whatever reason agency people don’t stay with you, if you had your own staff it would have been different. Some stay for a few weeks others stay for a few months” (Head Housekeeper, 4-star hotel)

“A lot of people leave. I think all of our agency team apart from 2 or 3 are all new, started few months ago. The evening team is all new since 2 or 3 weeks” (Assistant Executive Housekeeper, 5-star hotel)

Lower level staff

Some mentioned that bottom level workers tend to leave more than their higher-level counterparts.

“Turnover is very high, not at the supervisory level. RA has a huge turnover. Probably about 35-40% are constantly changing rest are somewhat stable especially the agency staff” (Housekeeping Manager, 4-star hotel)

“Turnover for the entry level positions would be 30% from agency side. It affects our operation. In HK from supervisor and above team has been very constant for the past few years” (Director of Housekeeping, 5-star hotel)

Younger population

The HK managers also professed that the younger population are more likely to leave

“Middle-aged people who don’t want to build a career are the best people because they want to settle and have a permanent place 5 days a week at least- this one is really good for us. But the young ones are not good for us” (Housekeeping Co-ordinator, 5-star hotel)

“Usually the younger girls don’t stay here long. Most of them come here to make money then go home” (Head Housekeeper, 4-star hotel)

Staff turnover has always been exceptionally high for the hospitality industry but the recent political uncertainty caused by Brexit has made the matter worse. The flow of migrant workers to the UK dropped with the existing workers returning to their home countries, as discussed in the literature review (Dearden, 2019; Partington, 2019; KPMG, 2017). At least 27 HK managers expressed their frustration about the shortage of people in the labour market and 18 of them actually pointed their fingers towards the existing political situation of the country as a major contributing factor. In response to labour market condition, a number of hotels had raised their hourly wage to attract and retain workers, displaying a more reactive rather than a proactive approach to tackle an issue that had existed for a considerable period of time. In general, consistent with previous studies, it did give the impression that the HK managers thought that high staff turnover was beyond their control (Davidson, Timo and Wang, 2010; Lashley, 2001; Wood, 1992; Mok and Finley, 1986; Johnson, 1985). To them it was either the *job characteristics*, such as physical demand, low pay, or *worker characteristics*, for instance being young or migrant workers they want to return home, or the *market and political situation* due to Brexit that attributed to the high staff turnover. It was hard to know whether these HK managers genuinely believed that there was nothing that could be done to remedy the situation, or they did not want to admit that they have not tried.

6.6. Discussion and Summary

The purpose of this chapter was to understand the management’s perspectives to make sense of how the employment practices shape the employment relationship and employee behaviours such as engagement and commitment in the hotel HK context. The discussion comprised five sections. In the first section, the manager-worker

relationship was explored, where a larger percentage of HK managers were found to maintain a superior quality LMX relationship providing socioemotional support thereby fulfilling workers' relatedness need. These managers actively engaged in building relationships and establishing relational psychological contracts with the HOS. Their support often stretched beyond work life for their staff. In return, consistent with previous studies, workers contributed more effort and were committed (Sparrowe and Liden, 2005) and had a higher level of self-efficacy (Murphy and Ensher, 1999). In some cases, however, there was over-commitment, most probably due to the extreme closeness and attachment to the managers, which could hinder the progress of HOS and hamper the success of the organisation.

At the other end of the scale, there were some managers who maintained inferior quality LMX relationship with their staff based on mainly transactional exchanges, which some blamed on the frequent change of workers and lack of time among other reasons. This is also coincided with the claims that presence of peripheral workers means that managers often do not get enough time to develop a relationship, therefore, the relationship that forms between them is grounded on transactional PC (Coyle-Shapiro and Kessler, 2002; Van Dyne and Ang, 1998).

The second section of the chapter probed employee engagement as perceived by the HK managers. There was widespread acknowledgement among the managers that the HOS were engaged in their work to the extent that they were effective workers but were not proactive. Studying the situation further, it was found that strict implementation of work standardisation of housekeeping tasks meant that they did not comply with any of the three core construct of proactive behaviour, personal initiative, flexible role orientation and role breadth self-efficacy. This would suggest that it was not the HOS who lacked the vigour, rather it was their work setting that restricted them to perform proactive behaviours. This concurs with the line of thought that asserts that work context could constrain various worker behaviours (Griffin, Neal and Parker, 2007; Johns, 2006; Frese and Fay, 2001).

The next section focused on employee commitment, again as regarded by the HK managers. The managers thought that long-tenured HOS held normative commitment, which is consistent with previous claims that workers' length of service is strongly

related to commitment (Valaei and Rezaei, 2016; Iqbal, Kokash and Al-Oun, 2011; Iqbal, 2010; Hrebiniak and Alutto, 1972) and that continuance commitment dominated among the agency-hired HOS. This was also harmonious to the notion that workers' expression of commitment to an organisation is often due to the fear that leaving their jobs may lead to limited job alternatives (Devece, Palacios-Marqués and Alguacil, 2016; Ogba, 2008), since HOS had many options, their fear was minimal so was their commitment. Agency-hired workers were said to be unaffected by the job insecurity, instead, they favoured the freedom of temporary contract, contradicting the claim that job insecurity increases workers' psychological strain and negatively affects psychological well-being (Vander Elst *et al.*, 2014; De Witte, 2005; Sverke and Hellgren, 2002; De Witte 1999). There was awareness that the HOS' migrant status had a hold upon their level of commitment to the hotels, which agrees with Parutis' (2014) three-stage migration process that elucidates that migrant workers move from lower jobs to seek improvement in their socio-economic life. This could be why they did not want to commit to housekeeping jobs. Although, the managers did not find HOS' level of commitment adequate, they provided various examples of helping behaviours of HOS either to help the organisation or co-workers. This confirmed the assertion that continuance commitment should not be regarded as discouraging or negative (Suliman and Iles, 2000).

The fourth section focused on the organisational-level support by the means of four HR practices, hiring, socialising, training and developing and rewarding. Starting with hiring process, unsurprisingly, apart from only a few hotels, the vast majority relied heavily on intermediating organisations and existing workers' social network to hire new staff which has been the practice for hospitality industry some time now as numerous studies had pointed this before (Alberti and Danaj, 2017; Samaluk, 2016; Alberti, 2014; Sporton, 2013; Fitzgerald and Hardy, 2010; Lucas and Mansfield, 2010; Lai, Soltani and Baum, 2008; McDowell, Batnitzky and Dyer, 2008; Dench *et al.*, 2006). The hiring process often transpired in absence of formal job descriptions dismissing the new hire's person-job-fit. In line with Diamond and Bedrosian's (1970) investigation, person specification for the HOS was based on personal ideas making the hiring process personal and subjective rather than fair and impersonal. This suggested that the warm body syndrome as many had claimed (Choi and Dickson, 2009; Simons and Hinkin, 2001) still persists among hotel HK managers, where they

source and employ staff based on convenience and cost-efficiency. By doing so the HK managers had deprived workers of the opportunity to establish PC.

The next stage was the organisational socialisation process. Only a very small portion of participating hotels who had permanent staff only arranged formal induction sessions and the rest, did not introduce the new recruits to the organisation. By this stage, workers have started their new job without an elaborate job description and introduction to the hotel means they would neither have much knowledge about their role nor the hotel. Organisational socialisation, more like double socialisation process for migrant workers (Roberts, 2010; Li, 2000), had been ignored leaving workers socially detached and their innate psychological need to belong, feel connected and related unmet. It can be argued that by dismissing this crucial integration process, particularly when the majority of the workforce is migrant workers, organisations run the risk of having a socially exclusive workforce who would struggle to engage and bond with the organisation increasing the possibilities of involvement in antisocial behaviours.

The participating hotels used shadowing as the main form of on-the-job training for the new-hires, which, has been claimed to be one the most effective training methods in the hotel environment (Furunes, 2005). Apart from that, almost two third of the hotels did not show much interest in increasing workers' competence and self-efficacy with the provision of development training, as many previous studies had suggested (Markova *et al.*, 2016; Knox *et al.*, 2015; Harris, Tregidga and Williamson, 2011; Soltani and Wilkinson, 2010; Veijola, 2009; Ryan, 1998). About one third of the participants mentioned that they had development training for HOS, out of which, the number of hotels that provided social skill training was even less, confirming the claims made before that social skills training is often neglected in the hospitality industry (Janta *et al.*, 2011; Baum 1996). Only 13 hotels provided language development training to HOS whereas language socialisation is particularly vital to the HOS being migrant workers, because as literature claims linguistic capital is often necessary for the social integration (Johansson and Śliwa, 2016; Pavlenko, 2005), which enhances the satisfaction of their need to be related and contributes to their psychological well-being.

London hotel HK sector seemed to have a big rewarding culture, largely extrinsic rewards. The most common type of reward was employee of the month or year which raised doubts about procedural justice as literature claims workers' perceived unfairness of rewards could lead to undesirable consequences (Colquitt *et al.*, 2001; Greenberg, 1990). There were rewards for performing OCB raising concerns that monetary rewards could undermine workers' intrinsic motivation, especially when external rewards are not required because rewards are inherent to the activity as Deci's (1971) investigation evidenced along with many others (Cameron and Pierce, 1994; Deci, Koestner and Ryan, 2001; Deci, 1976; Deci, 1971). There were some other extrinsic rewards based on feedback. Even though the actual reward was extrinsic, it had intrinsic value attached because positive feedback promotes the fulfilment of feeling of workers' innate need- competence and self-actualisation (Deci, 1976). Intrinsic reward was generally dismissed, which suggested that the rewards were designed with the ideology that *money can buy favourable behaviour* as opposed to appreciating and complementing workers for their achievements. Moreover, the HR practices implemented by the participating hotels indicated hard approach to HRM considering workers as interchangeable units of labour, not uncommon especially when recruiting migrant workers at low skilled jobs as many had pointed out before (Hopkins, Dawson and Veliziotis, 2016; Soltani and Wilkinson, 2010; Forde and MacKenzie, 2009; MacKenzie and Forde, 2009; Holgate, 2005). In addition, there was also an obvious divide in treatment between the core and peripheral workers in terms of availability of organisational support by the means of HR practices. Whereas literature claims that contingent workers experience work-related stress more, thus, seek more social support (Madden *et al.*, 2017).

The final section presented the staff turnover situation, which in line with previous studies was exceptionally high (Markova *et al.*, 2016; Davidson, Timo and Wang, 2010; Wright and Pollert, 2006; Simons and Hinkin, 2001; Hinkin and Tracey, 2000; Deery and Iverson, 1996). Additionally, the HK managers gave the impression that high staff turnover was beyond their control, consistent with previous claims (Davidson, Timo and Wang, 2010; Lashley, 2001; Wood, 1992; Mok and Finley, 1986; Johnson, 1985), rather, it was owing to factors related to the job, worker and market situation.

Referring to the conceptual models developed through reviewing the literature, it was understood that to have engaged and committed workers organisations need to foster workers' positive psychological emotions by providing supports thereby fulfilling the psychological needs of relatedness, competence and autonomy. At the micro level, with line management, there seemed to be a consistency between the expected input and input provided in practice in terms of worker support and need fulfilment. At the macro level, with organisational management through HR practices, I failed to find any consistency between the expected inputs and inputs in practice, neither was there any cohesion among the HR practices. For instance, in most cases HOS were hired by phoning the mediating organisations and were sent straight to the guestrooms to learn how to do the job by shadowing for two days before they were left to clean a number of rooms by themselves. There was no real sense of integration or effort by the management to show support for and acceptance of these new hires, which could trigger anti-social behaviours. Organisational support, both social and emotional, was ignored leaving workers' need for relatedness unmet. When it came to training the HOS, again not many HK managers understood the need and requirement of job-specific training to enhance workers' competence and social skills training to increase the chances of social inclusion of these migrant workers. Yet again, organisational support, chiefly career support, was unheeded, so was workers' need for competence. Then at the stage of rewarding, the picture transformed completely, the managers appeared very generous with financial rewards. Workers were rewarded even for performing citizenship behaviours.

As discussed in the literature review, HRM is a framework of practices and strategies (Du Plessis, Douangphichit, and Dodd, 2016), therefore, cohesion is required to achieve desired organisational outcome and an absence of consistency may hint at a lack of attention to workers' well-being (Edwards, 2009). Where the HK managers condemned HOS' lack of engagement with work and commitment to the organisation, it can be argued that such worker behaviours were the acts of reciprocity induced by the absence of organisational support and negligence of workers' psychological need fulfilment. Taking all these into account, it can be said that high staff turnover that existed in the London hotel housekeeping sector was perhaps the output resulting from the lack of inputs. Overall, this may suggest that apart from the managers' support most of the other organisational-level practices or the lack of support negatively

contributed to the formation of employee engagement and commitment. It may also be an indication that London's hotel housekeeping sector is paying the price with high staff turnover for their hands-off approach to human resource (mis)management.

CHAPTER SEVEN

Conclusions and Recommendations

The hospitality industry worldwide is known to experience an extraordinarily high staff turnover rate costing the organisations *financially* by lowering productivity and increasing recruitment expenses, and *psychologically* by intensifying the workload and stress for workers who decide to remain. The process of turnover has been a topic of interest among social researchers for some time now; however, investigating staff turnover concentrating on a single department in hotel is not widely studied. From the literature exploration, it was understood that the factors that contribute to the development of employee engagement and employee commitment could help organisations in lowering this high turnover rate. This particular connection between employee engagement, commitment and turnover intention, guided by the literature, was original to this research. This research, therefore, focused on identifying the factors, within the context of London hotel housekeeping, that contribute to the formation of employee engagement and employee commitment with the assumption that by acknowledging the factors, hotels would be better able to tackle the intention to turnover of these migrant workers. The overarching question that this research addressed was

What are the factors in the employment relationship that, positively or negatively, affecting employee engagement and employee commitment of the migrant workers in London's hotel housekeeping sector?

To answer the principal research question, three supplementary questions were outlined. Applying mixed-methods, quantitative and qualitative, the research data were drawn from two main sources. Quantitative data gathered from 106 London hotel HOS utilising face-to-face researcher-administered survey method answered the first question

What are the factors that positively or negatively affect workers' choices of staying at the hotel or leaving the hotel?

Using statistical analysis, workers' characteristics and work-related factors were explored mainly to determine the degree of correlation, between two variables as well as multiple variables with regression model. The results were the empirical evidence of the factors that contribute to London hotel housekeeping workers' intention to stay at the hotel. The discussion was covered in Chapter Five.

Qualitative data collected from 53 London hotel housekeeping managers from various regions of London using semi-structured interview method addressed the two other research questions. The first one was,

What sort of leader-member relationship exists among the hotel housekeeping workers and do the managers see their staff as being engaged with their work and committed to the organisation?

Answer to this question was essential for this research because the literature indicated that a manager's relationship has enormous effect on subordinates' behaviours and the overall employment relationship. The strength and the closeness of the manager-worker relationship stand for social and emotional support to workers. This is critical for employment relationships where migrant workers are involved. The superior the bond is the better supported the workers would feel and more positive their behavioural outcome. Furthermore, managers' perceptions of employee engagement and commitment were important to understand their reasoning behind this high staff turnover. The last research question was,

What are the organisational forms of support, devised by HR practices, offered to the housekeeping workers?

To understand the employment relationship minutely, it was necessary to evaluate organisational-level support, which can be interpreted through the HR practices that existed in the participating hotels. Implementing thematic data analysis technique, these two questions were discussed in Chapter Six. The narrative uncovered a wide range of perspectives and organisational policies, some of which positively while others negatively influenced HOS' level of engagement and commitment to the organisation.

The investigation started with many preconceived ideas and theoretical perspectives. The majority of these notions were formed through exploring the literature and a small proportion were accumulated through personal life experiences. While some of the core findings of this research supported the preconceptions, others offered new directions for philosophical discussions. This final chapter presents a reflection on the research findings and the wider implications. The first section highlights the original contribution to knowledge in four sections, research context, subjects, approach and knowledge gap. This is followed by the acknowledgement of the limitations this research encountered and then the implications the findings may have in the

theoretical as well as the practical realms. The penultimate section points out the applicability of the research findings in other areas of research. The final section proposes suggestions for future research.

7.1. The Original Contribution to Knowledge

The exclusivity of this research contributed to knowledge at four different levels. First, the context within which the research was carried out, second, the subjects that was studied, third, the implemented data collection and analysis approach and finally, the findings that contributed to the existing theoretical knowledge.

Research Context

The literature highlighted the critical importance of employee engagement and commitment in addressing the psychological contract and meeting individual needs, thereby minimising the likelihood of high levels of staff turnover. High staff turnover is one of the defining characteristics of the hospitality industry, however, earlier studies have not associated employee engagement and commitment to turnover intentions focusing on a specific region, London, and workers from a specific sector, hotel housekeeping. Workers in this department not only work within the strict quality control guidelines imposed by the hotels but also work within other authoritarian conditions specific to housekeeping work, such as high job demand, low job control, time pressure and routine and repetitive tasks with the requirement of physical strength.

Besides, the labour market situation at the time of data collection, June 2017- February 2018, was particularly distinctive due to the Brexit announcement. A large number of European workers left the UK as the Brexit process started, which impelled the labour market to become tight. There was a widespread scarcity of migrant workers, as discussed in Chapter Six, which prompted the hotel management to change certain work conditions. For example, managers mentioned relaxing their HOS hiring criteria and some even increased the hourly pay to attract people. All this contributed to the individuality of the context within which this research was carried out.

Research Subjects

By incorporating both hotel housekeeping managers' and workers' perspectives, the factors that contribute to employee engagement and commitment which influence workers' intention to turnover were explored. This research studied a specific segment of the labour market that is under-researched, hence under-represented, most probably because accessing this population presents with various hurdles. The managers' position in the hotel meant they were arguably the elite group and the extra challenges that come with research subjects that include elite members are far from unknown, as discussed in the methodology chapter. The housekeeping workers that participated in the study were all migrant workers from 20 different countries. Researching migrant workers especially without a common ground, more precisely language, or network, could be problematic, although the lack of mutuality means the possibility of biasness was nominal. Nonetheless, 106 survey responses were collected from HOS, despite all that obstacles, thus giving this research a unique standpoint.

Research Approach

This research offered an original analytical and methodological approach in the understanding of employee engagement and employee commitment of the migrant workers within the hotel HK work setting in two ways. First, it combined the simultaneous examination of workers' and their managers' perspectives to identify the factors that may contribute positively or negatively in fostering engaged and committed workforce by lessening workers' intention to leave the organisation. Research data gathered and analysed applying two separate methods yielded findings that were at variance with one another providing strong evidence that there were disparities in perspectives between the HK managers and the HOS. The managers' viewpoints, however, seemed to be based on personal ideologies as opposed to any evidence or data. Difference in manager-workers perception is not uncommon. Many investigations that studied manager and workers concurrently, pointed out such differences. For instance, Sharabi (2008) noted the differences in the factors relating to promotion at work and Sánchez-Vidal, Cegarra-Leiva and Cegarra-Navarro (2012) discussed the perception gaps between managers and workers with regards to work-life balance. It is critical for the social scientists to identify conflicting data, which may

enable them to attain a deeper understanding and develop new perspectives and theories. This will then help the practitioners understand and manage their workforce better. Some of these contradictory perspectives are discussed in the following section.

Second, researchers who study or capture experiences of migrant workers with little or no host country language proficiency, often successfully do so by pursuing ethnic matching to reduce the most impactful barrier, the language barrier, among others. Studying migrant workers without ethnic matching is not commonly pursued and there exists a scarcity of literature on how to bridge or mitigate ethnic differences in such investigations. This research was conducted without any ethnic matching which proves that the process is feasible, allowing the researcher to capture a diverse range of voices. However, there were many difficulties but this research should inspire future researchers to conduct similar studies, carefully balancing the trade-offs between academic rigour and difficult-to-obtain data.

Contribution to the Knowledge Gap

The research data pointed out at least four differences between the perceptions of HK managers and workers. First, all interviewed managers, except for one, preferred hiring workers through social network or word-of-mouth and they presumed this was the best approach to hire reliable and trustworthy workers. In some hotels, a bonus scheme had been introduced to encourage existing workers to introduce acquaintances, whereas from the survey data it was established that workers who were hired through reference had the highest level of turnover intention. The best way of hiring in terms of retention was found to be the direct applications and walk-ins, where the candidate had a chance to meet the manager and observe the work environment. This had been previously proven to be the most effective way to prevent premature departure in the hotel setting (Choi and Dickson, 2009). Some HK managers recruited HOS directly but there was no indication that they preferred this method or thought this could be the most sustainable approach to retain HOS.

Second, there seemed to be an assumption among the managers that entry-level staff who earn a low wage, Room Attendants in particular, tend to leave more than those

who are not at the bottom level of the hierarchy. The quantitative data attested that the reverse was true for hotel housekeeping workers. The empirical results signalled that the HOS who had higher intention to leave were those who were positioned at a higher level, and thus cleaned fewer guestrooms, earned a better wage and had been living in the UK for longer. This indicated that over time as the HOS' language proficiency develops and they acquire more skills, their intentions to progress intensify thereby enhancing their propensity to leave in search for better jobs. This was in line with the studies that had suggested that migrant workers acquire skills to progress in the labour market by participating in the socialisation process (Roberts, 2010; Li, 2000) and one of the core skills that they need is the host country language proficiency (Polanco and Zell, 2017; French, 2012; Heyes, 2009; Spencer *et al.*, 2007). This also confirmed the assertion that migrant workers do not stay in one job, rather, as they acquire knowledge and skills they move jobs to improve their economic position within the labour market (Parutis, 2014).

Third, the managers did not appear to be convinced that the HOS were committed to the organisation even though they provided various examples of altruistic behaviours performed by their staff. For example, HOS displayed prosocial behaviours by being flexible to cover a colleague's absence or helping a colleague with workload and citizenship behaviour by being available to work when the hotel is in crisis due to shortage of workforce or excessive demand. Contrary to the managers' perceptions, the survey data established that the majority of the participating HOS intended to stay in the same hotel for the next six months (73%, n= 77), suggesting a higher level of commitment to the hotel. Further analysis of the survey data revealed that the HOS seemed to commit when (i) the managers were friendly and approachable so that they could benefit from social reward by the means of managers' support, (ii) they were appreciated for their hard work and (iii) they enjoyed their work. In presence of any one of these three clauses, the HOS would continue to work at a hotel even when the pay is lower in comparison with other job offers in the market. This indicated that HOS' commitment to the hotel was less attached to their wage and more attached to their job itself (enjoyment), organisational support by having supportive managers and being appreciated.

Fourth, the participating hotels appeared to endorse a big rewarding culture, mostly extrinsic rewards, for example cash, champagne, all-inclusive holidays. The management even rewarded workers monetarily for performing citizenship behaviours raising moral concerns because scholars had been advocating against extrinsic rewards for tasks where rewards are inherent to the activity (Cameron and Pierce, 1994; Deci, Koestner and Ryan, 2001; Deci, 1976; Deci, 1971). Rewards can be intrinsic too but in the London hotel context the management did not appear to acknowledge the existence of such rewards.

Analysing the quantitative data, however, it emerged that HOS prioritised intrinsic aspects of the job, as discussed in the paragraph above, such as social support, work appreciation and work enjoyment, over any monetary gain. The finding was unique to a certain degree given the widely believed notion that migrant workers in low-paid jobs and at the lower level of the hierarchy are generally people who migrate to improve their economic circumstances hence more inclined to earn more money regardless of the work conditions presented to them. Further research on this topic is required to understand the actual and long-term effect of extrinsic rewards on hotel housekeeping workers' engagement and commitment. This is because this investigation only pointed out that the HOS preferred intrinsic attributes but it provided no evidence that HOS' preferences translate to favourable outcomes, nor that the extrinsic rewards undermine workers engagement with work or commitment to the hotel.

Apart from the conflict between the outlook of the managers and the HOS, the hotel HK management approach in general was found to be contrasting the literature too. The literature review discussion unveiled a number of factors that contribute to foster employee engagement and employee commitment, of which some were directly in control of the management through the HRM policies. It was understood that the HR policies are intertwined with each other thereby creating a continuous process that starts at the hiring stage and continues throughout the employment process. However, the analysis of management data demonstrated a different approach. The HR policies in place in most of the participating hotels were not programmed to encourage employee engagement or employee commitment. Opportunities to provide organisational support thereby fulfilling workers' psychological needs were missing

from at all the four HR policies that were explored in the investigation- hiring, socialisation, training and rewarding.

Hiring practices were based upon 'warm body syndrome', confirming previous claims (Harrison, 2010; Choi and Dickson, 2009; Simons and Hinkin, 2001; Woods, 1992), as opposed to matching the candidates with the job ensuring person-job fit. Here the hotels missed out on the career support and left the workers' competence needs unmet. The socialisation process, mainly the initial stage one, known as induction, was ignored which could be argued as a missed opportunity to integrate workers into the work environment, crucial for the HOS as migrant workers. Emotional and social support was lacking at this stage and workers' need to feel related was unheeded. As for training, most hotels did not appear to train entry-level workers appropriately other than the basics of how to do the job and safety training required by law. This was claimed previously by a number of scholars (Markova *et al.*, 2016; Knox *et al.*, 2015; Harris, Tregidga and Williamson, 2011; Soltani and Wilkinson, 2010; Veijola, 2009; Ryan, 1998). Very few hotels actually concentrated on the social skills development, which is again vital for the progression of migrant workers in the labour market. The most pertinent one for migrant workers at the bottom level of the hierarchy is linguistic training, but over half of the HK managers did not appear to acknowledge that. Workers were left with limited career support and their needs for competence and autonomy, which could have been achieved through job-appropriate training, were ignored. This finding makes one wonder whether the lack of career support is intentional because of the awareness among the managers that the more competent a worker is, the higher the likelihood that the person will seek better opportunity elsewhere or is it just management actions in ignorance of the advantages of training. Further in-depth investigation on this topic may reveal the facts. There appeared extensive and impulsive use of extrinsic rewards, which were not particularly promoting career and emotional support, thus workers' need to feel competent and appreciated was dismissed.

Overall, this section of the qualitative data analysis supported previous claims that hard HRM policies are often preferred by hotel management (Hopkins, Dawson and Veliziotis, 2016; Soltani and Wilkinson, 2010; Forde and MacKenzie, 2009; MacKenzie and Forde, 2009; Holgate, 2005). It might be plausible to assert that the existing HR

policies that were discussed in this research negatively affected the formation of employee engagement and employee commitment, as they did not provide the organisational-level support that the HOS needed to fulfil their psychological needs. Therefore, the HK managers' discontent with workers' insufficient commitment towards the organisation resulting in premature departure, was arguably self-induced instead of other external factors affecting the situation.

The survey questionnaire did not concentrate on the HR policies but some questions touched upon HR issues and from the data, it looked as if the participating HOS were not concerned about the HR policies. For instance, the majority of the respondents thought their initial training (shadowing) was enough for the job and 79% even believed that they had acquired new skills at work, such as, how to clean carpets or how to make a bed properly. These can be skills, albeit very specific to hotel housekeeping and the transferability of such job-specific skills is questionable. It may seem that for these migrant workers the realisation of training needs to acquire new transferable skills for their career progression was not there. About 36% did not think spoken English was needed to do the job, which I came to realise was true because most of the HOS got the job through their acquaintances creating a national cluster within the hotels, where their conversational language was their native languages. Numerous hotels refused to participate in the study because none of the HOS could speak English and were of the same nationality. Again, there appeared a lack of acknowledgement or awareness among the migrant HOS that linguistic skills were required to advance in the labour market. A large portion of the participating HOS, about 40%, appeared to be unaware of any reward policy at the hotels. This may be either due to HOS' lack of interest in the reward policy or the management failed to communicate the existing policies properly to the staff. On the one hand, there appeared HR policies without the emphasis on the people as well as communication gap between management and workers. On the other hand, HOS seemed to lack the interest or acknowledgement of their needs. This proved to be a chicken-and-egg argument about which caused the other, the poor HR structure caused uninterested workers, or, because of the lack of interest from workers, management decided upon HR policies that were not people-focused. This could be the focus of future research with a concentration on the changes in the HR policies and the effects

that may have on the HOS, particularly in terms of their work engagement and commitment.

One might question whether the basic HR practices were negatively impacting HOS' engagement and commitment, then how is the housekeeping department still functioning and meeting the business demand. The answer to this may lie in the factor that was found to be highly significant and most notably highly valued by both managers and workers equally, which was the manager-worker relationship. Superior quality LMX relationship that a larger proportion of the participating managers maintained proved to influence HOS' engagement and commitment positively. A good manager-worker relationship provided the HOS the social and emotional support that they needed in order to fulfil their psychological need to feel related. Which was perhaps why the majority of the HOS held a positive perception of their work and managers in general. The survey results demonstrated that HOS' commitment was directly related to their relationship with the managers and the importance of a good-quality LMX relationship was higher than the ability to earn better money.

Managers' leadership approaches and the relationship they maintained with their staff appeared to be more strongly correlated to workers commitment than the HR policies. Although supportive managers meant social and emotional support for the HOS, the career support, which should have been made available through appropriate HR policies, was not always available to the workers. In consequence, there was a lack of willingness among the HOS to progress further, as the managers pointed out, but one can argue that this was not just the unwillingness, rather, this was due to the lack of career support whereby workers' self-efficacy and competence needs were unmet.

The quantitative data collected through the survey also gathered demographic information of the HOS, most of which, such as age, marital status, previous work experience and tenure was found to be unrelated to HOS' intention to stay with or leave the hotel. The insignificant correlation test results agreed with the literature where some scholars had pointed out that workers' demographics often play minor role in the measurement of engagement (Sharma, Goel, and Sengupta, 2017; Koyuncu, Burke and Fiksenbaum, 2006) and commitment (Meyer *et al.*, 2002). The only statistically significant demographic variable was time spent in the UK. The more

time these migrant workers spent in the UK, the more their intention to leave the organisation increased, in line with Parutis' (2014) theory of migration process.

7.2. Research Limitations

Limitations are an important part of any research and need acknowledging and declaring so that the readers can take into consideration the circumstances in which the study was carried out and help future researchers to learn from it and know what to expect in similar situations. Following Rimando and associates' (2015) suggestion to report research obstacles, this section highlights some of the major limitations of this investigation.

Access Restriction with Time Limitation

At the start of the data collection, due to severe access issues the sampling strategy had to be modified to broaden the inclusion criteria from only three-star hotels to three-and-over star rated hotels. This access restriction was even more challenging due to HK managers falling in the 'elite' category and acting as 'gatekeepers'. Furthermore, the HK managers' involvement in the survey participant selection may have generated selection or participation bias. Literature often suggests building rapport to remedy such issues, which was impractical in this context. Because establishing contact and persuading the HK managers to participate was frequently received as an inconvenient request due to the participants' hectic work schedules, hence, repeat visits or calls could have jeopardised the possibility of collecting data entirely. In absence of these restrictions, I could have gathered more information. That said, the overall data collected for this research exceeded what was needed to attain the research objectives, because many less-related details from the manager interviews and most data gathered from the recruitment representative interviews were not utilised in the analysis. Therefore, any further details may not have been used and could have proven unmanageable too.

Language Constraint

A small number of participating HOS did not have a great understanding of the English language, which made me dubious about their understanding of the questions itself.

With those respondents, I had asked multiple times whether they understood the question or not and I rephrased and explained further, often with examples where possible, to make it easier to understand. However, they still may have responded 'yes' or 'no' without fully understanding the context of some of the questions, which might have slightly affected the credibility of their responses.

Migrant Workers with Linguistic Skill

As noted in Chapter Five, the participating HOS had already achieved linguistic skills, therefore they may have been positioned at a higher level in their migrant community and were more employable than fresh migrants with almost no language proficiency. The latter cohort may have different perceptions towards work, management, commitment and turnover intention than those with already acquired linguistic skills. The research proceeded without translated copies of the survey questionnaire because I intended to carry out the survey myself so that I could establish a connection with the respondents and interact openly and explain, where necessary, which was crucial to extract their genuine feelings and experiences. Future research could shed light on this topic by comparing the two cohorts in terms of their experiences and perceptions of work and analyse whether the outlooks differ in any way.

One Point in Time Study

From this investigation, I have come to realise that employee engagement, commitment and turnover intentions would be better understood with longitudinal research. Without doubt, the results of this research are valid; however, analysing data collected at one point in time is only capable of painting the current picture, not a broader long-term picture. If the right approaches are implemented by the hotels then HOS' engagement with work and commitment to the hotel could change which in turn would affect turnover intentions, but that would be a gradual change not an instant one. For that reason, a time series study on hotel housekeeping workers' engagement and commitment and the influence that can have on their decision to leave the hotel would be something for future researchers to investigate.

Lack of Previous Studies

The lack of research on hotel housekeeping workers is undeniable. Hospitality studies regularly research managerial-level staff and hotel management but rarely focus on

workers from one specific department. Using general terms for instance, 'hotel workers' may not provide an in-depth understanding, because each department is individual in at least three ways. First, *the type of work they do*- hotel housekeeping work includes physically strenuous tasks, while reservation can be psychologically demanding. Second, *the work context*- some may have extreme time pressure and require accuracy while others may not. Third, *the type of workers hired in each department*- housekeeping department relies heavily on migrant workers with little previous experience or skills whereas front desk would need skilled workers with excellent interpersonal skills. Therefore, the applicability of the one-size-fits all concept would be questionable for hotel workers from different departments. More research is needed to understand the various departments within hotel individually as workers in each department perceive work differently. Nevertheless, the lack of previous studies makes this research exclusive and original, which may be of great value for future researchers.

7.3. Research Implications

The findings of this research have two important implications. One is theoretical implications, which will be advantageous for future researchers and social scientists or theorists who can build their arguments based on the conclusions drawn here. The other is practical implications, which will be beneficial mostly to the managers who lead a team of migrant workers or workers at the lower end of the hierarchy.

7.3.1. Theoretical Implications

This investigation provided empirical evidence that low-skilled or unskilled workers' at the lower pay scale of the labour market actually value the intrinsic attributes of the work more than the extrinsic ones. More precisely, work engagement and commitment to the organisation for migrant workers in these manual jobs are closely associated to their work enjoyment, appreciation they receive from the management and superior-quality LMX as opposed to how much they can earn or how demanding the work is, all of which shape their perceptions of turnover. This investigation combined a variety

of work traits and presented a direct comparison between the extrinsic and intrinsic work attributes. Intrinsic facets outweighed the extrinsic factors in contributing positively to the formation of employee engagement and commitment, and negatively to workers intention to leave. This emphasised the prominence of inherent work attributes in determining employee behaviours and actions.

The chances of career progression for these lower-ranked migrant workers can be augmented through appropriate social skills training and other job-related training. This confirmed the importance of training for career advancement even for workers in the jobs commonly stereotyped as 'skill-deficient'. The research data also highlighted that the HR practices, starting at the hiring stage and continuing throughout the employment process, play a vital role in positively or negatively shaping workers' engagement and commitment in the long term, thereby influencing their decision to stay with or leave the organisation. This validated the significance of HR practices in defining employee behaviours and attitudes regardless of the workers' level in the organisational hierarchy. These findings are only a drop in the ocean, but could open up new paths for exploration for future researchers.

7.3.2. Practical Implications and Recommendations for Practitioners

Based on the research findings, it may seem reasonable to suggest that practitioners could benefit from making changes in the work context to make the work more enjoyable, especially for workers involved in routine manual labour. For example, in the hotel housekeeping work setting, it could be argued that by introducing occasional work rotation where workers from one department are sent to another department to work with different people and learn new sets of skills, management might be able to break the monotonous routine cycle of everyday work. This will not only provide workers with an opportunity to experience new things but also enhance their self-efficacy, which may help foster work engagement and commitment to the organisation, reducing workers' intention to leave.

The findings further point towards the fact that it might be advantageous for the departmental managers to encourage and maintain a work environment where

workers feel that they can discuss work and non-work-related issues, by building a close-knit work relationship that fulfils workers' need to feel related and belong. This seemed particularly important where migrant workers are involved because, by enabling a friendly work environment management could protect migrant workers from social exclusion and the damaging effects that can have on their work productivity. It may also be plausible to advise that by designing HR policies that encourage organisational-level support, especially career support by the means of appropriate training to meet workers' need for competence and social support with the help of social activities to meet workers' relatedness need, practitioners may keep the staff turnover rate on a tight rein. In addition, findings seem to strongly suggest that organisations may reap the best result by strategically crafting employee rewards aimed at promoting intrinsically motivated values and appreciate their contribution more than just giving away extrinsic rewards.

7.4. Applicability of the Research in Other Areas

This research studied a very specific population in a very particular context and the results obtained here might be useful in two ways, one, a work setting similar to hotel housekeeping, and two, the labour market conditions comparable to housekeeping workers.

The population studied in this research works in a hierarchical and bureaucratic organisational structure, the jobs are time-pressured, demanding and lack job control with SOP bound individual tasks. They often lack a formal permanent job contract thereby raising the issue of precarity. Therefore, the findings of this study may be helpful for businesses that offer a similar work environment, for example, operatives in manufacturing units and other workers in similar work conditions, where time restrictions and stringent quality-control processes mean nominal job control with high job demand for the workers. This study could also be beneficial for businesses that rely on migrant workers to fill entry-level job positions, such as hospitals, professional cleaning service providers, restaurants and others that use seasonal workers, to understand workers' perceptions in terms of what they prioritise more than others in workplaces.

7.5. Future Research Suggestions

This research explored the factors that contribute positively and negatively to workers' decisions to stay with or leave their organisations, by understanding the factors that directly contribute to the formation of employee engagement and commitment and indirectly to workers' turnover intentions. The findings in this research were just a beginning; there is still much that remains untouched. To understand the implications of the findings better, future researchers could undertake time-series study where data are collected from at least two different times to compare the before and after results. Future researchers could also use the appropriate measuring scales, which could provide results that are more accurate. For example, the Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (UWES) to measure workers' work engagement and Allen and Meyer's (1996) organisational commitment scale to measure workers' commitment to the organisation. These measuring scales, however, are developed to rate workers' level of engagement and commitment but not necessarily to allow the managers to rate their staffs' level of engagement or commitment. It might be worthwhile to invest in developing a scale that could allow both the managers and workers to use the same scale that could measure the same variables, which can help ascertain a direct comparison.

To determine whether or not there is any direct relationship between HR policies and migrant or low-skilled workers' engagement with work or commitment to the organisation, further research is needed, ideally applying mixed methods. This is because application of mixed methods in social research is particularly helpful in collecting a wide range of data that can be analysed using multiple data analysis strategies. This study could be helpful for social researchers willing to embark on mixed-methods research with practical ideas on how to prepare for data collection, methods to be used for data analysis and what to expect in terms of limitations. This research also discovered a rewarding culture in London hotels, so future investigations could explore whether extrinsic rewards have any link to employee engagement and commitment or turnover intentions for housekeeping workers.

The labour market situation at the time of data collection due to Brexit was particularly unique which may differ from workers' turnover intentions in pre-Brexit as well as post-

Brexit circumstances. Besides, in the past few years UK immigration system has gone through a complete overhaul. Freedom of movement between the UK and the EU countries ended on the 31st of December 2020, followed by a points-based immigration system that treats EU and non-EU nationals uniformly and employers willing to recruit workers from outside the UK will have to seek advance permission (GOV.UK. n.d.). This change in the immigration system will have impact on the migration process, more specifically from European countries, as well as the migrant workers' dynamics. Post-Brexit studies could reveal whether there is any connection between workers' engagement with work or commitment to their organisations and the labour market conditions. It is also worth noting that the current Covid-19 pandemic situation, which forced almost all the hospitality service providers in the UK to shut down in late March 2020, had an enormous effect on hospitality workers, many lost jobs instantly. Future studies may uncover how this might impact or had impacted the levels of hospitality workers' engagement, commitment and propensity to turnover.

This research further demonstrated how useful it is to collect data from multiple sources, especially when one wants to explore subjects related to work environment or work experience. Having both the managers' and workers' perspectives help to clarify a topic better because the responses can be cross-examined. Therefore, social researchers should consider incorporating more than one source of data for a thorough and in-depth understanding.

Investigations into hotel housekeeping workers exclusively are still relatively rare. This research provided an invaluable insight into this under-researched and under-represented world of hotel housekeeping. The thesis explored the factors that can contribute to hotel housekeeping workers' engagement and commitment, which can promote a superior quality workplace with fewer workers intending to leave. There were challenges encountered at almost each stage of the research but it was these hurdles that afforded this investigation its originality. Research like this one needs to continue to better understand how the workers at the bottom-level of the hierarchy process their work experiences, which in turn influences their decision to stay with or leave the organisation. Low staff turnover translates to stability in the individual worker's life, in the organisation and within the wider society.

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Appendices

Participant Information Sheet (HOS)

Study Title: An Exploration of Employee Engagement and Employee Commitment in The London Hotel Housekeeping Sector: The Perspectives of Both Housekeeping Staff and Their Managers



HOTEL is a place for people to relax whilst they are on holiday or work.

But what about the people who work in these hotels, are they happy in their roles?



I would like to ask you some questions about this for a study I am doing at the University of Brighton



My name is Quasirat Hasnat. Here is my picture.



Do you think you can help me? The questions I will be asking you will mostly be about you and your work, which should not take more than 20 minutes.



Your name or anything that identifies you will be kept confidential.



Now, if you wish to go ahead with the research, all you need to do is sign a consent form and I will get in touch with you later to arrange a convenient time for the interview. Also, if you are undecided at the moment you can always get in touch with me at the contact details provided here.

Finally, I would like to thank you for taking the time to read through the information sheet and I shall wait to hear from you soon if you wish to participate in the research.



Researcher Details:

Name: Quasirat Hasnat
Institute: University of Brighton
Institution ID: 16842703
Email: qh29@brighton.ac.uk

Informed Consent Form (HOS)

Project Title: An Exploration of Employee Engagement and Employee Commitment in The London Hotel Housekeeping Sector: The Perspectives of Both Housekeeping Staff and Their Managers

- I am voluntarily giving my consent to participate in the research conducted by Quasirat Hasnat at the University of Brighton.
- I have read and understood the information provided about the purpose of this research in the *Information Sheet*.
- I understand that I can stop my participation in this research at any point if I wish to without giving any reason and justification.
- I can decide to avoid the questions that I am unwilling or not comfortable to answer.
- I will try my best to be as honest as I can with my answers.
- I understand that my name and identity will be kept confidential to protect my privacy

Considering the aforementioned terms and conditions I agree to sign and date this *Informed Consent Form*.

Participant

Signature (Initial):

Date:

Questionnaire for Housekeeping Operational staff in London Hotels

Place of interview: Date: Serial No:

Introduction/ General Work-related Questions

1. What is your current job title?
2. How did you choose this role? (*select the most important answer*)
 - I applied for this position
 - This was the only position available at the time
 - I have experience in similar kind of roles
 - Other, specify.....
3. How did you get the job? (*select one answer*)
 - Friend recommended
 - Through job agency
 - I personally applied for the position advertised
 - I walked in looking for a vacancy
 - Other, specify
4. Is this your only job?
 - Yes
 - No
5. Did you work in your country before arriving in the UK?
 - No
 - Yes, job:
6. Is this your first job in the UK?
 - Yes
 - No
7. How long have you been doing this job?
8. Have you done other jobs in this hotel?
 - No
 - Yes, specify.....
9. How long have you been working in this hotel?
10. Have you worked in any other hotel before?
 - No
 - Yes (number of hotels.....)
11. How many days a week do you work?
12. How many hours a day do you work?
13. Do you get any extra benefits from this work?
 - Yes
 - No
- 14.1 If yes, which additional benefits do you get? (*select all that apply*)
 - Meals
 - Paid holidays
 - Transport
 - Accommodation
 - Health insurance
 - Other benefits, specify.....

14. If you are getting any extra benefits, are you normally happy with them?
 Yes, definitely I am not sure No, not really
15. Do you normally like coming to work every day?
 Yes, definitely Sometimes No, not really
16. Do you normally enjoy what you do at work?
 Yes, definitely Sometimes/I am not sure No, not really
17. (For housekeeping staff) How many bedrooms do you clean on a typical day?
18. How busy do you normally get at work?
 Very busy A bit busy Not at all busy
19. How tired do you normally feel at the end of your work shift?
 Very tired A bit tired Not at all tired
20. Do you normally get stressed at work? / Do you think your work is stressful?
 Yes, definitely Sometimes/ I am not sure No, not really
21. Are you normally happy with your working hours or shift patterns?
 Yes, definitely Sometimes/ I am not sure No, not really
22. Are you normally happy with your wage?
 Yes, definitely I am not sure No, not really
23. How do you get paid?
 Per hour Per week Per month Per rooms cleaned / job done
 Other, specify.....
24. What is your average hourly pay?
 Below minimum wage Minimum wage £7.5/h Above minimum wage
25. Would you recommend this job to your best friend or your sister/brother?
 Yes, definitely Not sure No, never

Intention to Stay and Organisational Citizenship Behaviour (OCB)

26. Do you see yourself in the same kind of work in the future?
 Yes Not sure No
27. Would you like to move to any other role in this hotel?
 Yes Not sure No
28. Do you think you would stay in the same hotel for the next 6 months?
 Yes Not sure No
29. If the management requests you to work a few extra hours on a really busy day and you can see that they are struggling to manage the workload and you do not have any plan for the rest of the day, would you do it?

Yes, definitely Not sure, I might No

30. If you are requested to do something that is not your responsibility at all and no one is actually pressurising you (you will not get paid extra and if you refuse there will not be any consequences whatsoever), will you do it?

Yes, definitely Not sure, I might No

31. Would you go to another job if they offered you a better wage but more working hours?

Yes, definitely Not sure, I might No

32. Would you switch to a job where they have a very unfriendly and controlling management but pay better wage?

Yes, definitely Not sure, I might No

Work Colleagues' Attitudes

33. Are your co-workers normally friendly and helpful?

Yes Sometimes No

34. Can you normally discuss your personal issues with your work colleagues?

Yes Sometimes No

Leader's Attitude/ Support

35. Are your supervisors and managers normally friendly and helpful?

Yes Sometimes No

36. Can you discuss your personal issues with them?

Yes Sometimes No

37. Do they make you feel a part of this hotel?

Yes Sometimes No

Non-pecuniary Factors

38. Would you say your work is flexible?

Yes Sometimes No

39. You get time/day off when in need? (e.g. GP appointment, Child care)

Yes Sometimes No

40. Would you say this workplace treats everyone equally? (equal rights and opportunities)

Yes Don't know No

Human Capital Development

41. What is your level of spoken English?

Excellent Very Good Good Poor

42. How important it is to speak good English for your job?

Very important Somewhat Important Not at all important

42.1 How important it is to write in English for your job?

Very important Sometimes it is important Not at all important

43. Have you ever attended any formal training programme at this hotel?

No Yes, explain.....

44. Do you think you are gaining new skills in the position you are in now?

Yes..... Not sure No No, I am losing skills (de-skilling)

Performance Evaluation

45. Do you feel that what you do is important to the overall business of the hotel?

Yes Not sure No

46. Does anyone monitor your performance on a regular basis?

Yes Not sure No

47. Do you think that the management appreciate your hard work?

Yes Not sure No

48. Is there any reward policy for workers who do really well?

Yes, explain..... Not sure No

Questions for Motivational Sources

Extrinsic/ instrumental motivation

49. "I would leave this job if I find another one with higher pay (I really only work for the money)."

Strongly Agree Agree Undecided Disagree Strongly Disagree

External self-concept motivation

50. "It is important to me that my hard work is appreciated by others."

Strongly Agree Agree Undecided Disagree Strongly Disagree

Intrinsic process motivation

51. Which of the below would you choose

- Scenario 1: hourly wage £7.50 and the job is something you enjoy doing
- Scenario 2: hourly wage £8 but the job is not something you enjoy doing or very laborious

Demographic Questions

52. Gender

Male Female Other

53. How old are you?

54. Which country are you from?

55. How long have you been in the UK?

56. What is your level of education/training?

No formal education Primary school Secondary school University

57. Do you have any children?

Yes No

57.1 If yes, do they live with you?

Yes

No

58. Do you live with a partner?

Yes

No

Is there anything else you would like to mention that I have not asked?

.....
.....
.....

Participant Information Sheet (Management)

Study Title: An Exploration of Employee Engagement and Employee Commitment in The London Hotel Housekeeping Sector: The Perspectives of Both Housekeeping Staff and Their Managers

I am a PhD student at the University of Brighton. I would like to find out the sources of work motivation among the housekeeping operational staffs at London hotels and how work motivation can have a positive impact on overall performance of the hotel.

For the purpose of data collection I will be interviewing one person from the management of the hotel, which should not ideally exceed more than ninety minutes. The person to be interviewed must be someone who supervises or is directly involved in the housekeeping operational staffs' duties. The questions asked will be: personal information (e.g. job title, tenure, work experience) and human resource management related topics (e.g. training, performance evaluation) to understand the management style of the hotel. The interview will be scheduled at the time convenient to the participant.

It is entirely up to you to decide whether or not to participate in this study. If you choose to take part, you will be given this Information Sheet to keep and be requested to sign an Informed Consent Form. If required I would personally be available to explain further and answer any questions you may have. This should not take more than 10 minutes. I must reassure you that this research would not put any respondent at risk in any way and the name of the hotels will not be mentioned in the final thesis.

The core benefits of this study are multi fold. The final analysis of the study will not only help improve the worker-manager relationship, but also will have a much wider impact on the overall hotel business. However, there is no immediate benefit to the respondents for participating in this study but it will definitely help shape the future of the industry.

Now, if you wish to go ahead with the research, just let me know and I will get in touch with you later to arrange a convenient time for the interview. Also, if you are undecided at the moment you can always get in touch with me at the contact details provided at the bottom of the page.

Finally, I would like to thank you for taking the time to read through the information sheet.

Researcher Details:



Quasirat Hasnat
Doctoral Student
University of Brighton
Institution ID: 16842703
Email: qh29@brighton.ac.uk

Informed Consent Form (Management)

Project Title: An Exploration of Employee Engagement and Employee Commitment in The London Hotel Housekeeping Sector: The Perspectives of Both Housekeeping Staff and Their Managers

- I am voluntarily giving my consent to participate in the research conducted by Quasirat Hasnat at the University of Brighton.
- I have read and understood the information provided about the purpose of this research in the *Information Sheet*.
- I understand that I can withdraw from the research at any point if I wish to without giving any reason or justification.
- I can decide to avoid the questions that I am unwilling or not comfortable to answer.
- I will try my best to be as honest as I can with my answers.
- I understand that my identity will be kept anonymous to protect my privacy.
- I understand that the hotel will not be identified at the thesis to protect its reputation.
- I agree for our conversation to be recorded for future analysis

Considering the aforementioned terms and conditions, I agree to sign and date this *Informed Consent Form*.

Participant

Print Name:

Signature:

Date:

Interview topic questions for the management representative

Date of the interview:

Star rating:

Location:

Name of the respondent:

Designation:

Nationality:

Introduction/ person specific questions

1. Gender
 - a. Male
 - b. Female
 - c. other
2. Age group
 - a. 25-30
 - b. 30-35
 - c. 35-40
 - d. 40- 45
 - e. 45 and over
3. How long have you been working in the industry?
4. How long have you been working in this hotel?
5. What is your level of education/training? Is it hospitality related?

General HRM questions

6. What is the recruitment and selection policy for housekeeping operational level staff?
7. Do you use worker networks to recruit a new staff?
8. Do you look for individuals with certain traits for housekeeping operational level job roles? If yes, what are they? Please explain
9. How would you describe the pay system at the hotel?
10. How many days a week do they work?
11. How many hours do they work on a typical day?
12. How many bedrooms would a Room Attendant/chambermaid clean on a typical day

Leadership approach

13. Do you have any leadership approach or just have some HR policies in place which you adhere to?
14. Do you get involved in their work issues often?
15. Do you know them all at personal level?
16. Are they allowed to discuss their family/personal issues with management without hesitation?
17. How would you describe the inter-departmental relationship at the hotel?

Performance evaluation

18. How would you rate the work quality of staff?
19. How would you rate the efficiency of your existing staff?
 - a. Very efficient
 - b. Pro-active, they know what to do when
 - c. Average efficient, active but needs guidance on when to do what
 - d. Not so efficient, needs guidance all along
20. Do you have any performance appraisal policy in place for HOS?
 - a. If yes, what is it, how does it work, how often that takes place?
 - b. If no, why not? Do you have any plan to implement one in future?

Human Capital development

21. What sort of training opportunities available to the staff?

22. What sort of arrangement is available for staff in terms of internal career progression?

OCB

- 23. How important do you think it is for workers to be committed to their roles?
- 24. How would you rate the commitment of staff towards the organisation?
- 25. What is the annual turnover rate? (if known at all)
- 26. How would you rate the level of job satisfaction of staff?
- 27. How flexible are your staff?
- 28. Are they happy to cover for someone else?
- 29. Are they happy to move between jobs as the work demands?

Non pecuniary factors

- 30. Do they get time/day off when requested?
- 31. Are they allowed to take compassionate leave?

Work motivation and engagement

- 32. How important do you think it is for workers to be motivated?
- 33. What else do you do to motivate workers?
- 34. What other extra benefits do they get at the hotel?
- 35. How do you celebrate Christmas? Do they get hampers/ cash bonus, vouchers?

Is there anything else you would like to mention that I have not covered in my series of questions?

.....



University of Brighton

Brighton Business School

Name of the person

Position

Hotel Name

Dear Sir,

I am one of the three supervisors of Quasirat Hasnat (Student ID: 16842703), a PhD student at the Brighton Business School, University of Brighton.

I understand that this letter is required to facilitate Quasirat's access to the housekeeping staff at Hilton London Canary Wharf hotel.

I can assure you that we at the University of Brighton apply strict regulations to academic research to protect the anonymity of all our research participants at all times; failing to adhere to these regulations has serious consequences.

Quasirat's PhD project is aimed at examining the factors that impact on the work motivation of housekeeping staff at London hotels. The larger the sample size, the more robust and credible the analysis will be. In addition, this project is a novice in academic research on the hospitality industry as there is a paucity of studies on understanding what motivates hotel housekeeping staff. In this research we are attempting to comprehend the perceptions of housekeeping staff and not to pin point what individual hotels do in any way. The identity of any hotel participating in the research is strictly anonymous.

It would be invaluable to the project if you could kindly grant Quasirat the permission to speak to your housekeeping staff, considering that any identifiable information about the hotel or a participant will be kept anonymous.

I look forward to hearing from you.

Please do not hesitate to contact me should you require any further information.

Sincerely,

Dr Eugenia Markova

Senior Lecturer

University of Brighton

Email: E.Markova2@brighton.ac.uk

Interview Topic Questions for the Recruitment Agency Representative

Name:

Date:

Designation:

Place of Interview:

1. Could you explain your relationship with the hotels you supply HK staff to? Who is in charge?
2. For housekeeping jobs in hotels, which country do you receive most applications from?
3. Did you notice any change in demand or supply of housekeeping staff after this Brexit started?
4. What are your selection criteria for a housekeeping staff at a hotel?
5. Does the star rating and size of the hotels affect the selection criteria?
6. What sort of contracts do they have? 0hours or something else?
7. Is there a min or max hours mentioned in the contract?
8. Do hotels or you set a wage for each level, or does it vary depending on which hotel they go to?
9. Who handles grievance for them, employer or agency?
10. Do they have auto enrolment to a pension scheme?
11. Is there any notice period for termination of contract?
12. What is the notice period for the staff, is there any?
13. How does the sick pay work?
14. Is there anything that you would like to mention that I have missed here?

SPSS Output for Logistic Regression

SPSS output for the Logistic Regression used to model the decision for HOS to remain on the job, presented in Chapter Five, section 5 (pp. 169-171).

Case Processing Summary			
Unweighted Cases ^a		N	Percent
Selected Cases	Included in Analysis	106	100
	Missing Cases	0	0
	Total	106	100
Unselected Cases		0	0
Total		106	100
a. If weight is in effect, see classification table for the total number of cases.			

Dependent Variable Encoding	
Original Value	Internal Value
0	0
1	1

Block 0: Beginning Block

Classification Table^{a,b}					
	Observed	Predicted			
		samehotel		Percentage Correct	
		0	1		
Step 0	samehotel	0.00	0	29	0
		1.00	0	77	100
	Overall Percentage				72.6
a. Constant is included in the model.					
b. The cut value is .500					

Variables in the Equation							
		B	S.E.	Wald	df	Sig.	Exp(B)
Step 0	Constant	0.977	0.218	20.088	1	0	2.655

Variables not in the Equation					
			Score	df	Sig.
Step 0	Variables	enjoyment	5.92	1	0.015
		wagehappy	9.684	1	0.002
		Mgtappreciate	16.598	1	0
		Hourlypay	13.947	1	0
	Overall Statistics		27.259	4	0

Block 1: Method = Enter

Omnibus Tests of Model Coefficients				
		Chi-square	df	Sig.
Step 1	Step	32.954	4	0
	Block	32.954	4	0
	Model	32.954	4	0

Model Summary			
Step	-2 Log likelihood	Cox & Snell R Square	Nagelkerke R Square
1	91.446 ^a	0.267	0.387

a. Estimation terminated at iteration number 6 because parameter estimates changed by less than .001.

Hosmer and Lemeshow Test			
Step	Chi-square	df	Sig.
1	2.091	6	0.911

Contingency Table for Hosmer and Lemeshow Test						
		samehotel = .00		samehotel = 1.00		Total
		Observed	Expected	Observed	Expected	
Step 1	1	11	11.072	4	3.928	15
	2	4	3.753	4	4.247	8
	3	7	7.263	13	12.737	20
	4	4	3.287	10	10.713	14
	5	2	1.893	9	9.107	11
	6	0	1.058	11	9.942	11
	7	1	0.509	10	10.491	11
	8	0	0.165	16	15.835	16

Classification Table ^a					
	Observed		Predicted		
			samehotel		Percentage Correct
			0	1	
Step 1	samehotel	0	12	17	41.4
		1	4	73	94.8
	Overall Percentage				

a. The cut value is .500

Variables in the Equation							
		B	S.E.	Wald	df	Sig.	Exp(B)
Step 1 ^a	enjoyment	1.311	0.896	2.139	1	0.144	3.711
	wagehappy	0.768	0.633	1.471	1	0.225	2.156
	Mgtappreciate	1.264	0.593	4.543	1	0.033	3.539
	Hourlypay	2.224	0.836	7.082	1	0.008	9.246
	Constant	-18.694	6.517	8.229	1	0.004	0

a. Variable(s) entered on step 1: enjoyment, wagehappy, Mgtappreciate, Q26: Average hourly pay .